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Active citizenship in INCA countries: definitions, policies, practices and outcomes

Final Report

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QAC

Main photograph, front cover: International delegates and young people at the INCA active citizenship seminar in Oxford, England in March 2006

CONTENTS

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Young people from the Learning and Skills Network (LSN) post-16 citizenship programme panel discussion with delegates

Executive summary

Background

The INCA[1] thematic study on **active citizenship**, of which this report is the final outcome, was commissioned by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority in England (QCA). Recent policy developments in England, and across INCA countries, contain many references to promoting active citizenship. However, there remain many questions concerning the meaning and implications of such policy directives.

Processes and Outcomes

The thematic study comprises four main processes and outcomes:

1. **A background paper**. Published in 2005, this paper summarises relevant literature in relation to active citizenship, and provides a case-study example of active citizenship policy and practice within England in the UK (Nelson and Kerr, 2005).
2. **An issues paper**. Produced early in 2006, this paper summarises questionnaire responses received from INCA network country representatives (Nelson and Kerr, 2006).
3. **An international seminar**. This took place in Oxford, England in March 2006, hosted by QCA and NFER. It provided an opportunity for country representatives from INCA countries to meet, share views and experiences of active citizenship, and to consider developments that needed to take place in order for active citizenship policy and practice to develop internationally.
4. **A final report** This report draws on data collected through the questionnaire survey of INCA countries in 2005 and 2006, and on discussions and key findings arising from the international seminar in March 2006. Fourteen countries, from the 20 in the INCA network took part in the thematic study. They are **Australia, Canada, England, Hungary, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, Scotland, Singapore, Spain, the USA** and **Wales**.

The thematic study seeks to address **five key questions**. These questions are those which the QCA, in dialogue with NFER researchers, deemed to be of most interest in exploring the theme of active citizenship, and learning from developments in INCA countries. They are:

- What is active citizenship and how is it defined?

[1] International review of curriculum and assessment frameworks internet archive.

- How is citizenship and active citizenship framed in education policy?
- What implementation measures are there to turn citizenship and active citizenship policies into effective practices?
- What are the issues and challenges in turning active citizenship policy into effective practices?
- How can active citizenship be achieved and what are its outcomes?

Key Findings

What is active citizenship and how is it defined?

This proved a challenging question to answer. The study reveals that:

- The term 'active citizenship' is not yet clearly understood or defined within and across INCA countries.
- Active citizenship is related to shifting notions and definitions of citizenship and citizenship education and its usage is entwined with the progress of citizenship education in INCA countries.
- In many countries the promotion of active citizenship is linked to a more participatory form of citizenship which involves the development of citizenship education as an active process in a range of contexts in and beyond schools.
- Countries promote and support active citizenship for a range of reasons dependent on cultural and historical contexts. This suggests that once the term is more clearly understood it is likely to remain a contested concept.
- There is limited exploration of the conceptual underpinnings of active citizenship and, as a result, a distinct lack of clarity and common understanding of where it has come from and what it means.

The evidence collected in the thematic study suggests that, at present, active citizenship:

- is fundamentally about engagement and participation
- focuses on participation in both civil and civic society
- is increasingly framed in the context of lifelong and life wide learning
- involves the active development of citizenship dimensions not just knowledge and understanding, but skills development and behaviours picked up through experience of participation in a range of contexts
- includes both 'active' and 'passive' elements
- encompasses theoretical approaches to citizenship – *liberal, communitarian and civic republican* – and ranges from more conformist, collective actions and behaviours to those that are more individualistic and challenge driven.

There are a range of motivations for promoting active citizenship across INCA countries including:

- citizenship as a legal 'status' (USA)
- citizenship as a lever for social cohesion or civic engagement (the Netherlands, Republic of Ireland, Hungary and England)
- citizenship reinforcing a sense of national identity or patriotism (Singapore and Japan).

What is emerging from the data, to date, is a recognition that there is no one universally accepted definition of 'active citizenship', but rather a series of competing emergent definitions.

How is citizenship and active citizenship framed in education policy?

It is clear that there is a range of policy approaches to active citizenship development. Most countries have some policy reference, either implicit or explicit, to active citizenship. However, the policy references and the development of policy approaches to active citizenship is extremely diverse. Looking at the definitions and policy approaches across INCA countries indicates active citizenship is approached through citizenship education and in relation to **three, core, interrelated elements**:

- citizenship concepts
- citizenship components
- citizenship contexts.

Whilst the situation is complex, there would appear to be a relationship between definitions and approaches to **citizenship education** and those concerning **active citizenship**. Put simply, this means that in countries with a more **holistic approach** to citizenship education, active citizenship is coming to be viewed as the **process** by which an education for citizenship can be made active.

What implementation measures are there to turn citizenship and active citizenship policies into effective practices?

The practice of developing and delivering active citizenship within and beyond schools is related to a number of issues concerning: learning and teaching; assessment and qualifications; resources; teacher education; inspection, monitoring and evaluation; and citizenship in non-school settings.

- **Learning and teaching** - at this stage understanding of the effectiveness of different approaches to the learning and teaching of citizenship is somewhat scant and requires further investigation. It is clear though, that 'active citizenship' can be understood as much in terms of an **approach to learning** as of young people's **participation** in school and community life.
- **Assessment and qualifications** - most countries consider the issue of assessment from the perspective of the availability of accredited courses and **qualifications**. On this basis, most indicate that they do not yet have established methods of assessing citizenship education and, in particular, active citizenship – citizenship as an active practice.
- **Resources** - citizenship practitioners across most INCA countries have the facility to access a wide and diverse range of materials to support their approaches to the learning and teaching of active citizenship. It appears that countries within North, West and Southern Europe, the Commonwealth, and the USA have the potential to access a broader range of (free-market) resources than those in Asian and Eastern European countries such as Japan, Singapore and Hungary.
- **Teacher education** – three countries (Australia, the Netherlands and USA) report no provision for initial or in-service training of teachers in citizenship education. Across the remaining countries there is more evidence of teacher education. However, the overall picture is one of piecemeal delivery with more of an emphasis on knowledge-based elements rather than more active elements of citizenship programmes. There is little evidence of training of young people in relation to participation and facilitation skills.
- **Inspection, monitoring, research and evaluation** - nine of the INCA countries have specific provision for the inspection, monitoring, research or evaluation, of citizenship education. This reflects the increasing trend towards some form of statutory citizenship education or civics provision within most of the responding countries.
- **Citizenship in non-school settings** - most countries do not have formal programmes for citizenship learning or activity in the post-compulsory or adult sectors. In these countries, however, there are many examples of piecemeal community-based programmes, initiatives and activities organised by voluntary organisations, NGOs and state bodies. This indicates that active citizenship is not yet regarded in the context of **lifelong learning** in all of the INCA countries.

What are the issues and challenges in turning active citizenship policy into effective practices?

There are a number of overarching conceptual challenges concerning active citizenship. It would be wrong to assume that all countries necessarily have a clear understanding of what active citizenship is and of how it can be framed in education policy and then translated into practice. The degree of policy reference to education for citizenship, or active citizenship, across and within countries is extremely varied at present. This reflects the cultural and political

traditions of different countries, as well as their key motivations for developing citizenship programmes. Indeed, in certain countries such as the Netherlands and Japan, though policy related to active citizenship is minimal or non-existent, practice in these countries is much more clearly developed.

In addition to these conceptual challenges, there are also a range of practical operational factors which pose significant challenges for the development of effective practice in active citizenship. These include challenges related to:

- **Learning and teaching**. There is currently a diversity of learning and teaching practice across INCA countries, with methods ranging from rote to experiential learning. It is clear that the discussion about 'active citizenship' focuses as much upon encouraging teachers in schools to adopt **active learning methodologies**, and opportunities for democracy within the classroom (as in the Netherlands, Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, for example) as upon creating opportunities for **active participation** in the school or wider community. However, this goal is some way away from being realised across all the responding countries at present:
- **Teacher education**. The finding that four countries have practically no provision of initial, or in-service, teacher training related to citizenship education is a cause for some concern, as the current lack of clarity about the best methods of learning and teaching for active citizenship suggests a strong need for the development of staff, and indeed young people, in this respect. Analysis of the data suggests that countries need to work on a number of aspects of teacher education in order to reinforce citizenship education as an active practice.
- **Assessment**. There remains a requirement for a clearer, shared understanding of the meaning of assessment, which provides scope to recognise young people's achievements in active, as well as knowledge-based, elements of their programmes. It is unclear from questionnaire responses whether assessment is genuinely currently dominated by examination of knowledge-based elements, or whether there are less formal methods of recognising young people's achievements in active citizenship in place, which have not been identified at this stage. The challenge for many countries is to find ways of assessing those elements of active citizenship which appear difficult to evaluate – skills, dispositions, values and participation for example.
- **Resources**. There is currently a wealth of information and a range of media upon which countries can draw to develop active citizenship programmes. However, much of this information is produced and presented in an *ad hoc* fashion, and has not been designed to link specifically with different countries' curriculum documents or programmes of study. The challenge for policy makers and practitioners is to find ways of accessing this information, using it to best effect, and making appropriate use of new media, in particular the Internet, in developing their programmes.

- **Inspection and evaluation**. Most inspection and evaluation frameworks, with the exception of those in the Netherlands, do not currently consider active citizenship specifically. This is not surprising given the relative newness of active citizenship practice and terminology across INCA countries, and the fact that, in many countries it is regarded as an integral aspect of a broader concept of citizenship education. A general point however, is that a large number of the countries have inspection or evaluation frameworks in place for citizenship education. It is important that the findings of these inspections be used in a formative way, in order to inform the development of active citizenship practice internationally.
- **Post-compulsory linkages**. There is currently a plethora of post-compulsory community-based programmes, initiatives and activities organised by states, voluntary organisations and NGOs. These activities tend to have developed in a piecemeal fashion and there is currently no clear linkage between these and the formal citizenship curriculum within schools, and crucially no apparent sense of active citizenship fitting within a framework for lifelong learning.

How can active citizenship be achieved and what are its outcomes?

The thematic study shows **clear signs** of emerging policy and practice in relation to active citizenship within many of the INCA countries. However, the analysis also suggests that the definition, policy orientation and development of active citizenship is still in its **early stages**. There is much yet to be considered, achieved and agreed, if active citizenship is to become firmly embedded within the contexts of the school curriculum, school democratic structures, other education and training establishments and wider communities, and a clearer recognition of its outcomes developed. A number of the challenges to achieving active citizenship and reaching agreement on it outcomes remain to be tackled. These include:

- **Definition** - Chief amongst the challenges to embedding active citizenship and recognising its outcomes is arriving at an accepted working definition of what it is. Analysis of questionnaire data, and the views of experts from INCA countries, suggest that key to this definition is being clearer about the nature of the relationship between **education for citizenship** and **active citizenship**. In particular, there is a need for more detailed consideration of the central question, namely 'To what extent is active citizenship an exposition of education for citizenship?', i.e how far is active citizenship an active process which facilitates the translation of the policy goals of an education for citizenship into effective practices.
- **Learning and teaching approach** – the challenge of determining the most appropriate learning and teaching approaches for promoting active citizenship. It is clear that 'active citizenship' can be understood as much in terms of an **active approach to learning**, as in terms of young people's **participation** in school and community life, and as such, may extend beyond the citizenship curriculum. Stronger foundations need to be laid in

many countries and a number of key practical implementation measures addressed, including:

- Testing out and discovering the most effective **learning and teaching** strategies for developing appropriate knowledge, skills, dispositions and creativity amongst young people, within the parameters of each country's approach to citizenship education and/or active citizenship.
- Developing opportunities for initial and in-service **teacher training** in citizenship education or active citizenship. It is clear that training needs to be well focused, with a clear expression of the subject's rationale, aims and objectives. This is key, given the current lack of agreement regarding definitions and understanding of active citizenship and, indeed, education for citizenship, internationally. Additionally, teacher education should seek to develop effective skills of facilitation, and learning and teaching approaches that will best develop knowledge, skills, dispositions and creativity, and opportunities for active learning and participation, among young people.
- Exploring the meaning of **assessment** for active citizenship, and supporting practitioners and young people to find ways of recognising achievements, especially in areas that prove difficult to evaluate: skills, dispositions, values and participation for example. It is important that the relative ease of examining knowledge of civics, and the 'factual' elements of citizenship education, does not detract from the important task of recognising young people's achievements in terms of skills development and active participation.
- Considering whether practitioners and young people need guidance and direction in locating and using relevant **resources** for active citizenship (in countries which have access to a wide and diverse range of materials), or whether the free market should prevail. Additionally, where possible, attempts should be made by schools to maximise their use of local resources, including agencies offering services to the local community and young people themselves.
- Creating opportunities for the **inspection** or **evaluation** of active citizenship within inspection frameworks for citizenship education or civics. In addition, it is important that the findings of different countries' citizenship/civics inspections be used in a formative way, in order to inform the development of active citizenship practice internationally.
- Considering whether any continuity and progression is to be found between school-based citizenship programmes, and **post-compulsory** citizenship education.
- Considering the connections between the development of active citizenship within a variety of learning contexts, notably curriculum, extra-curricular, school community and wider communities. This would help to develop a stronger sense of a lifelong learning perspective in citizenship education or active citizenship, and encourage a more 'joined up' or systematic approach to the development of citizenship education policy and practice.

Outcomes – the challenge of identifying and gaining agreement on the outcomes of an education for citizenship and active citizenship. Analysis of country responses, and discussion among delegates at the Oxford international seminar, underlines that, at present, the outcomes of an education for active citizenship that involves learning through an active process in a variety of contexts ('active citizenship') are more aspirational and visionary than grounded in the reality of practice. This is to be expected given that these are early days in the development and acceptance of the term 'active citizenship'. The majority of countries are still feeling their way in terms of policy orientation and the development of practice and have given limited consideration to the outcomes of such an education.

Final comment

Perhaps, above all, this second thematic study has underlined the **timely nature** of the focus on 'active citizenship', or citizenship as an active practice. This is a coming development in many countries and is also being picked up and explored by supra-national organisations such as the European Commission, Council of Europe and International Association for Educational Achievement (IEA). However, the study has shown that the concept and practice of active citizenship is often neither as active a practice in reality nor as easily defined in relation to citizenship as might be envisaged.

What is clear is that the development and promotion of active citizenship is still in its **infancy**. There is considerably more **development work** and **conceptual underpinning** that needs to take place in order that **stronger foundations** can be laid for embedding it in policy and practice and beginning to identify and measure its outcomes. This thematic study represents one such contribution to this underpinning. It is hoped that the outcomes will prove useful not only to those countries that participated but to all those with an interest in this area.

1. Introduction

The INCA[2] thematic study on active citizenship, of which this report is the final outcome, was commissioned by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority in England (QCA) in May 2005. QCA is interested in revisiting the topic of citizenship education, and specifically 'active citizenship', following considerable developments in policy and practice in this area both in England and in the UK, Europe and the wider world, since the first INCA thematic study on citizenship education was undertaken by NFER some eight years ago (Kerr, 1999).

In England, in particular, the introduction of citizenship as a statutory new National Curriculum subject for all students aged 11 to 16 in 2002 (QCA, 1999), the promotion of a pilot programme of citizenship development projects in 16 to 19 education and training (Craig, *et al*, 2004) and an emphasis on promoting active citizenship in local communities (Woodward, 2004) has succeeded in broadening the nature and scope of the discussion about the most effective policies and practices concerning citizenship education. Recent policy developments in England are replete with references to promoting **active citizenship** – citizenship as an active process. Indeed in its latest report on the progress of citizenship in schools and colleges in England, OFSTED talks about citizenship promoting "critical democracy" in which young people are educated to be '*critical and active citizens*' (OFSTED, 2006). However, there are still many unanswered questions as to the meaning and implications of such policy directives for evolving practice.[3] As OFSTED note '*it is the **active elements** that make citizenship new and challenging*' (OFSTED, 2006 p. 8). Given this context, revisiting citizenship education, with a particular focus on 'active citizenship' is very timely for QCA.

A consideration of the meaning, purpose and practice of active citizenship is also timely for other countries involved in the INCA network and dovetails with on-going developments in citizenship and human rights education across the world. For example, The Council of Europe designated 2005 the *European Year of Citizenship through Education* (Council of Europe, 2004), with a

[2] International review of curriculum and assessment frameworks internet archive.

[3] For further details about the development of active citizenship policy and practice in England see the Background Paper to the thematic study. It provides a case-study example of active citizenship development in England (Nelson and Kerr, 2005).

strong emphasis on promoting and strengthening education for democratic citizenship (EDC). Additionally, the European Commission has launched a new programme of activities entitled *Citizens for Europe* to run from 2007 to 2013 to promote active European citizenship. The Commission has also set up an expert working group to investigate how indicators for active citizenship can be produced across Europe that feed into the follow up to the Lisbon process from 2010[4]. Meanwhile, at international level, the United Nations (UN) Decade on Human Rights is on going and being strengthened by a new programme on human rights education. There are also efforts to promote sustainable development initiatives as part of a push on the global dimension of citizenship. Finally, the IEA has recently announced plans for a third study on Civics and Citizenship Education (ICCS) to run from 2006 to 2010[5]. The study will investigate, among other things, how well young people are prepared to undertake their roles and responsibilities as active citizens both in school and in the wider communities to which they belong. These developments underline just how much QCA in England, and those involved in the INCA network from other countries, can learn from this thematic study.

The current thematic study on active citizenship is made up of four main processes and outcomes. It comprises:

1. **A background paper**. Published in 2005, this paper summarises relevant literature in relation to active citizenship, and provides a case-study example of active citizenship policy and practice within England in the UK. It was disseminated to the INCA network in September 2005, along with a questionnaire, designed by the EURYDICE Unit at NFER and QCA, asking INCA representatives to provide details on active citizenship policy and practice within their countries (Nelson and Kerr, 2005).
2. **An issues paper**. Produced early in 2006, this paper summarises questionnaire responses received from INCA network country representatives. There are 20 countries in the INCA network, 11 of whom, at the time of writing, had responded to the questionnaire. It was disseminated to the INCA network in February 2006 (Nelson and Kerr, 2006).
3. **An international seminar**. This took place in Oxford, England in March 2006, hosted by QCA and NFER. It provided an opportunity for country representatives from 13 INCA countries to meet, share views and experiences of active citizenship, and to consider developments that needed to take place in order for active citizenship policy and practice to develop internationally. The outcomes of this seminar are interwoven into this final report (see Annexes A and B for details of the Oxford seminar programme, and delegate list respectively).

4 For more details visit: http://www.farmweb.jrc.cec.eu.int/CRELL/active_citizenship.htm
5 For more information about ICCS visit: http://www.iea.nl/icces.htm

4. **A final report** (the current document). This report draws on data collected through the questionnaire survey of INCA countries in 2005 and 2006, and on discussions and key findings arising from the international seminar in March 2006. Fourteen countries responded to the questionnaire - Australia, Canada, England, Hungary, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, Scotland, Singapore, Spain, the USA and Wales, and there was additional representation from one country, Italy, at the Oxford seminar. The report seeks to provide answers, as far as possible, to the five key questions around which the study is based. These are outlined below.

The first INCA thematic study on citizenship education (Kerr, 1999) helped to enrich understanding about education for citizenship at a time when participating countries, including England, were either just about to begin, or had just begun to undertake, major reforms in this area. These reforms were part of a broader revision of education and national curricula. Since then developments in citizenship education have moved on apace, and the evidence base that can be drawn upon to assess the development of citizenship education across INCA countries, is a great deal stronger than in the 1990s (http://www.iea.nl/icces.html; Birzea, *et al*, 2004; Ireland, *et al*, 2006, Maes, 2006).

One of the major developments since the late 1990s has been a growing interest in the concept of 'active citizenship' and an emphasis on its promotion through policy and practice in a variety of contexts. However, although 'active citizenship' is a frequently mentioned goal, or desired outcome, of citizenship at national, regional and international levels, understanding of what it is, and experience of how it can be developed effectively, is still evolving within and across these contexts. There are a number of issues that remain to be explored. In particular, though, 'active citizenship' forms part of a new language of citizenship in the 21st century:

- What are the roots of this new language?
- What are its conceptual underpinnings and the drivers that spur on its promotion?
- What implications does the promotion of active citizenship have for policy and practice within and across countries?

This report seeks to provide answers to some of these issues by addressing **five key questions**. These questions are those which the QCA, in dialogue with NFER researchers, deemed to be of most interest in exploring the theme of active citizenship, and learning from developments in INCA countries. The questions are as follows:

- What is active citizenship and how is it defined?
- How is citizenship and active citizenship framed in education policy?
- What implementation measures are there to turn citizenship and active citizenship policies into effective practices?
- What are the issues and challenges in turning active citizenship policy into effective practices?
- How can active citizenship be achieved and what are its outcomes?

The chapters that follow consider each of these questions in turn, and seek to provide some insights into active citizenship definitions, policies, practices and outcomes. The short final chapter attempts to sum up what has been learnt from this thematic study.

The report is evidence based, in that the models proposed, and conclusions reached, have been drawn from data provided by responding INCA countries. Some of this data was provided through questionnaire returns, whilst other data has been derived from discussions at the International Seminar, held in Oxford, England, in March 2006. A range of relevant literature relating to active citizenship has also been drawn upon. Where the information under discussion has been drawn from one source specifically, this is made clear in the report. However, where it was presented through both questionnaire responses, and seminar discussion, as was often the case, references to 'data' should be taken to mean information provided through more than one source.

2. What is active citizenship and how is it defined?

This fundamental question lies at the heart of this thematic study. It is hoped that the report will help to identify a conceptual framework underpinning the development of active citizenship and that such a framework will, in turn, lead to greater clarity in terms of the aims and purposes assigned to active citizenship. Chapter 3 that follows provides fuller details of countries' definitions and approaches to 'active citizenship' within policy documentation. The purpose of this chapter is to take a step back from the detail and, instead, begin to explore the contexts for, and drivers of, active citizenship and to identify the activities which comprise active citizenship and which influence how it is defined within and across INCA countries.

To this end, and drawing on the outcomes of the wider literature reviewed in the Background Paper (Nelson and Kerr, 2005), the questionnaire responses from INCA countries (Annexe C shows the questionnaire to which international experts responded) and delegates' inputs into the international seminar in March 2006 (see Annexe A for the seminar programme and specific questions), the chapter seeks to accomplish three specific tasks. These are to:

- set the context and outline the key drivers that are bringing an increasing emphasis on active citizenship in the development of policy and practice in countries
- identify and categorise some of the principal actions and behaviours that comprise active citizenship
- begin to explore the interplay of drivers and factors that influence the ways in which active citizenship is defined within and across INCA countries.

This chapter, therefore, provides valuable background to a deeper consideration of the exploration of policy documentation concerning active citizenship in Chapter 3.

Before attempting to outline the key drivers for active citizenship it is worth making a few general observations about the challenges posed in this thematic study of participating countries and respondents understanding and defining the term 'active citizenship'. For example, initial questionnaire responses

received from the 14 participating countries and discussions at the Oxford Seminar indicated that the term 'active citizenship' is currently not clearly defined or understood. A number of countries did not explicitly recognise the term, whilst others referred to it, but with very different interpretations and meanings, as well as differing degrees of emphasis (as outlined in Chapter 3, sections 3.1 to 3.3). Many of the countries sent through details of the policy and practices of citizenship education in response to questions about active citizenship.

This is a crucial finding. The responses suggest that the notion of active citizenship is conceived currently, in most countries, as entwined with the progress of citizenship education. The documentation received reveals the growing promotion of active citizenship linked to an emphasis in many countries on a more participatory form of citizenship that involves the development of citizenship education as an active process. It also highlights the spread of this active process to a range of contexts radiating out from schools and encompassing homes, local neighbourhoods and wider communities at national, regional and international level.

The thematic study has also shown that, at present, there is limited exploration of the conceptual underpinnings of active citizenship and, as a result, a distinct lack of clarity and common understanding of where it has come from and what it means. Such exploration is beginning to emerge through the work of supra-national bodies such as the European Commission, (Dr Weend *et al.*, 2005; Eurydice, 2006) in partnership with the Council of Europe and the IEA, as well as that of researchers (Kennedy, 2006; Jochum *et al.*, 2005). This thematic study is a contribution to such exploration. However, it is clear from this study that it will take some time before there is understanding and common agreement of the definition and meaning of active citizenship. Though many participating countries promote, and respondents support, active citizenship they appear to do so for a range of reasons. This finding came through very clearly in the Oxford Seminar. It suggests that active citizenship, once it is more clearly understood, is likely to be as contested a concept as that of citizenship. It is also likely to encompass a multitude of meanings and emphases dependent on cultural and historical contexts.

2.1 Context and drivers of active citizenship

The first thematic study in citizenship undertaken in the late 1990s (Kerr, 1999) underlined the important role of context and culture in understanding

aims and approaches to citizenship education. This finding still holds true in this second thematic study in relation to active citizenship. This is because approaches to and definitions of active citizenship are related to shifting notions and definitions of citizenship and citizenship education across countries. Researchers and commentators have expanded at length on the tensions facing the traditional concept of citizenship as defined in relation to the nation state (Held, 1989; Kymlicka, 2001, Osler and Starkey, 2003). These tensions arise as the notion of citizenship is revisited and revised in response to the rapid pace of change in modern society.

A fundamental part of this review is centred on an acceptance of the changing nature of the relationship between citizens and the state. The literature often draws a distinction between three particular theoretical approaches to citizenship – *liberal, communitarian* and *civic republican* (see Jochum *et al.*, 2005). While distinct in their conceptions of and starting-points for citizenship, the changing nature of the relationship between citizens and the state is beginning to establish clearer links between these three traditions. This is because citizenship in the 21st century is increasingly becoming defined not just in relation to **citizenship as a status** (historically status in relation to the nation-state) but also crucially in relation to **citizenship as an active practice**. The relentless pace of change is beginning to pose serious questions about the nature of participation in modern society and, in particular, about how citizens participate in civic and civil society. Increasing interest and action in encouraging people to view citizenship as both a status and an active practice explains the growing interest in the notion of 'active citizenship'.

So what has caused this dual emphasis to take place? There are a number of reasons but perhaps the main two are: first the response of countries to the impact of rapid global change on society and second, interrelated changes in the role and practice of education. Each of these reasons is explored in turn. The first citizenship thematic study observed that citizenship education developments were closely linked to 'a concern in many countries about how to respond to a period of unprecedented global change' (Kerr, 1999, p.11) and provided a list of the key challenges at the time namely:

- rapid movement of people within and across national boundaries
- growing recognition of the rights of indigenous peoples and minorities
- collapse of political structures and the birth of new ones
- changing role of women in society
- impact of the global economy and changing patterns of work

- effect of a revolution in information and communication technologies (ICT)
- increasing global population
- creation of new forms of community (Kerr, 1999, p.12).

Interestingly, this list of key challenges remains highly relevant at the start of the new century and can be supplemented by the growing challenges now posed by environmental/climate change, random acts of terrorism across the world and concerns about the continued sharp downturn in participation in civic society, particularly among younger generations. Though many of the challenges remain the same as in the late 1990s they have been exacerbated by the relentless pace of change facing modern societies.

While accepting that there are many positives for individuals and societies in these changes there is also a growing concern about the negative aspects. These negative aspects are seen as posing a threat to societies. They include, among others, challenges to identity and belonging which are increasing xenophobia, nationalism, racism and discrimination; economic change, which is creating a growing gap between the rich and the poor and leading to social disintegration and the breakdown of the social fabric of society, and rampant individualism and consumerism which is fuelling a lack of engagement and collective participation in civic and civil society.

The response of countries to the negative aspects of these challenges has been an increased focus on people as resources in society and a recognition that such resources can be used to actively counter these negative aspects. There has been a particular emphasis on better preparing people for their roles and responsibilities in modern society, for example, as citizens, consumers, workers and parents in a range of contexts (Maes, 2005; Birzea *et al.,* 2004). This has seen increased interest in the role of education for citizenship in preparing people, particularly children and young people, for their current and future roles as citizens or community resources in society. Many of the participating countries' programmes for civic and citizenship education have a particular focus on actively counterbalancing the negative aspects of global change. This can be achieved variously through emphases on reinforcing and broadening identity and belonging, strengthening social cohesion and civic responsibility and encouraging and supporting the active participation of people in the communities to which they belong. These emphases often focus on the promotion of citizenship as an active practice in a range of contexts.

The emphasis on active citizenship as a counterbalance against the negative aspects of global change is reinforced by the key role given to education in modern societies in this respect. Educational policy is increasingly seen as a vital social change agent, actively preparing children and young people not only to cope with the pace of change in modern society but also to develop the necessary knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes and behaviours that will enable them to make the most of the opportunities and challenges they will face in their lifetime. Education is now viewed as much more holistic and flexible than in the past, involving a broader range of learning and teaching approaches, taking place in a wider range of contexts in and beyond schools and leading to increasing autonomy for the learner as s/he progresses through school. The current work of the European Commission in partnership with the Council of Europe on developing indicators for active citizenship defines the scope of citizenship as both 'lifelong and lifewide'. In many INCA countries, such as Italy, Spain and the UK (England) there has been growing autonomy for educational institutions to decide their own policies and practices. This has taken place alongside the movement of pedagogy away from a specific focus on curriculum subjects to an overarching focus on more generic contexts for, and more active and participatory modes of, learning and teaching.

Citizenship education developments in participating countries have both taken advantage of and been part of the driving force behind such changes. The example of educational reform in New Zealand is a case in point. At the Oxford Seminar in March 2006, the New Zealand delegate outlined how, in New Zealand the curriculum and teaching and learning approaches are framed within an overall vision of developing young people who are 'confident'. 'lifelong learners' and 'actively involved' including in 'participating effectively in a range of life contexts'. The revised national curriculum was three years in development through a participatory process involving 15,000 people including students. The new national curriculum emphasises a focus on developing key competencies in a range of learning contexts in and beyond schools and promoting skills development in relation to *thinking*, *relating to others* and *managing self, making meaning, participating and contributing*. This shift in emphasis has been accompanied by a major review of the place and purpose of education for citizenship within the school curriculum marked by an increasing emphasis on the development of citizenship as an active process for all young people both through the curriculum, in the culture of the school and in the wider community beyond. Other presentations at the Oxford Seminar underlined that similar developments have taken, or are taking, place in many participating countries for example, Northern Ireland, the

Netherlands, the Republic of Ireland and Hungary as they continue to review and develop citizenship education policies and practices as part of wider curriculum reforms. (See Annexe A).

2.2 Active citizenship actions and behaviours

Having established a clearer understanding of the context and drivers for active citizenship it is important to try to understand the actions and intended behaviours that lie behind approaches to citizenship education and active citizenship. These actions and intended behaviours are crucial in helping to construct a clearer picture of the conceptual underpinnings of active citizenship. They provide a way into identifying the common elements in definitions and approaches to citizenship education within and across INCA countries and, from there, producing a robust overarching conceptual framework for active citizenship.

However, the study confirms that this is not an easy task to accomplish for a number of reasons. Firstly, such work is still largely exploratory. As a consequence, there is a need for much greater clarity in the terminology associated with citizenship education and active citizenship. As both are contested concepts it is difficult to get common agreement on definitions and approaches. Secondly, policies and practices in active citizenship are still evolving and, therefore, it is not easy to capture simply the essence of what they are about. Thirdly, there is the sheer scale of actions and behaviours associated with active citizenship. It is clear from the responses of countries that active citizenship encompasses a broad range of actions and intended behaviours which are not always easy to disentangle and categorise. Finally, and not surprisingly, there is a lack of clarity about the outcomes of active citizenship. Country responses show that active citizenship covers a wide range of contexts from schools to home life, peers and wider communities. However, it is not yet clear what the linkages are between the actions and intended behaviours of active citizenship in these various contexts and what the overall outcomes for individual citizens and society will be. Indeed, the 'lifelong learning' nature of active citizenship processes suggest that it may be some years before outcomes will become evident. Attempting to clarify probable outcomes too early may only serve to limit the scope and depth of those outcomes.

So what does the evidence collected in the thematic study and, in particular through the wider review of policy developments in the Background Paper, tell us about the actions and intended behaviours that comprise active citizenship? In spite of the challenges raised above, it is possible to draw some broad conclusions. Active citizenship, at present:

- is fundamentally about engagement and participation in society
- focuses on participation in both civil and civic society[6]
- is increasingly framed in the context of lifelong and life wide learning
- involves the active development of citizenship dimensions not just knowledge and understanding, but skills development and behaviours picked up through experience of participation in a range of contexts
- includes both 'active' and 'passive' elements
- encompasses theoretical approaches to citizenship – *liberal, communitarian and civic republican* – and ranges from more conformist, collective actions and behaviours to those that are more individualistic and challenge driven.

Kennedy (2006) in a short exploratory paper on the conceptual underpinnings of citizenship draws a helpful distinction between 'active' and 'passive' components of citizenship. He suggests that there are two sides to the active citizenship coin. The active components are more concerned with 'doing' and the passive with 'being'. 'Doing' is concerned more with the context of citizenship as an active practice and 'being' more with citizenship as a status. This distinction is useful in the context of this thematic study because these components are present in the actions and intended behaviours assigned to active citizenship across INCA countries. Active citizenship is a mixture of active and passive components dependent on the cultural and historical context of countries and their approach to citizenship education. This suggests diverse and divergent understandings of what is meant by active citizenship.

According to Kennedy, the more active components in active citizenship include:

[6] Jochum *et al.*, (2005) building upon existing studies define **civil participation** as – participation in community activities and in less formal types of association. **civic participation** as – participation in state affairs including participation in political processes and in governance.

1.	**Conventional citizenship**	
Engage and participate in conventional political activities		
a.	Voting	This is the traditional, conformist view usually held by political scientists. It focuses on participation in civic as opposed to civil society. It is about horizontal (taking part) and vertical (bringing about change) participation
b.	Joining a political party	
c.	Being a candidate for political office	
2.	**Social movement citizenship**	
Engage and participate in voluntary community activities		
a.	Working with community care agencies	This is often called the 'civic virtues' approach to citizenship. It focuses on participation in civil society. It is largely about horizontal participation. It is conformist and, in some instances, coercive.
b.	Collecting money for a good cause	
3.	**Social change citizenship**	
Engage and participate in activities that seek to change political and social directions		
a.	***Legal***	This is often called 'the conflict' model of citizenship. It focuses on participation in both civic and civil society. It is about vertical participation (bringing about change) through attempts to influence the decision-making process.
	i. writing letters to a newspaper	
	ii. collecting signatures on a petition	
b.	***Illegal***	
	i. Blocking traffic	
	ii. Writing graffiti on walls	
	iii Occupying a building	
4.	**Economic/enterprise citizenship**	
Engage and participate in self regulating activities		
a.	Becoming financially self supporting	This is often referred to as the economic model of citizenship. It is individualistic rather than collective. It is shaped by conformity to traits associated with being a good and responsible citizen.
b.	Becoming a self-directed learner	
c.	Becoming a creative problem solver	
d.	Adopting entrepreneurial values	

(Table adapted from Kennedy (2006))

The more passive elements of citizenship, according to Kennedy, include:

1.	**National Identity**	
a.	Knows and values the nation's history	All nation states attempt to promote national identity of this kind. There is an emphasis on the transmission of knowledge through civic education in schools
b.	Supports the nation's symbols (e.g. flag, anthem)	
2.	**Patriotism**	
a.	Willing to serve in the military	Patriotism is related to national identity, but is a more extreme form that seeks to protect the nation state from external threats.
b.	Supports the claims of the state against other nation-states	
3.	**Loyalty**	
a.	Citizens are obedient	These attributes are often internalized values that nation states seek to promote through education. There are daily rituals in society that reinforce the importance of collective loyalty and obedience.
b.	Citizens work hard	

(Table adapted from Kennedy (2006))

This distinction raises interesting questions about the interaction of active and passive components in current definitions of and approaches to citizenship education and active citizenship. The evidence from the thematic study suggests that the interplay is not clear cut and that there are considerable tensions as to how these components are worked out through policy and practice, within a range of different country contexts. Evidence from the Oxford Seminar also indicates that there are positive elements of 'passive' citizenship, such as an emphasis, in Japan for example, on global identity, social responsibility and pacifism. The extent to which one needs to be 'doing' something, in contrast to developing a personal or social values system, in order to be an active citizen, is still under debate.

2.3 Some country approaches to active citizenship

So how does the influence of the context and drivers, outlined earlier in this chapter, play out in practice in the emphasis given to particular components of active citizenship. A few examples of the motivation behind the development of active citizenship policy and practice across countries, gleaned from the

data, sheds more light on this. What is clear, for example, is that different countries have very different reasons for developing citizenship education programmes. These reasons, in turn, impact on the degree of emphasis they place upon 'active' and 'passive' components of citizenship, as explored below.

2.3.1 Citizenship as a legal 'status'

A key determinant to the definition and practice of citizenship education in the United States of America (**USA**) would appear to be a concentration on citizenship as a 'legal status' and a focus on learning about national history and political institutions. The author of the USA questionnaire response comments that most states in the USA currently fit within a 'liberal/individualistic' tradition (see Nelson and Kerr, 2005, p.5), where citizenship is regarded as a 'status' rather than a practice. As a consequence, there is a strong focus on civics education. Of the INCA countries that responded to the survey, the USA is fairly unique in this position.

The author of the USA response comments, however, that there is currently movement underway across the USA towards a more communitarian/civil republican framework for citizenship education, with a stronger focus on skills development and practice-based learning. Indeed, a document developed by scholars and practitioners (The Civic Mission of School, 2003) urged policymakers to adopt a definition of 'competent and responsible citizens' who are both informed and knowledgeable, but who also have the necessary **skills** and **virtues** for active participation in their communities and in public life. This indicates that thinking and conceptualisation is underway, which could enable active citizenship to develop in the USA. Whether this can be translated into educational policy reality, however, remains to be seen.

2.3.2 Citizenship as a lever for social cohesion or civic engagement

A very different 'driver' for the development of citizenship education is apparent in the **Netherlands**, the **Republic of Ireland** and in **Hungary** leading to a greater focus on more 'active' citizenship components. Discussions during the Oxford Seminar and information gleaned from questionnaire responses showed that in the Netherlands, citizenship education, as defined through government produced 'course documents',[7] is based on the

[7] Government in the Netherlands produces a series of policy papers for schools (known as 'course documents'), which contain a mix of legally laid-down tasks, and suggestions for schools'

premise that a growing culture of individualism is resulting in a dwindling sense of social cohesion and solidarity, which needs to be redressed. This is also true in the Republic of Ireland, where the declining influence of the Roman Catholic Church and an increasing isolation of young people from society and politics, is leading to concerns about a breakdown in the social fabric of the country. This suggests an underlying communitarian rationale for the development of active citizenship. Indeed, in the Netherlands, a recent legislative proposal, *Stimulation of Active Citizenship and Social Integration*, was agreed by parliament in 2005 as part of this drive towards increasing social integration. Ministers in the Netherlands, in consequence, define active citizenship largely in participative terms - a willingness and ability to participate in a community, and an active contribution to that community. Similarly, in post-Communist Hungary, citizenship education aims to strengthen social cohesion, by placing great emphasis on values, social competencies and thinking, as well as upon knowledge of political processes and structures.

The motivation for active citizenship in **England** is not dissimilar, in that it arises from concerns about a 'democratic deficit' among young people – disenchantment with the political process, and a reduced rate of voting activity and community engagement. The hope is that the provision of citizenship education, and active citizenship specifically, will go some way towards redressing these concerns and re-engaging young people. It was noted by the USA delegate at the Oxford seminar, however, that the appearance of a 'democratic deficit' does not always act as a positive lever. In contrast, he argued, it can be in the interest of political administrations who traditionally gain their support from older members of the community, to ignore an apparent disenchantment of young people with politics and the political process.

2.3.3 Citizenship reinforcing a sense of national identity or patriotism

Finally, it is important to be mindful that in Asian countries, in particular, definitions of what it means to be an active citizen have different 'drivers' and lead to an emphasis on more 'passive' components of citizenship. In **Singapore and Japan**, for example, the development of active citizenship is underpinned by a desire to nurture a sense of belonging to nation, and a moral obligation actively to contribute to society and the building of the nation's

autonomous policy developments. Citizenship education is frequently dealt with within these documents.

future. This indicates that active participation, at least in part, is about developing a sense of patriotism in young people, a moral obligation, and an emphasis on social cohesion. The delegate representing Japan at the Oxford Seminar illustrated this motivation well. A case study of the Japanese situation is provided in Section 4.1., Chapter 4.

The responses received from countries, combined with the presentations and discussions at the Oxford Seminar and the examples above highlight the:

- importance of the influence of countries' underlying political, cultural and social contexts on how citizenship education is defined
- extent of the link between definitions of citizenship education and those of active citizenship
- varying degrees to which active citizenship is present in educational policy and practice
- different components that comprise citizenship education and definitions of active citizenship.

The thematic study outcomes underline the fact that the context for the development of active citizenship is crucial to understanding its focus. What is emerging from the data, to date, is a recognition that there is no one universally accepted definition of 'active citizenship', at present, but rather a series of competing emergent definitions. These competing definitions have their roots in political, cultural and social contexts and are related to definitions of, and policy interests concerning, citizenship education. How these competing definitions are articulated through policy documentation is explored in the next chapter.

3. How is citizenship and active citizenship framed in education policy?

Across the majority of the 14 INCA countries responding to the survey there was some reference, explicit or implicit, to citizenship and to the concept of active citizenship (or a similar term), in educational policy documentation. This is an interesting finding confirming the rise of education for citizenship as a priority in educational policy making across countries. The nature of definitions of citizenship education and the degree of emphasis on active citizenship were extremely diverse however. This is not surprising given the differences in systems of government within and across countries. Whilst some (the Netherlands, the Republic of Ireland and Spain, for example) are governed by national policy contexts, in others such as Australia, Canada and the USA, educational governance is distributed across many states, territories or provinces, complicating a clear 'national' delineation of active citizenship. It is clear, however, that there is a range of policy approaches to active citizenship development. How this range is best conceptualised is considered in the following discussion.

The first INCA thematic study of citizenship education (Kerr, 1999), identified a continuum of definitions and approaches to citizenship, from 'minimal', to 'maximal'. The 1999 study defined minimal definitions as incorporating a relatively narrow approach to citizenship, usually through the teaching of 'civics' in a content-led, knowledge-based fashion, centred upon the imparting of information about a country's history and the structure and processes of its system of government. In contrast, maximal definitions were characterised by a broader interpretation of citizenship, and a more inclusive approach to learning. Such approaches incorporated content and knowledge components, but also actively encouraged skills of investigation and interpretation of the many different ways in which these components are determined and carried out. The primary aim was not only to inform, but also to use that information to help students to understand and to enhance their capacity to participate. It lent itself to a broad mixture of learning and teaching approaches, from the didactic to the interactive, in a range of contexts, both inside and outside the classroom.

This continuum still proves a useful reference point for broadly determining different countries' approaches to citizenship education. However, it does not

work as well in relation to more recent policy developments in active citizenship across all the responding INCA countries. Whilst some countries' approaches can be described as clearly being closer to either the 'minimal' (the USA for example) or the 'maximal' (England, Scotland or the Republic of Ireland for example) ends of the continuum, other countries' approaches cannot be easily categorised in this way. Japan is a case in point because, where active citizenship occurs, it is viewed as an organic feature of school and community life, rather than as an explicit, documented, or easily assessed element of the school curriculum.

That said, there are clearly strong links between citizenship education and active citizenship developments, with countries' varying interpretations and understandings of one often influencing their definition and approach to the other. These influences are explored in the next sections, which consider the ways in which citizenship education (or Education for Citizenship) is framed in educational policy across different countries. Closer examination of the data received from the 14 responding INCA countries, and delegates' presentations and discussions at the international seminar in March 2006, indicates that many of the policy documents identify and define citizenship education in terms of three core, interrelated elements:

- Citizenship concepts.
- Citizenship components.
- Citizenship contexts.

These are discussed in turn below.

3.1 Citizenship Concepts and Components

Respondents across ten countries (England, Canada, Hungary, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, Scotland and Spain) provided details of a wide range of **concepts** which underpinned citizenship education (or its equivalent) in their countries. They also identified several citizenship **components.** The remaining countries provided no information in this regard, so it is not clear to what extent the identified concepts and components are universal across countries.

In identifying the elements of an education for citizenship, many countries started from the perspective of outlining a number of core underlying

concepts. These can be further broken down into the following three categories (Bron, 2005):

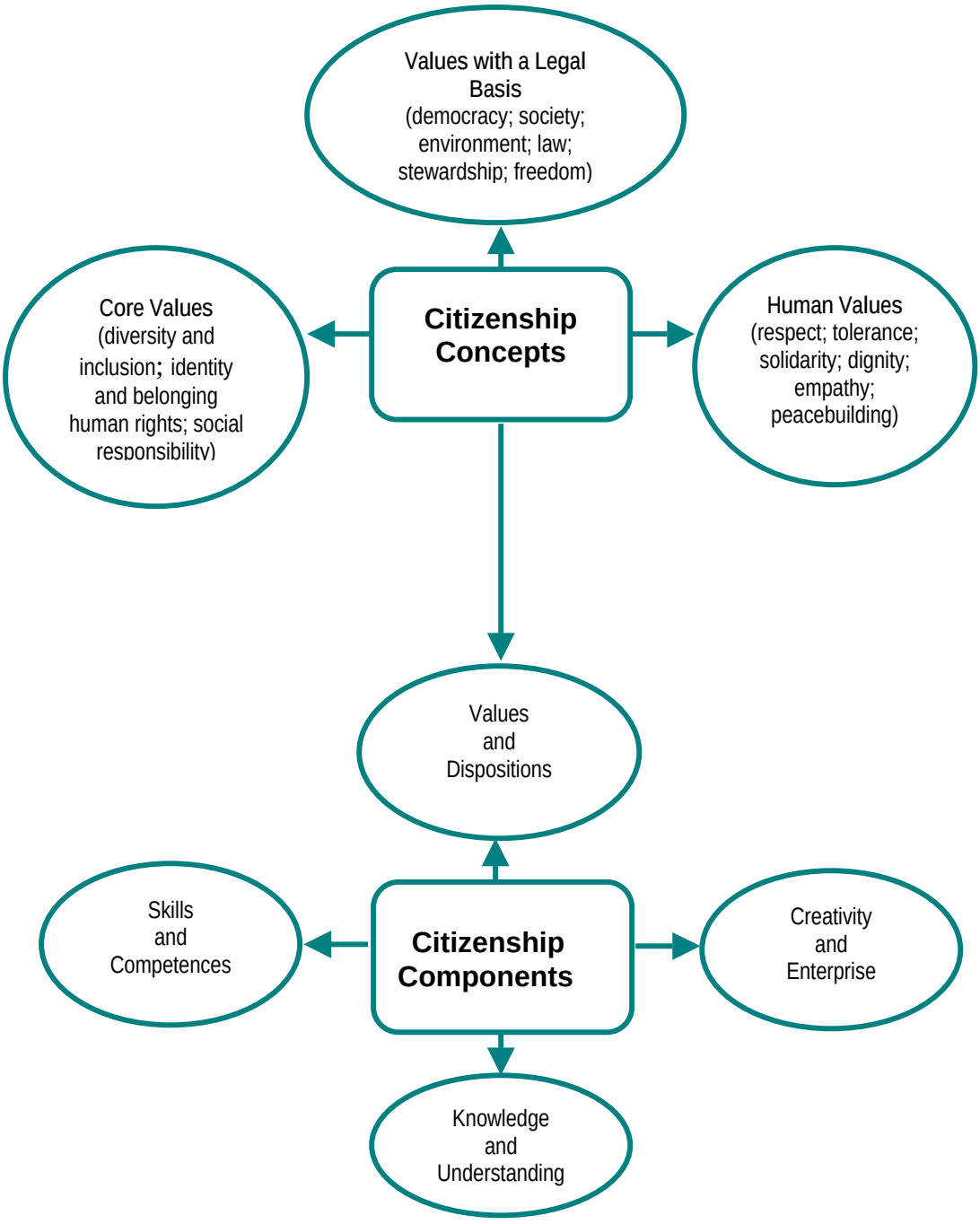
- **Core values** (such as human rights and social responsibility).
- **Values with a legal basis** (including democracy, law and freedom).
- **Human values** (such as tolerance and empathy).

In helping young people to develop an awareness and understanding of these key concepts, many countries place an emphasis on young people developing positive:

- **Values and dispositions** (directly linked to the core concepts and values identified above).
- **Skills and competencies** (for example, skills of enquiry, communication, participation and responsible action).
- **Knowledge and understanding** (of the role of law, parliamentary democracy and government, economy and society and the environment, for example)
- **Creativity and enterprise** (helping young people and teachers to be ambitious and outward looking in their goals for learning and life).

These can be described as citizenship **components**, and represent the way by which citizenship concepts are developed and expressed by young people. Figure 1 below shows the interrelationship between citizenship **concepts** and **components**.

Figure 1 – Education for Citizenship – Concepts and Components



When comparing the concepts and components identified by countries in this thematic study in 2006 with those identified in the first INCA thematic study on citizenship education in the late 1990s (Kerr, 1999), two things are striking. The first is the similarity between the concepts identified in 2006 and 1999, suggesting little apparent change over time. However, what is not clear from Figure 1 is whether there has been change in the emphasis placed upon particular concepts within and across INCA countries. The second interesting finding is the identification of **creativity and enterprise** as a distinctive

additional component of education for citizenship in 2006. In the late 1990s this component was rarely defined, and in some countries, such as England, it continues not to be seen as a central component of citizenship education. However, other countries have moved towards recognising creativity and enterprise as a core component of an education for citizenship.

Reasons for this appear to lie with differences of definition and policy priority. So, for example, in England, whilst all young people at key stage 4 (ages 14-16) have an entitlement to an equivalent of five days enterprise activity, this is regarded as an element of the curriculum separate to citizenship education, and is much more closely aligned to the work-related learning curriculum. (teachernet.gov.uk) It is defined very much in terms of entrepreneurial capability, financial capability and economic and business understanding. In other countries (such as Scotland and Hungary, for example), 'creativity and enterprise' is understood and defined much more broadly, as a process by which teachers and young people can make their learning and teaching relevant, and set ambitious goals for learning and life. It is clear that notions of 'enterprise' and 'entrepreneurship' are currently ambiguous and difficult to define (Spielhofer, *et al*, 2006), and have different meanings in different country contexts. It is also recognisable, however, that the development of creativity and enterprise in relation to citizenship education across certain countries has the scope to encourage a learning and teaching process which is both **active** and dynamic.

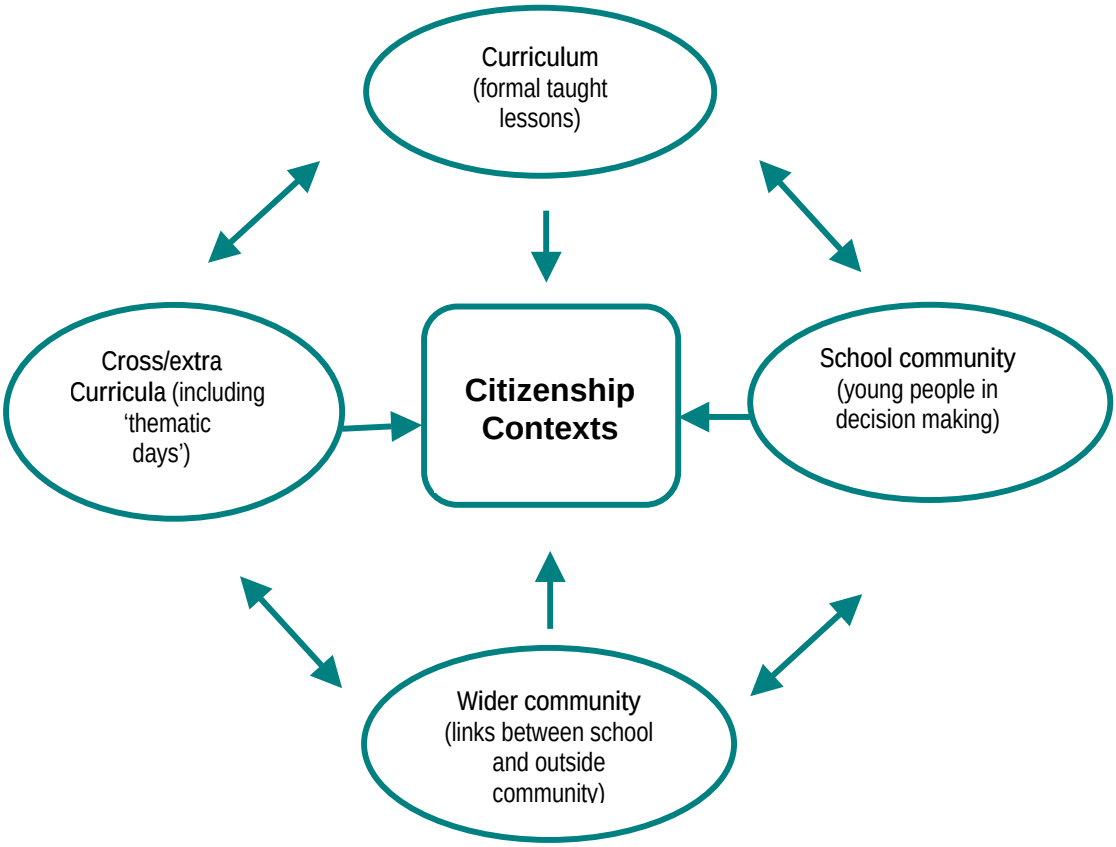
The model presented in Figure 1 can be augmented by considering the **contexts** within which the **concepts** and **components** of an education for citizenship can be developed.

3.2 Citizenship Contexts

Analysis of the data shows that, in most countries, the policy intention is that citizenship education should be developed across four main contexts within and beyond schools. Discussion at the March seminar indicated that most of the countries identify all four of the contexts outlined in Figure 2 below, although in countries such as England and the Netherlands, it is more normal for the 'curriculum' and 'cross/extra curricula' categories to be conflated, resulting in only three identified contexts (curriculum, school community and wider community). The principle is broadly the same as that proposed in Figure 2 however. The Scottish delegate presented a model of citizenship

provision aspired to in Scotland, which was very closely aligned to that presented below.

Figure 2 – Education for Citizenship – Contexts



Whilst most countries indicate that citizenship education should be taking place across all of the contexts identified above, they do so with differing degrees of emphasis. So, for example, for certain of the countries (England, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, Scotland and Wales, for example), there is an overarching plan for a programme of citizenship education (which, in Wales, is within a wider framework for personal, social and health education (PSHE)). In its ideal form, this plan should encompass all of the contexts outlined above. The example of the **Netherlands**, presented at the Oxford Seminar, is provided below:

Citizenship education working across different contexts

In **the Netherlands**, there is a focus upon citizenship as an **active practice** across three contexts:

- **The classroom**. Students have some influence on the choice of topics studied and discussed, and are given opportunities to develop skills of discussion, debate, teamwork, organisation and conflict resolution through class meetings.
- **The school**. Schools generally have student councils and systems for peer mediation, and students are encouraged to take care of school buildings, to organise the school newspaper or sports day, and in some cases, to become involved with wider school policy and tackling controversial issues in school.
- **The wider community**. Students are encouraged to take part in activities for good causes or the school environment, to organise their own work experience or community service and sometimes, to find ways of improving the school environment.

In all of the three contexts above, there is a focus upon three levels of participation: carrying out, organising, and influencing change.

Other countries have a less coherent approach to the development of citizenship education. Many, for example, begin by identifying a **formal curriculum element** in their policy documentation, where much of the teaching and learning of citizenship-related information, skills, values and dispositions is planned to take place. This is often undertaken through existing subjects, rather than through a specific 'citizenship' programme. For example in:

- Canada there is citizenship-related teaching within Social Studies and the History curriculum
- Hungary, citizenship is approached through the subject 'Man and Society'
- Japan, citizenship comes through Moral Education and through the subject 'Koumin' (literally 'public person'), which forms part of the social studies curriculum in junior high school and which is separately taught in senior high school
- New Zealand, it is developed through Social Studies
- Singapore, citizenship-related study takes place within Civics and Moral Education, History, and through Social Studies the USA, a number of states teach a Civics programme.

Alongside these formal programmes of study, many of the countries were able to identify a range of other activities that take place across their schools, and

which can be described as offering students additional 'citizenship-related' experiences. For example:

- In **Japan**, students are given opportunities to participate within school life and their wider communities through a range of deeply embedded traditional practices (see Chapter 4 for further details) and through 'special activities' and an 'integrated learning' programme. Interestingly, whilst these activities are where students arguably gain most of their practical participation experiences, national policy documentation makes no links between these practices and active citizenship, or the formal 'Koumin' curriculum.
- **Australia**, **Singapore** and the **USA** all encourage young people to undertake some form of community service. In Australia, this is known as 'Community Engagement', in the USA as 'Service Learning', and in Singapore, as a 'Community Involvement Programme', which each student undertakes for at least six hours per school year. Pupils engage in community-related activities, and should be motivated by a strong sense of moral obligation towards contributing to the well-being of society. In the USA, the author argues, that, in practice, there is no clear linkage between the programme of Service Learning and the Civics curriculum.
- In **New Zealand**, students have opportunities to take part in a range of cross-curricular activities related to citizenship.

Whilst the model for citizenship education proposed in Figure 2 above, can be applied reasonably well to most of the responding countries, it is clear that different states and nations have varying points of entry to it, depending upon the degree of emphasis that they place upon different elements of citizenship provision. This, for example, countries such as **England**, the **Netherlands**, **Northern Ireland**, the **Republic of Ireland**, **Scotland and Wales**, which adopt a relatively holistic view of citizenship education, sit towards the middle of this diagram. Meanwhile, nations such as the **USA** and **Australia**, are positioned closer to the 'curriculum' point, whilst countries such as **Japan** and **New Zealand** are situated closer to the 'school community' 'wider community' and 'cross/extra curricula' points respectively. This does not mean that these countries do not have learning activities underway within other contexts, but rather that these tend to have lower emphasis than the main aspects of their provision, or unclear linkages to them. Examples from **Australia** and the **USA** are provided below as examples of these points of entry.

Curriculum context focus

In **Australia**, 'active citizenship' is clearly referred to in most states' curriculum documents. However, the questionnaire's author claims that the term is not well theorised. She argues that it is, in fact, incorporated into a broadly utilitarian concept of Civics and Citizenship Education (CCE), with a focus on facts-based learning. This finding indicates that in spite of its title, most 'active citizenship' curricula in Australia are based around a fairly narrow, minimal, definition of citizenship education, and a formal curriculum-based model of delivery. It should be noted, however, that in the State of **Victoria**, a more holistic model of provision has been adopted (See Section 3.3 below).

Whilst the **USA** makes explicit reference to 'Civics' within its national policy documentation, it stands out as having adopted a largely 'minimal' approach to the concept, with a focus on learning about national history and political institutions. Around half of the 50 states require that civic education is explicitly addressed through completion of designated courses in social studies and government. There is currently no particular reference to communal engagement with political or social issues, or the concept of 'active citizenship'. The author comments, however, that there is a move underway across the USA toward a more communitarian/civil republican framework for citizenship education, as outlined in Chapter 2 previously.

However, Figure 2 is useful, as an aspirational model, because it indicates that, the closer countries are able to position themselves to the middle of the diagram, the more likely they are to be drawing clear and transparent links between the four main contexts within which citizenship education can develop. In so doing, they are creating a climate for the effective development of 'active citizenship' within schools, by providing students with opportunities for participation within their schools and their wider communities, whilst ensuring a sound underpinning of knowledge, understanding and skills, through the school curriculum. Arguably, the more students understand the links between these elements, the more likely they are to become knowledgeable, empowered, responsible, and engaged 'active' citizens now and in the future.

3.3 Links between citizenship contexts, concepts and components

It is clear from the data that the various concepts, components and contexts outlined in Figure 1 can be developed across all, or some, of the contexts described in Figure 2. There is nothing to say that the knowledge and understanding components of citizenship education need necessarily be covered solely within the curriculum context, nor that the school and wider community contexts offer the only scope for the development of creativity and enterprise. What becomes increasingly clear, through the conduct of the thematic study, is that the greater the linkages **within** and **between** concepts, components and contexts, the more holistic the provision, and the closer one comes to a potential model for 'active citizenship.' Examples of **Victoria** in **Australia** and **Spain** are given below.

Spain is currently in the process of a major reform of its education system, and a series of clearly defined aims for citizenship education have been identified within a parliamentary bill, which is currently being heard in parliament. If the bill is passed, a citizenship curriculum will be developed, focused around three strands:

- Developing **knowledge** about the organisation of a democratic society
- Developing positive **attitudes** and **skills** of positive criticism
- Developing school democracy and showing **active citizenship** at work within school communities.

In **Australia**, which has a federal system, policy developments within the State of **Victoria** provide an interesting example of a broader definition and practice of citizenship education than across many other Australian states. Here, Civics and Citizenship Education (CCE) has been moved out of it's old 'home' of social studies and into a more prominent position as a cross-curricular perspective, giving it equal weighting with other, more traditional, subjects. CCE in Victoria is defined as having two dimensions:

- **Civic knowledge and understanding** (learning the 'facts')
- **Community engagement** (putting this knowledge into practice).

This model contains a distinct strand of knowledge and understanding, and another that seeks to put this knowledge and understanding into practice through participation and volunteering opportunities, although it is not clear where the development of skills, values and dispositions sit within this approach.

The outstanding question, therefore, is whether an approach to citizenship education which incorporates all, or many of the above concepts, components and contexts can, in fact, be regarded as a model for 'active citizenship', or as the process by which an education for citizenship is made active? The following examples, which were provided through the questionnaire, and elaborated upon during the Oxford Seminar, provide an illustration.

Active citizenship as an implicit feature of citizenship education

In the **Republic of Ireland**, the secondary school subject 'Civic, Social and Political Education' (CSPE) aims to equip students with skills and understanding of the processes which help them to *'see, decide, judge and **act**.'* Students explore the concepts of human dignity, democracy, law, development, stewardship and interdependence through an 'action project'. Similarly, in **Hungary**, civic education is an explicit element of the school cultural domain 'Man and Society'. It is defined as a complex competence for which one has to understand certain values (such as democracy, humanism, respect, tolerance and cooperation), as well as developing knowledge and understanding of rights and duties, and skills and attitudes, including critical thinking, responsibility, creativity and **active participation**.

Although there is no specific subject of 'active citizenship' in the **Netherlands**, there are a series of core objectives for citizenship, which seek to provide a basis of knowledge and understanding upon which students' **active contributions** can be based. These core objectives include knowledge about society, democracy, religion, human rights, environmental issues and European structures. In **New Zealand**, citizenship education is addressed as a cross-curricular theme, and through Social Studies. However, 'active citizenship' is implicit within the New Zealand Curriculum Framework, which states that all students should have opportunities to participate in school and/or class decision making.

In contrast, it could be argued (as in Northern Ireland and Wales, for example) that citizenship policies and programmes of study should make specific reference to 'active citizenship' as an **additional** component or concept within citizenship education. The following example is provided by way of illustration.

Active citizenship as an explicit component or concept

In **Northern Ireland**, the subject 'Local and Global Citizenship' is to become a statutory requirement for all young people aged 11-16 from September 2007. It will be based around four key concepts: diversity and inclusion, human rights and social responsibility, equality and social justice and **democracy and active participation**. Whilst there is no formal definition of 'active citizenship', this fourth key concept arguably provides a basis for schools to promote opportunities for active democratic participation.

This example raises a question as to whether or not it is best to promote 'active citizenship' as a specific concept or component within citizenship education programmes. Does this approach have the **positive effect** of heightening awareness of the need for participatory elements within citizenship education programmes? Or does it, in fact, **drive a wedge** between citizenship education, and active citizenship, by making the latter appear as something, at best, different or extra, or at worst, unrelated, to the broad goals of citizenship education? More evidence of the practice and experiences of citizenship education and active citizenship policy implementation across different countries will be needed before firm answers to these questions can be provided.

In spite of this, analysis of questionnaire responses reinforced by contributions and discussion at the International Seminar shows that most of the responding countries currently reflect similar ideas regarding the concepts, components and contexts of citizenship education and, to a certain extent, active citizenship within their policy documentation. It is thus possible to provide some models of citizenship education policy across INCA countries, as illustrated in Figures 1 and 2. However, different countries' points of entry to citizenship vary quite substantially, as discussed previously, which means that not all countries are currently adopting as holistic a view of education for citizenship as others. This reflects, at least in part, the different cultures and traditions - social, political and educational - from which they come (See Chapter 2). The extent to which this matters, or needs to be addressed, is a matter for further exploration and reflection. The question raised at the international conference in Oxford, England, in March 2006 of whether or not it is acceptable for active citizenship to be **culturally specific** remains a point of contention. The influence of global change, reinforced by international declarations on human rights and the rights of the child, for example, may also

go some way to explaining different countries' approaches to, and views of citizenship education.

Whilst the situation is complex, there would appear to be a relationship between definitions and approaches to **citizenship education** and those concerning **active citizenship**. Countries that make fewer links between the various concepts, components and contexts of citizenship education seemingly provide fewer opportunities for 'active citizenship' to flourish, unless they make specific, separate, provision for students to participate, either through curriculum provision, or through school structures, cultures and traditions. It could be argued that, where citizenship education is conceived broadly as addressing a range of concepts and values, and developing various components (knowledge and understanding, skills and competencies, values and dispositions and creativity and enterprise) across multiple contexts (curriculum, extra-curricular, school community and wider community), there is good opportunity to promote an **active process** to link these concepts, components and contexts, and bring them to life. Put simply, this means that in countries with a more holistic approach to citizenship education, active citizenship is coming to be viewed as the process by which an education for citizenship can be made active.

The next chapter considers the extent to which these policies are being turned into effective practices, and the implications of attempting to do so.

4. What implementation measures are there to turn citizenship and active citizenship policies into effective practices?

The questionnaire asked INCA countries a series of questions related to the practice of developing and delivering active citizenship within schools and beyond. These questions related to:

- learning and teaching
- assessment and qualifications
- resources
- teacher education
- inspection, monitoring and evaluation
- citizenship in non-school settings.

Many of these issues were explored further at the Oxford seminar in March 2006. Responses to the questionnaire, and related discussions at the Oxford seminar are discussed below.

4.1 Learning and teaching

Questionnaire responses and seminar discussions indicate a close relationship between the nature and understanding of citizenship education, or active citizenship, in each country, and its approach to the learning and teaching of the subject. Countries identified in previous sections as having adopted a broad approach to citizenship education or active citizenship, through a range of citizenship concepts, components and contexts, tend to have a broad approach to learning and teaching. In such countries there is generally a focus on both interactive and experiential, and also didactic approaches. Those countries developing citizenship education through a single context, or focusing on only one or two citizenship components, in contrast, tend towards a more singular approach to learning and teaching. In such countries, teaching is either undertaken through traditional teacher-led, class-based methods, or is demonstrated (as in Japan) through implicit learning opportunities which

occur in a relatively organic fashion through school structures and practices, and via opportunities for community involvement.

Only the **USA** stands out as adopting a largely singular approach to the learning and teaching of citizenship education. Here, citizenship is taught primarily through formal structured sessions on government, history and civics, with little clear opportunity for active participation. In **Japan** and **Singapore**, in contrast, whilst the formal civics-type curriculum tends to be taught discretely, and with a facts-based focus, there are many examples of student participation occurring implicitly across the curriculum and through school traditions and cultures (even though there is no formal provision for this within national policy documentation). Such examples include group discussions (such as through the 'han' system in Japan), extra-curricular activities, whole school events days, visiting speakers, and school councils or pupil circles (which are compulsory in Japan). More details are provided in the case study below.

Most other countries indicate that there is no prescribed model for the teaching of citizenship, and that they have adopted a **range of approaches**. In Canada, England, Hungary, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, Scotland, Wales and Spain (if the legislation goes ahead), citizenship is approached and taught in a variety of ways, including through discrete sessions, modular approaches, through curriculum subjects, cross-curricular themes, thematic days, links with the wider community and by involving young people in decision making. Teachers also draw, to greater or lesser degrees, on a variety of learning and teaching approaches, from didactic methods of imparting information to more active approaches including role play, simulations, small group work, mock elections and genuine community projects. In New Zealand, in quality teaching and learning programmes, knowledge and understanding components of citizenship education are firmly embedded within social studies and social sciences curricula, while extra-curricular activities provide opportunities for students to experience, and take part in, a range of citizenship-related activities.

More detailed analysis of the data and the contributions at the International Seminar indicates that there are a number of issues related to interpreting the range of learning and teaching approaches used across different countries, which are explored in the following case studies.

Definitions of 'active'

The questionnaire respondent and delegate from **Japan** explained that Japanese students generally have a very active role in the life of their schools through a range of duties and responsibilities incorporating mentoring, supervision of younger students, lunch-time responsibilities and cleaning duties. The tendency for the misdemeanours of one student to result in lectures or cleaning-up duties for the whole year group leads to a form of 'coerced' active citizenship, she argues. These practices are so uniform across Japanese schools, and so integral to the culture of Japanese schools and communities, that they are **rarely documented**. This emphasises two key points. Firstly, that there are substantial differences of definition or interpretation of what it means to be 'active' across countries. Is being 'active' about being compliant and conformist, for example, or about challenging the order of things? Secondly, it highlights the problems associated with **identifying** the extent of active citizenship practice internationally, when such practice can often be organic and undocumented.

The role of student councils

In **Hungary**, an act of parliament regarding public education stipulates that school students can set up 'pupil circles' with the remit of organising elements of their school community life. They may also establish a pupils' self-government to represent the interests of pupils. Self-governments are totally autonomous, and their rules can only be denounced by staff if they run contrary to the rules and regulations of the school. Whilst this provides an interesting example of **provision** for democratic governance in one country, we do not have detailed information on the extent of student participation in such structures,[8] or of the ways in which these structures interact with the wider citizenship curriculum. Indeed, most countries made little reference to the practice of democratic governance within schools. In **Wales**, all schools have been required, since 2005, to establish schools councils. In **Australia** the situation is similar. However, the author of the Australian questionnaire response comments that, although there is widespread provision of school councils: *'Most schools are not models of democratic process.'*

[8] We know, for example, that in England in the UK, there is a considerable gap between the provision of school councils and student involvement in such school democratic structures (Cleaver *et al*, 2005, pp. 35-36).

Difficulties in broadening learning and teaching approaches

Whilst in most countries, a varied approach to learning and teaching is described by seminar delegates as part of a deliberate attempt to furnish young people with necessary knowledge, understanding, skills and experience to engage with the subject of citizenship, in **Australia**, the range of approaches mentioned would appear to be more a reflection of **differing practice** across states, which reportedly varies from rote to experiential learning. The Australian author notes concerns about the practicalities of broadening learning and teaching practice across all states to encompass opportunities for democratic governance in schools and links with the wider community. She states that, because of a perceived interference with the teaching of other subjects, and a number of legal ramifications, *'Principals and teachers in secondary schools are less likely to support active citizenship if it means taking students outside of school and into the wider community.'* She concludes: *'In brief, the picture in secondary schools at this point of time is one of heightened awareness of CCE, but with little evidence of a systematic, comprehensive, whole-school approach'.*

These examples illustrate the range of complex issues that need to be considered in relation to learning and teaching about citizenship – issues of curriculum location, subject definition, styles of imparting information, methods of helping students to learn, and means of delivering opportunities for participation within school and the wider community. They also indicate that at this stage our understanding of the effectiveness of different approaches to the learning and teaching of citizenship is somewhat scant and requires further investigation. It is clear though, that 'active citizenship' can be understood as much in terms of an **approach to learning** as of young people's **participation** in school and community life. The seminar delegate from the **Republic of Ireland** explained, for example, how the secondary school subject 'Civic, Social and Political Education' (CSPE) employs a range of **active** and co-operatively structured **learning methodologies**. Indeed, students explore the concepts of human dignity, democracy, law, development, stewardship and interdependence through an '**action project**'. Here 'active citizenship' is as much about the process of active learning, as about the outcome of that learning, and students arguably become 'active citizens' through active engagement with the learning process.

4.2 Assessment and qualifications

It is evident from the questionnaire responses that most countries consider the issue of assessment from the perspective of the availability of accredited courses and **qualifications**. On this basis, most indicate that they do not yet have established methods of assessing citizenship education and, in particular, active citizenship – citizenship as an active practice. Participants in the International Seminar agreed that it is not particularly surprising that assessment currently lags behind other developments in citizenship education and active citizenship, given that practice in this area is only just developing.

Only five countries report having fairly extensive assessment procedures – England, Hungary, the Netherlands, the Republic of Ireland and Singapore (which is discussed later).

In **England**, only students at key stage 3 (ages 11-14) are **required** to be assessed in citizenship, and assessment examples have recently been published for key stage 3 students. However, it is recognised as good practice to assess students on an ongoing basis in each key stage, and active citizenship is often assessed through the GCSE in Citizenship Studies (usually taken at age 16) if schools choose to use this qualification. Candidates produce a report or piece of reflective writing about their active citizenship project and answer questions about it during an examination. Additionally, a Level 3 Active Citizenship Studies qualification is currently being trialled, and a new A Level in Citizenship Studies will be available for first teaching from 2008. In the **Republic of Ireland**, CSPE is assessed and certificated as part of the Junior Certificate Examination. Students can submit either coursework, a report or an action project, and sit an examination. As part of the Leaving Certificate Applied, candidates are assessed through project work and examination and a number of personal reflection and practical achievement tasks.

In **Hungary**, ordinary and advanced level examinations in citizenship are available, which incorporate a project, a written test and an oral examination. The examination attempts to assess more than merely the knowledge of civic concepts. Although it is not carried out by all schools, students who wish to take the examination may apply to other schools if they wish to do so. In the **Netherlands**, assessment is carried out through the subject 'Maatschappijleer' (study of society), which is compulsory in upper secondary education.

An additional six countries (Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Scotland and the USA) tend only to assess those elements of their programmes related to civics, government or social studies, and tend not to have clear strategies in place for the assessment of other elements of their programmes other than through their 'regular reporting procedures'. This suggests three things:

- Countries find it easier to assess 'factual' knowledge elements of citizenship programmes delivered in the curriculum than those related to young people's active participation or the assessment of views or skills in contexts in and beyond the classroom. The Australian respondent commented that many teachers consider young people's views and dispositions to be un-assessable, and so do not attempt to evaluate them. The Canadian respondent stated: *'Faced with little professional preparation in this area, teachers indicate the need for more guidance in the area of assessment and evaluation, especially with types of assessment that explicitly deal with some of the broader participatory goals associated with citizenship.'* He added, however, that there is increasing recognition in Canada that assessment of active citizenship needs to extend beyond traditional paper-based methods to encompass 'performance assessment'.
- Where assessment is formal, and **externally assessed** (as, for example, in the Republic of Ireland), it can be difficult to ensure that the **process** of learning, alongside the development of knowledge, skills and dispositions, is being assessed effectively. The view of delegates at the conference in Oxford, England in March 2006 was that external assessment lends itself to an assessment of outcomes rather than of the process of learning.
- Many respondents currently view assessment and qualifications as one and the same thing. This partly explains the emphasis placed on the assessment of factual, rather than active, elements of programmes. However, it also means that there is a dearth of information on the less formal processes of recognising young people's achievements, including methods of assessment for, and of, young people's learning by teachers, peers and young people themselves.

Whilst the above point is broadly true of most countries, three responses provided evidence of attempts to assess the more active elements of citizenship education – **Northern Ireland**, the **Republic of Ireland** and **Singapore**. They are presented as examples below:

Northern Ireland and the **Republic of Ireland**

In **Northern Ireland**, assessment structures are being finalised for the new curriculum subject of 'Local and Global Citizenship', which will incorporate both formative and summative elements. In addition to sitting papers that will contribute 15 per cent towards a new CCEA qualification, 'Learning for Life and Work', candidates will also be enabled to carry out a citizenship-based **action research** project, discussion or presentation, which will be internally assessed. The research action project (RAP) is also a key feature of Civic, Social and Political Education in the **Republic of Ireland**. Through action projects, which are externally assessed, students identify a topical issue, investigate it, plan and carry out some form of action and evaluate their outcomes. Assessment is intended to be as much about evaluating the **process** of action as it is about the specific outcomes of the project. An interesting video clip, shown during the March seminar, showed how the action project is often undertaken by students using media other than the written word as the basis for their work (known as an e-RAP). Delegates were shown an interesting example of one student's e-RAP project, which had been compiled as a video.

Singapore

In addition to the formal assessment of Social Studies through 'O' Levels, Citizenship and Moral Education, and the National Education Programme (a whole school approach to nurturing national identity and pride), are regularly assessed through school-based formative and summative assessments. There is an end of year report on a 'Community Involvement Programme', and a National Education Programme quiz.

As reported on page 35 above, England also has relatively extensive provision for the assessment of active citizenship through an 'active citizenship project', which forms part of the GCSE programme of study, and through the Level 3 Active Citizenship Studies qualification (normally taken by young people aged over 16).

Whether the general lack of information on recognition of achievement is a reflection of scant practice in this regard, or of a misunderstanding of the meaning of 'assessment', is unclear at present. However, it is an area requiring greater investigation in order that challenges to the assessment of active citizenship can be better understood and considered within policy and practitioner circles.

4.3 Resources

Questionnaire respondents stated that citizenship practitioners across most INCA countries have the facility to access a wide and diverse range of materials to support their approaches to the learning and teaching of active citizenship. The extent of such access was reinforced in the presentations and supporting materials at the International Seminar. Most questionnaire respondents made reference to the availability of material, rather than human, resources, and also tended not to distinguish between the **availability** of resources and their actual **usage**. However, the discussion at the Oxford seminar focused much more around the issue of individuals, groups and communities as key resources in the development of active citizenship. These views are discussed over the following pages.

It appears that countries within North, West and Southern Europe, the Commonwealth, and the USA have the potential to access a broader range of (free-market) resources than those in Asian and Eastern European countries such as Japan, Singapore and Hungary. The latter group of countries most commonly draws materials and information from state-run media organisations, government authorised resources and/or traditional text books, whilst the former group is able to access a wider range of media, often via websites, produced by:

- Independent publishers (Canada, England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, the Netherlands, New Zealand and Wales).
- Independent media organisations (such as the BBC and Channel 4, TVOntario and Toronto Star) (Canada, England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Netherlands, Hungary and Wales). In the Republic of Ireland, the *'Irish Independent'* newspaper produces a weekly citizenship education supplement called *'In Tuition'* for 20 weeks during the school year. In Hungary, although media organisations produce citizenship-related programmes, these are on late at night, not aimed at students, and not connected to the school curriculum.
- Professional subject organisations (Canada, England, Scotland, the Republic of Ireland, Australia, the USA, the Netherlands and Spain). Professional and academic networks also provide support and a forum for discussion and debate. Examples include the Association for Citizenship Teaching (ACT) and the Citized network in England, and the Citizenship Education Research Network (CERN) and the Canadian Education Association (CEA) in Canada.
- Parliamentary organisations (for example the Hansard Society) (Canada, England, Wales and Scotland).
- Voluntary organisations, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and pressure groups (Canada, England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, New

Zealand, the Republic of Ireland, Australia, the USA, the Netherlands, Spain and Wales).

- Government, local authority or library board recommended resources (Canada, Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, Wales, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Australia and Spain).

This distinction suggests that practitioners working in Europe, the Commonwealth and the USA have greater freedom, a wider diversity of sources and a greater range of views, opinions and perspectives upon which to draw, which are likely to aid a more effective development of active citizenship opportunities. However, it is also clear that many of these resources have been developed, and targeted at practitioners and young people in an ad-hoc fashion, with little or no policy consultation or attempts to link them to curriculum guidelines or programmes of study. There are clearly exceptions. The materials developed by the National Assembly for Wales and CEWC Cymru are closely linked to curriculum guidance, for example. It is also easier to produce resources that target the knowledge elements of citizenship education than the process of active citizenship. Whilst independently produced resources can provide a rich source of data on a range of issues, they can also prove confusing and overwhelming for busy practitioners and young people.

Material and electronic resources, although essential, are only one element of the discussion about resources. The importance of **people** and **venues** (whether real or virtual) need also to be considered. In a citizenship context, it is important to regard young people, community members and school practitioners as key human resources who, ideally, need to work in partnership with each other to make active citizenship opportunities a reality for young people. The following examples from **Italy** and **Japan** were both presented at the Oxford seminar. They are given below as contrasting examples.

Human resources

A paper presented by the **Italian** delegate at the Oxford seminar in March 2006 demonstrated how a lack of school autonomy in Italy means that it can be very difficult to provide genuine participation opportunities in the local community. Bureaucratic and legislative burdens associated with working with the community outside school are heavy, and there is an outstanding question as to how much, and what, influence the external community is **allowed** to have. This point needs to be taken into account when considering different countries' approaches to the contexts across which citizenship education, or active citizenship, can be developed, as outlined in Figure 2, Chapter 3.

In contrast, in **Japan**, the lines between school and wider community are blurred. School students in rural areas know their community leaders, and students are known to those leaders. Young people are regarded as a powerful resource in their own right, and a young person who 'refuses school' essentially refuses the entire community. School students are expected to take a large degree of responsibility for themselves and each other through a series of culturally inherent daily routines and practices. These include older students mentoring younger ones and walking them to school, all students taking turns to serve up school meals to the whole class, and rotas for the cleaning of the school. It is clear that the focus of young people's participation is on 'responsibilities' rather than 'rights', and that the Japanese school culture encourages compliance and maintenance of the *status quo* rather than challenge of it. In this sense, the Japanese example provides an interesting juxtaposition between the large degree of **responsibility** given to young people, and the degree of **compulsion** upon them. This might best be described as 'responsibility within controlled parameters', or 'coerced volunteering'. The extent to which it constitutes 'active citizenship' however, is a matter for debate.

Finally, an exciting development in **Wales** is the establishment of 'Funky Dragon', the children and young people's assembly for Wales. This is a peer-led organisation that aims to provide young people with the opportunity to get their voices heard on issues that affect and matter to them.

4.4 Teacher education

Three of the responding countries had no particular provision for initial, or in-service, training of teachers in citizenship education. **Australia**, the **Netherlands** and the **USA** all reported that there are currently no particular training or development strategies related to the teaching or facilitation of citizenship-related subjects, although the respondent to the Netherlands' questionnaire did comment that there are currently some specific in-service training modules related to social skills conflict resolution. The extent to

which teachers are expected to engage with these modules, however, is left to the discretion of individual schools and teachers.

Issues surrounding this reported lack of opportunity for teacher education are illustrated well through the example of Australia, below.

> In **Australia**, newly qualified teachers (NQTs) who have not been trained in social studies as one of their specific initial teacher training (ITT) disciplines are reportedly unlikely to have had exposure to the concepts of citizenship education. This, and the fact that there has been very little in the way of in-service training (INSET) in citizenship-related concepts, presents real problems for the delivery of the new citizenship and civics education (CCE) curriculum. The author explains that a major concern for Australia is that the Ministries of Education, which set curriculum parameters and provide funding, do not have responsibility for teacher education, which falls to the professional subject associations. Hence there is currently a lack of clear linkage between curriculum requirements for the learning and teaching of CCE and the education of teachers to deliver citizenship programmes.

Across the remaining countries, there is more evidence of teacher education, although it would be fair to say that the picture across INCA countries is one of piecemeal delivery. Only five countries currently offer some form of initial teacher training (ITT) in citizenship, as follows:

- **England** is the only country to provide postgraduate ITT courses for specialist teachers in citizenship. Around 20 higher education institutions (HEIs) offer one-year programmes, which comprise theoretical subject knowledge alongside practical teaching experiences.
- In **Northern Ireland**, two universities offer Local and Global Citizenship as a subsidiary subject option.
- In the **Republic of Ireland**, all universities offering a higher diploma in education now offer students the possibility of participating in a special methodology course in Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE), which normally lasts for between 12 and 24 sessions. One HEI also offers a post-graduate diploma in citizenship studies, to enable teachers and others to explore broader aspects of citizenship provision.
- In **Singapore**, pre-service level training is provided by the National Institute of Education (NIE). Citizenship education pedagogy is infused into all training, and all trainees must undertake a group endeavours in service learning (GESL) community project, which seeks to develop skills of management and community service.
- In **New Zealand**, although there is no initial teacher training in citizenship specifically, social studies programmes incorporate many aspects of citizenship education, and hence students receive a good grounding in citizenship-related topics and issues.

These countries are advantaged by the fact that, they are either developing subject specialist teachers who will be in a strong position to understand and deliver the requirements of curriculum developments in the area of citizenship education (England, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland and, to a lesser extent, New Zealand), or they are ensuring that all trainee teachers, irrespective of their discipline, receive some exposure to citizenship concepts (Singapore).

More countries (eleven) were able to provide evidence of in-service training (INSET) opportunities for existing teachers, which may go some way towards rectifying the problems of a paucity of specialist qualified citizenship teachers across the INCA countries. However, the extent and depth of the training offered varies considerably across countries, as shown below:

- **Northern Ireland** provides an interesting example of an extensive INSET programme, widely recognised as the most effective in-service training ever to have taken place in the country. The training was conducted on a roll-out basis between 2001 and 2005, and enabled five members of staff in every post-primary school to receive training in Local and Global Citizenship as a lead-in to the introduction of the new statutory subject in 2007.
- In **England,** the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) is currently piloting a national certificate in citizenship teaching for existing teachers. Whilst at an early developmental stage, this aims to provide existing teachers with an opportunity to develop their specialist and theoretical understanding of the subject. A supporting continuing professional development (CPD) handbook for citizenship has also been developed and was launched in March 2006. A series of development modules for staff and young people involved in the post-16 citizenship development projects have also been developed by the Learning and Skills Development Agency (LSDA).
- In **Hungary**, most teaching is carried out by those working in the fields of social studies and the humanities. The author points out problems for these teachers in terms of the legacy of '*Prussian-type authoritarian educational ethos and teaching tradition, which poses a tough challenge for anyone considering conveying the ethos of democratic reasoning and behavioural patterns.'* However, there are some development opportunities for teachers wishing to expand active approaches to learning, democratic governance within schools, or links with the wider community, in the form of in-service seminars and materials.
- In **Canada, Japan**, **Scotland, Wales, Singapore, Spain and New Zealand**, a range of citizenship-related modules are available for experienced teachers. In Spain, these are organised by the Teacher Training Office at the Ministry of Education, and in Wales, Local Education Authorities (LEAs) provide regular CPD activities for personal and social education (PSE) coordinators and teachers. In Singapore, training modules are organised by the NIE and various branches of the

> Ministry of Education, through workshops, seminars, videos and on-line. Social Studies Units within the Ministry of Education also conduct workshops and modules including 'community spirit', 'our heritage', 'governing Singapore' and 'defending our nation.' As in New Zealand, the range and numbers of staff exposed to such modules is not clear however. In Japan, social studies teachers undertake training in civics education, but there is no training for the active citizenship education beyond civics, which takes place in practice in Japanese schools.

In conclusion, there are some encouraging examples of systematic teacher education programmes being developed in some countries (in particular England, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland and Singapore). However, overall there is more of a focus on training for the knowledge-based elements, rather than for the more active elements, of citizenship programmes. A number of countries still make no particular provision for the initial, or in-service, training of teachers. The Canadian delegate's seminar comments, that professional learning for citizenship education tends to be fragmented and usually considered within a broader curriculum context (such as social studies curricula), reflects the situation across a number of countries. He comments in his questionnaire return that citizenship education is given significantly less priority than literacy, numeracy or careers education for example, and that in Canada:

> *There is neither a national nor a provincial professional learning strategy in place to support teachers in their understanding of teaching and learning related to active citizenship.*

Additionally, there is little evidence to suggest that there are many opportunities for the training of young people (and those working in communities) in the skills of participation, or facilitation of learning, respectively across countries. A recent development in Wales provides a rare example of a national programme, which has been put in place to develop school councils. This programme includes training for students, and the facilitation of the development of participation skills by young people aged 11 to 25. Similarly, in England, work underway through the post-16 citizenship development projects and through the Civil Renewal Unit's 'active learning hubs' has focused on the importance of training young people and adults in the skills of managing their own learning and developing their own action projects.

This lack of systematic training for young people, and those who work most closely with them poses considerable challenges for the developing subject of citizenship education, and particularly active citizenship. Until teachers, young

people and community workers are helped to understand the principles of the subject, its rationale, aims and purposes, it is unlikely that a broad view and practice of citizenship education, and active citizenship, will develop effectively. There may be scope for greater use of new media, including the Internet, and television programmes such as 'Teacher's TV' in England, as a vehicle for the education of teachers and young people in the various components of citizenship education and active citizenship, and in a range of active learning methodologies.

4.5 Inspection, monitoring, research and evaluation

The relatively low priority assigned to citizenship education, as evidenced through the lack of teacher training and development opportunities in many countries, was less clearly demonstrated in inspection, monitoring and evaluation arrangements. Indeed, nine of the INCA countries have specific provision for the inspection, monitoring, research or evaluation, of citizenship education. This reflects the increasing trend towards some form of statutory citizenship education or civics provision within most of the responding countries:

- **Inspection** – In **England**, **Scotland**, **Northern Ireland, Wales,** the **Republic of Ireland** and **Spain**, citizenship education is, (or soon will be), subject to government inspection, as part of the programme of inspections of all statutory curriculum subjects. The Netherlands stands out as being one of the few countries to have plans underway for the inspection of **active** citizenship (the National Inspectorate is currently developing instruments to enable this), and in the Republic of Ireland, performance in Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) examinations is evaluated on a national level by the State Examinations Commission. In Singapore, a baseline survey (the National Education Survey) is administered on randomly selected students in all schools annually to gauge their attitudes towards citizenship. Schools' achievements are recognised under the Ministry of Education's Master Plan of Awards.
- **Monitoring** – In **England** the QCA has a specific remit to keep 'the curriculum under review'. It has carried out a number of surveys monitoring the progress of the new citizenship curriculum in schools. The results are being fed into thinking about the future of the curriculum in England.
- **Research and Evaluation** – In **England**, **Northern Ireland** and the **Republic of Ireland**, independent evaluations of the implementation and progress of citizenship education in schools (and also in post-16 settings in England) are underway or completed, conducted by the NFER in England (Craig, *et al*, 2004; Ireland, *et al*, 2006), the University of Ulster in Northern Ireland (CCEA and University of Ulster, 2006), and Nexus Research Co-operative in the Republic of Ireland (Redmond and Butler, 2003)

respectively. In 2005, the English evaluation adopted a thematic focus on active citizenship[9]. In New Zealand, the Education Review Office produced a report on student participation in school decision making, (Education Review Office, 2003)[10] and in 2005, two select committees reported that citizenship is still not sufficiently evident within the school curriculum.

Five countries – **Canada**, **Australia**, **Japan**, **Hungary** and the **USA** have no specific provision for the inspection or research and evaluation of citizenship education or active citizenship. In none of these countries is this particularly a reflection of a low status being assigned to citizenship education however. Firstly, neither Hungary nor Japan has a national inspectorate, so the finding is unsurprising. Secondly, the federal systems in Canada, Australia and the USA, mean that evaluation of subject work is commonly undertaken at the level of the school, through self reviews. Respondents from these countries point out that these reviews are usually of a whole-school nature, rather than focusing on specific subjects or themes, although the Canadian respondent comments that school-level assessments most commonly focus upon literacy and numeracy. He adds that there has not been a systematic, large-scale effort to evaluate civic or citizenship education in Canada since 1968. The author of the USA response adds that: *'Civic Education is rarely on the radar screen of local school districts.'*

Questionnaire responses provided information mainly on the provision for inspection and evaluation, rather than on the findings from such practices. It would be interesting, for future reference, and in shaping policy and practice in the field of active citizenship, to draw on the outcomes of national inspections and evaluations across countries, where such information is available.

4.6 Citizenship in non-school settings

Across most countries, there is little, as yet, in the way of programmes in citizenship education or active citizenship in post-compulsory non-formal and informal education settings. Exceptions to this can be found within countries of the UK, and in the Republic of Ireland, where some developments are

9 The ensuing report (Ireland, *et al*, 2006) demonstrated that, whilst there is much potential for the development of active citizenship, both through student interest and priorities, and through legal statute, genuine opportunities for its development in schools is somewhat limited at present.

10 This report concluded that, although there are a wide range of opportunities for students to take part in decision making at school and class level, opportunities for **all** students to participate were limited, and an area requiring improvement.

underway. In Northern Ireland, the development of citizenship education into post-16 settings is at a developmental stage at present, and in Scotland the Scottish Further Education Unit has begun a process of awareness raising among further education staff, although this is at a very early stage. In the Republic of Ireland there is a National Citizenship Education Network within the community education sector, and the National Adult Literacy Association themed its awareness week this year 'Citizenship and Literacy'. The National Association of Adult Education also themed its annual conference 'Citizen Learner'. In England, post-16 developments are more advanced, as the following case study demonstrates.

Case-study of post-compulsory provision

In **England**, a development programme for post-16 learners, managed by the, then, Learning and Skills Development Agency (LSDA) (now the Learning and Skills Network (LSN) has explored how citizenship learning and experiences can be continued with young people in post-compulsory school, college and work-based learning routes, as well as those attending youth services. In addition, the Home Office Civil Renewal Unit has established a number of regional 'hubs' to explore citizenship education for adults in community settings. The programme has been running for two years, and is exploring whether national accreditation for adult citizenship should be made available. Although the post-16 programme has successfully drawn in large numbers of providers and young people, it should be noted that there is much variation across providers as to whether citizenship programmes are accessible to all young people, or to a small minority of volunteers. Also, there has not been a commitment to full-scale national funding of the programme, which is likely to limit the growth in citizenship activity in non-school settings in the future. That said, seminar delegates were treated to an excellent DVD, produced by a selection of young people from a range of post-16 projects across England, which demonstrated the ways in which **music** has been used as a powerful tool to interest young people from a diversity of backgrounds in issues surrounding citizenship.

Other countries report a range of informal citizenship opportunities for young people in non-school settings and for adults. These opportunities are usually organised by voluntary bodies or charities. They include:

- youth and community initiatives such as the Young Social Innovators Award, *Gaisce* (the President's Award) and Foroige's Citizenship Education Programme for Young People (in the Republic of Ireland) and YMCA Peace Week (in Canada). Youth and community initiatives are also common in Northern Ireland
- the Scouts, Samaritans and church groups (Northern Ireland), which have been promoting active citizenship for many years. Some of these programmes are accredited through the Open College Network

- NGOs such as the Industrial Areas Foundation (in the USA), and the 'Atlantida Project' (in Spain), which offer training in 'community organising' and involve different sectors of the community in citizenship activity, respectively
- 'Learning Journeys Programme' in Singapore, which gives students the opportunity to visit key national institutions and gain an insight into the contribution that these make to Singapore's development and success
- culturally inherent practices such as participating in workplace or neighbourhood duty rotas (especially in rural areas), and employees being given time off work to participate in volunteer activities (in Japan). Japan's author comments that *'to an even greater extent than in school, active citizenship (learning) is based on tradition rather than formal courses of training.'*

Additionally, a number of state-organised projects and initiatives were cited by respondents. These included the setting up of consultation processes between young people and government officials or parliament, sometimes through youth fora (Scotland, Singapore and Wales, for example); the appointment of youth advisors and youth councils, which organise events, campaigns and outward-bound programmes (Canada, the Republic of Ireland, New Zealand and Spain); and, the production of a range of resources for the community and adult education sectors (Australia). These resources seek to address the perceived concern of a civic knowledge deficit, rather than promoting active citizenship as such. Interestingly respondents from Hungary and the Netherlands were not able to identify post-compulsory citizenship activities in their countries.

In conclusion, most countries do not have formal programmes for citizenship learning or activity in the post-compulsory or adult sectors. In these countries, however, there are many examples of piecemeal community-based programmes, initiatives and activities organised by voluntary organisations, NGOs and state bodies. This indicates that active citizenship is not yet regarded in the context of **lifelong learning** in all of the INCA countries. The challenge is to explore whether it is possible to form links between the formal school citizenship curriculum and such programmes, in order that some continuity in young people's experiences, and a more 'joined up' or systematic approach to the development of citizenship education policy and practice, is achievable.

5. What are the issues and challenges in turning active citizenship policy into effective practices?

Inputs to this thematic study from participating countries reveal that there are a number of issues and challenges related to turning active citizenship policy into effective practices. These findings enable us to expand upon the challenges raised in the background paper (Nelson and Kerr, 2005, pp.20-21) and to begin to understand the steps that need to be taken if effective practice in active citizenship is to be realised.

The first point to make is that the question 'What are the issues in turning active citizenship policy into practice?' itself poses some challenges. It would be wrong to assume that all countries necessarily have a clear understanding of what active citizenship is and of how it can be framed in education policy and then translated into practice. The degree of policy reference to education for citizenship, or active citizenship, across and within countries is extremely varied at present. Indeed, certain nations, Australia and the USA being good examples here, do not currently place much emphasis on the more active elements of citizenship education within their policy documentation, although they may use the term 'active citizenship'. Additionally, in countries which do identify active citizenship, either explicitly or implicitly, the term carries very different meanings. This reflects the cultural and political traditions of different countries, as well as their key motivations for developing citizenship programmes (as outlined in Chapter 2).

In certain countries such as the Netherlands and Japan, though **policy** related to active citizenship is minimal or non-existent, **practice** in these countries is much more clearly developed. In the Netherlands, for example, national policy relating to active citizenship is literally summarised in one line of text: '*Schools must promote active citizenship and social integration in their education*'. Schools in the Netherlands have a large degree of autonomy to develop this policy as they see fit, and the author of the Netherlands' response argues that many schools are beginning to develop the policy by recognising citizenship as an **active practice** across the three contexts of classroom, school and wider community. In all of these contexts, there is a focus upon three

levels of participation: carrying out work or action, organising work or action, and influencing change (see Section 3.2 above).

In Japan, there is little in the way of official policy relating to citizenship education or active citizenship. However, there is a large amount of citizenship-related participation and **practice** across Japanese schools, which is very much an organic element of school life and tradition, and which is generally undocumented. For countries such as Japan, the question 'what are the issues in turning active citizenship policy into practice?' effectively needs to be turned on its head. Indeed, the author of Japan's questionnaire response comments that the so called 'implementation gap' between policy and practice, that is often commented upon across other countries, needs to be understood differently when discussing the situation in Japan. She showed in her presentation at the International Seminar that there is, in fact, a 'reverse implementation gap' between a great deal of citizenship-related **practice** in Japanese schools, yet a scarcity of **policy** guidelines relating to active citizenship.

In addition to these overarching conceptual challenges, there are also a range of practical, operational factors, which pose significant challenges for the development of effective practice in active citizenship. These include challenges related to:

- **Learning and teaching**. There is currently a diversity of learning and teaching practice across INCA countries, with methods ranging from rote to experiential learning. It is clear that the discussion about 'active citizenship' focuses as much upon encouraging teachers in schools to adopt **active learning methodologies**, and opportunities for democracy within the classroom (as in the Netherlands, Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, for example) as upon creating opportunities for **active participation** in the school or wider community. However, this goal is some way away from being realised across all the responding countries at present:
  - Countries identified in previous sections as having adopted a broad approach to citizenship education or active citizenship, through a range of citizenship concepts, components and contexts, tend towards a more varied or 'active' approach to learning and teaching (including encouraging students to engage in role play, simulations, discussion and debate, class elections, action research projects and presentations).
  - Those countries that are developing citizenship across fewer linked contexts, tend towards, either more traditional teacher-led, class-based, learning methods, or implicit learning opportunities which occur in a relatively organic fashion through school structures and practices, and via opportunities for community involvement. It is not possible, within the scope of this study, to comment on the different outcomes for students of these substantially different approaches to learning and

teaching. However, this would be an interesting topic for future research.

- **Teacher education**. The above points have implications for the training and development of teachers across INCA countries. The finding that four countries have practically no provision of initial, or in-service, teacher training related to citizenship education is a cause for some concern, as the current lack of clarity about the best methods of learning and teaching for active citizenship suggests a strong need for the development of staff, and indeed young people, in this respect. Analysis of the data suggests that countries need to work on a number of aspects of teacher education in order to reinforce citizenship education as an active practice. They need to develop subject specialists in citizenship education (as in England and Northern Ireland), while at the same time exposing the wider staff in schools to citizenship concepts (as in Singapore). They also need to ensure that the focus of in-service training is relevant and meaningful for teachers.
- **Assessment**. There remains a requirement for a clearer, shared understanding of the meaning of assessment, which provides scope to recognise young people's achievements in active, as well as knowledge-based, elements of their programmes. It is unclear from questionnaire responses whether assessment is genuinely currently dominated by examination of knowledge-based elements, or whether there are less formal methods of recognising young people's achievements in active citizenship in place, which have not been identified at this stage. The challenge for many countries is to find ways of assessing those elements of active citizenship which appear difficult to evaluate – skills, dispositions, values and participation for example. The use of 'action research projects' (as in England, Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland for example), which focus on the **process** of learning as much as on the **outcome** of that learning, provide interesting examples of possible ways forward in this respect.
- **Resources**. There is currently a wealth of information and a range of media upon which countries can draw to develop active citizenship programmes. However, much of this information is produced and presented in an *ad hoc* fashion, and has not been designed to link specifically with different countries' curriculum documents or programmes of study. The challenge for policy makers and practitioners is to find ways of accessing this information, using it to best effect, and making appropriate use of new media, in particular the Internet, in developing their programmes. Additionally, it is clear that a range of **stakeholders** – practitioners, community members and young people – need to be regarded as resources key to the effective development of active citizenship. However, the extent to which these different groups gain genuine opportunities to influence the scope and practice of active citizenship in different countries is strongly influenced by culture, tradition, political factors and the extent of local and national bureaucracy. Whilst it remains a valid aspiration to engage a number of different stakeholders in the active citizenship process, this remains very difficult to achieve in practice in certain countries.
- **Inspection and evaluation**. Most inspection and evaluation frameworks, with the exception of those in the Netherlands, do not currently consider

active citizenship specifically. This is not surprising given the relative newness of active citizenship practice and terminology across INCA countries, and the fact that, in many countries it is regarded as an integral aspect of a broader concept of citizenship education. A general point however, is that a large number of the countries have inspection or evaluation frameworks in place for citizenship education. It is important that the findings of these inspections be used in a formative way, in order to inform the development of active citizenship practice internationally.

- **Post-compulsory linkages**. There is currently a plethora of post-compulsory community-based programmes, initiatives and activities organised by states, voluntary organisations and NGOs. These activities tend to have developed in a piecemeal fashion and there is currently no clear linkage between these and the formal citizenship curriculum within schools, and crucially no apparent sense of active citizenship fitting within a framework for lifelong learning.

The final section of this report considers the ways in which some of these challenges could be overcome, in order that active citizenship can be achieved more effectively and consistently in practice.

6. How can active citizenship be achieved and what are its outcomes?

Analysis of responding countries' questionnaires, set alongside inputs at the international seminar held in Oxford in March 2006, has confirmed clear signs of emerging policy and practice in relation to active citizenship within many of the countries. However, the analysis also suggests that the definition, policy orientation and development of active citizenship is still in its early stages. There is much yet to be considered, achieved and agreed, if active citizenship is to become firmly embedded within the contexts of the school curriculum, school democratic structures, other education and training establishments and wider communities, and a clearer recognition of its outcomes developed. A number of the challenges to achieving active citizenship and reaching agreement on it outcomes are outlined below.

6.1 Definition

Chief amongst the challenges to embedding active citizenship and recognising its outcomes is arriving at an accepted working definition of what it is. Analysis of questionnaire data, and the views of experts from INCA countries, suggest that key to this definition is being clearer about the nature of the relationship between **education for citizenship** and **active citizenship**. In particular, there is a need for more detailed consideration of the central question, namely 'To what extent is active citizenship an exposition of education for citizenship?', i.e how far is active citizenship an active process which facilitates the translation of the policy goals of an education for citizenship into effective practices (as discussed in Chapter 3). Chapter 3 suggested that an approach to education for citizenship incorporating all, or many, of the citizenship concepts, components and contexts outlined below, might be regarded as a working model for 'active citizenship':

- **Concepts** – core values, human values, values with a legal basis (Bron, 2005).
- **Components** – values and dispositions (directly linked to the concepts above), knowledge and understanding, skills and competencies, creativity and enterprise.
- **Contexts** – curriculum, cross/extra curricula, school community, wider community.

Whether such a holistic model for citizenship education can serve as the basis for an accepted working definition of active citizenship within and across countries, and how far that definition can be used to help inform policy orientation and the growth of effective practice, will be an issue for debate in many countries.

6.2 Learning and Teaching Approach

Secondly, there is the challenge of determining the most appropriate learning and teaching approaches for promoting active citizenship. Chapter 4 throws further light on this issue. It suggests the need to recognise that the learning and teaching process behind active citizenship is about more than imparting information or absorbing 'facts', but is about a facilitation of the practice of learning and participation, which draws on the knowledge, skills and experiences of practitioners, young people and community members in a range of learning contexts wherever possible, and encourages critical engagement with a range of issues, and reflection upon what has been learned. It is clear that 'active citizenship' can be understood as much in terms of an **active approach to learning**, as in terms of young people's **participation** in school and community life, and as such, may extend beyond the citizenship curriculum.

In order for these challenges to be met, it is clear that stronger foundations need to be laid in many countries, and that a number of key practical implementation measures need to be addressed, namely:

- Testing out and discovering the most effective **learning and teaching** strategies for developing appropriate knowledge, skills, dispositions and creativity amongst young people, within the parameters of each country's approach to citizenship education and/or active citizenship. Where possible, opportunities to maximise young people's participation within schools and the wider community need to be taken. An NFER evaluation of the post-16 citizenship development projects in England, found that 'active' learning and teaching approaches were the most effective in engaging young people aged 16-19 in citizenship-related issues. These approaches included: negotiating key issues of interest with young people; developing a critically reflective learning environment; using a variety of experiential learning experiences; drawing on a variety of relevant resources; facilitating activities rather than imparting information through traditional teaching methods; creating opportunities for links with the wider community, and involving young people, where possible, in youth representation bodies (Craig *et al*, 2004).

- Developing opportunities for initial and in-service **teacher training** in citizenship education or active citizenship. The Northern Irish model is a useful example of a well thought through approach, with appropriate lead-in time dedicated to the training of staff in advance of the introduction of 'Local and Global Citizenship' as a statutory curriculum subject. It is clear that training needs to be well focused, with a clear expression of the subject's rationale, aims and objectives. This is key, given the current lack of agreement regarding definitions and understanding of active citizenship and, indeed, education for citizenship, internationally. Additionally, teacher education should seek to develop effective skills of facilitation, and learning and teaching approaches that will best develop knowledge, skills, dispositions and creativity, and opportunities for active learning and participation, among young people.
- Exploring the meaning of **assessment** for active citizenship, and supporting practitioners and young people to find ways of recognising achievements, especially in areas that prove difficult to evaluate: skills, dispositions, values and participation for example. It is important that the relative ease of examining knowledge of civics, and the 'factual' elements of citizenship education, does not detract from the important task of recognising young people's achievements in terms of skills development and active participation. This point reinforces the need for effective teacher training and development in all aspects of citizenship education and active citizenship.
- Considering whether practitioners and young people need guidance and direction in locating and using relevant **resources** for active citizenship (in countries which have access to a wide and diverse range of materials), or whether the free market should prevail. Additionally, where possible, attempts should be made by schools to maximise their use of local resources, including agencies offering services to the local community and young people themselves. If all stakeholders have some 'ownership' of citizenship education programmes, then there is a greater likelihood that the outcomes for young people will be positive and meaningful. Policy makers may need to consider the extent to which culture, tradition and bureaucracy are currently hindering such developments, and whether there are any interventions that can be made to improve the situation.
- Creating opportunities for the **inspection** or **evaluation** of active citizenship within inspection frameworks for citizenship education or civics. The Netherlands', where the National Inspectorate is currently developing instruments to enable the inspection of **active** citizenship specifically, may provide a useful model here. In addition, it is important that the findings of different countries' citizenship/civics inspections be used in a formative way, in order to inform the development of active citizenship practice internationally.
- Considering whether any continuity and progression is to be found between school-based citizenship programmes, and **post-compulsory** citizenship education. Clearly it would be impossible to draw links between school-based citizenship and all the current post-compulsory opportunities for young people, but it may be that continuity can be found between school citizenship and the more significant community education programmes which young people may be drawn to upon leaving school.

- Considering the connections between the development of active citizenship within a variety of learning contexts, notably curriculum, extra-curricular, school community and wider communities. This would help to develop a stronger sense of a lifelong learning perspective in citizenship education or active citizenship, and encourage a more 'joined up' or systematic approach to the development of citizenship education policy and practice.

6.3 Outcomes

Finally, there is the challenge of identifying and gaining agreement on the outcomes of an education for citizenship and active citizenship. Analysis of country responses, and discussion among delegates at the Oxford international seminar, underlines that, at present, the outcomes of an education for active citizenship that involves learning through an active process in a variety of contexts ('active citizenship') are more aspirational and visionary than grounded in the reality of practice. This is to be expected given that these are early days in the development and acceptance of the term 'active citizenship'. The majority of countries are still feeling their way in terms of policy orientation and the development of practice and have given limited consideration to the outcomes of such an education.

It should also be remembered that the varying cultural, political and educational traditions of different countries impact on their definition of, and approach to, citizenship education. In turn, this affects the desired and likely outcomes of citizenship education for young people in different countries. For example, in countries adopting a relatively holistic approach to citizenship education, the goal of active citizenship is often that young people will become critical, enquiring, engaged, questioning, reflective and even challenging in their understanding of society and through their actions, both within and outside school. In contrast, in countries such as Japan, Singapore and, to a certain extent, the USA, citizenship education seeks to encourage young people to be loyal to their country, to contribute to its future wellbeing, to be essentially compliant and to conform to the established order of things.

Some countries are beginning to give thought to the mechanisms and measures that need to be put in place in order to accumulate the evidence upon which to make an assessment as to how well the outcomes of active citizenship are being met. This is tricky and groundbreaking territory, especially given that the desired outcomes of active citizenship, if defined, vary considerably from country to country. It will take some time yet before there is a clear link

between the aspirations of active citizenship and assessment of how far those aspirations have been achieved in practice.

In conclusion, this second thematic study on citizenship education has underlined the fact that INCA countries are at very different stages in their development of education for citizenship, and that the concept of 'active citizenship' is not yet universally defined or understood. Hence, it is understandable that policy and practice related to it varies considerably, and that there is some way to go before active citizenship will be fully embedded across school curricula, school democratic structures, other education and training establishments and wider communities. It may be that, in some countries, this goal will never be fully realised, or that definitions of active citizenship will vary according to political and historical context, and will remain 'culturally specific.' To a certain extent, the study has raised more questions that it has been able to answer. However, it is clear that education for citizenship has moved on since the first thematic study was undertaken, and that there is increasingly some common definitional ground across countries (as demonstrated in Chapter 3), and more evidence of implementation than was the case in 1999 (Kerr, 1999). This, alongside some of the practical suggestions above for developing the practice of active citizenship, may help move countries towards a shared goal for, and practice of, active citizenship in the future.

7. Conclusions

It is clear from the conduct of this second thematic study that references to education for citizenship are more prominent within and across countries in 2006 than was the case during the first INCA thematic study of citizenship education in 1999. It is also apparent that a number of countries are beginning to think in terms of developing processes to make the study and practice of citizenship education more 'active'. There remains, however, considerable variation in the terminology used, and the policy and practice under development. As a consequence, there is no common agreement as to what active citizenship is and how it is best approached. This means that countries tend to have different definitions, starting points, motivations and goals for citizenship education, and by association, active citizenship. A key challenge to understanding approaches to active citizenship in policy and practice and recognising its outcomes is arriving at an accepted definition of what it comprises, and agreeing upon the nature of its relationship with citizenship education. For example, is it the same as citizenship education or an extension from it? All these issues make an evaluation of its development challenging.

That said, this INCA thematic study has gone some way towards developing a broad conceptual framework within which approaches to active citizenship can be viewed and understood (see Figures 1 and 2 and the discussion that surrounds them, in Chapter 3). It is hoped that countries will find these frameworks useful as a source for mapping their own provision, assessing their own perspectives, and reviewing the degree of emphasis placed upon, 'active citizenship'. Key points that need to be recognised in relation to the frameworks are that:

- they need to be viewed **flexibly**, in recognition of the fact that different countries have varied interpretations of an education for citizenship which, in turn, effects their notions of and approaches to active citizenship. It needs to be accepted that active citizenship is likely to remain a semi-culturally specific and contested concept, at least in the short term
- different countries will have different **points of entry** to active citizenship dependent upon their historical, cultural and educational traditions, so that:
  - some countries will aspire to, or will actually, sit close to the middle of the diagrams shown in Figures 1 and 2 (indicating a relatively holistic approach to the provision of citizenship education, and an attempt to make the learning process active)

  - other countries will be situated closer to the 'curriculum', 'extra curricular', 'school community' or 'wider community' points of Figure 2, depending upon the focus they place upon the different contexts for, and components of, citizenship education
- countries making few apparent links between the citizenship concepts, components and contexts outlined in Figures 1 and 2 seemingly provide fewer opportunities for active citizenship (or citizenship as an active practice) to flourish.

The study has also identified a number of practical implementation issues related to the successful development of citizenship as an active practice within and across countries. The issue of implementation is tricky, in that it suggests the existence of an overarching policy statement which can be turned into effective practice. In many countries there is little in the way of official policy related to active citizenship, whilst in others there has been a development of policy, but also a recognition of a well documented gap between that policy and the implementation of practice (Birzea, *et al*, 2004). However, in other countries (such as Japan and the Netherlands) there is what might be described as a 'reverse implementation gap' between a great deal of active citizenship activity at school level, yet a paucity of policy related to its broad aims and objectives.

Whatever the relationship between policy and practice, it would seem that key to the discussion about implementing active citizenship, or citizenship as an active practice, is the matter of **learning and teaching**. Evidence of the impact of different approaches to the learning and teaching of citizenship on outcomes for schools and young people is scant. However, it is clear that countries with more holistic approaches to citizenship education (as described in Chapter 3) provide scope for a wide range of learning and teaching approaches, from the interactive to the didactic, which some evidence (Craig, *et* al, 2004; Ireland, *et al*, 2006) suggests is more engaging and motivating for young people. It is clear that 'active citizenship' needs to be understood as much in terms of an **active approach to learning** (which encourages young people to be critical, enquiring and reflective) as that of young people's actual participation in school and community life. In this respect, it may extend well beyond the citizenship curriculum to wider contexts within and outside schools.

Linked to concerns about effective implementation is the issue of **teacher education**. Many countries still make little or no specific provision for the education of teachers in relation to citizenship education, often because the

organisations responsible for teacher education are separate to those responsible for curriculum development. Additionally, the very aspect of teacher education – that related to developing innovative pedagogical approaches and helping teachers to become more interactive in their teaching and facilitation – that could aid the development of an active approach to learning and teaching, is often that that which falls by the wayside in many countries. Evidence suggests that there is currently a bias towards knowledge-based aspects of citizenship learning in teacher education programmes, and indeed in the assessment of citizenship education programmes. This poses considerable challenges for the development of citizenship as an active practice, which encourages both a challenging learning environment within the classroom, and opportunities for young people to learn and participate in a range of wider contexts, both within and outside their schools.

Perhaps, above all, this second thematic study has underlined the timely nature of the focus on 'active citizenship', or citizenship as an active practice. This is a coming development in many countries and is also being picked up and explored by supra-national organisations such as the European Commission, Council of Europe and International Association for Educational Achievement (IEA). However, the study has shown that the concept and practice of active citizenship is often neither as active a practice in reality nor as easily defined in relation to citizenship as might be envisaged.

What is clear is that the development and promotion of active citizenship is still in its infancy. There is considerably more development work and conceptual underpinning that needs to take place in order that stronger foundations can be laid for embedding it in policy and practice and beginning to identify and measure its outcomes. This thematic study represents one such contribution to this underpinning. It is hoped that the outcomes will prove useful not only to those countries that participated but to all those with an interest in this area.

Above all, what is obvious from this second thematic study is how far the aims, policies and practices of citizenship education in INCA countries have evolved since the first study in 1999 and how the emphasis has shifted from policy development much more to the processes of implementing policy, developing effective practices and beginning to identify and measure outcomes. It would be fascinating to revisit developments in a few years time, perhaps through a third thematic study on citizenship education, to see how things have progressed and how far active citizenship has become a reality.

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Annexe A International Seminar, Oxford, England, 8-10 March 2006 - seminar programme

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

National Foundation for Educational Research

INCA International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks Internet Archive

QCA Invitational seminar

Active Citizenship

Randolph Hotel, Oxford, England 8-10 March 2006

The aim of this, the second INCA thematic seminar and study on citizenship education is two-fold:

- To provide an update on developments in citizenship education in the INCA countries since 1999.
- To reach a clearer understanding of what is meant by the term active citizenship in the INCA countries and of its implications in terms of policy, practice and research.

Organisation of the seminar

We hope that all delegates will play an active part in the seminar and contribute their ideas and views during the course of discussions. This will help to inform the final report of this study which will be prepared by NFER.

The seminar programme is divided into a number of key areas and issues:

- The context for this seminar and study
- The context and definitions of active citizenship education
- Developing practice, learning through participation and active citizenship education
- Skills and capabilities in active citizenship education
- Training teachers in education for active citizenship
- Resources for successful development of active citizenship education.

The programme has been developed from the responses to the questionnaires that have been completed by each country delegate. At the beginning of each session, the chair is asked to briefly introduce the key issue and questions and then to introduce each speaker.

Delegates from different countries are invited to speak or lead an activity that relates to the key issue and questions indicated in the programme and to include reflections on how the issue is being addressed in their own country. Presenters are asked to speak for 10-15 minutes maximum.

Chairs are responsible for keeping speakers to time and are also asked to facilitate some discussion and reflection time at the end of the session they are leading.

Wednesday 8 March 2006

18.30 Reception in the hotel

19.00 Welcome and introduction: Mick Waters, Director of Curriculum, Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

19.30 Dinner in the hotel

Thursday 9 March 2006

09.00 Welcome and introduction: Liz Craft, Adviser for Citizenship, Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

Session 1: The context for this seminar and study	
Chair: *David Kerr, NFER*	
Presenters	***Purpose***
09.15 David Kerr	Background and aims of the seminar • Where we've come from: the 1999 study • Where we've come from: the broad context for this study. Why active citizenship?
09.45 Julie Nelson	Where we're going to: • Introduction to the issues paper • Key questions for the seminar and plans for the final report

Coffee 10.15

Session 2: The context and definitions of active citizenship education	
Chair: *Liz Craft, QCA*	
Presenters	***Key issue and questions to explore***
10.35 Rick Battistoni, Providence College, USA 10.50 Lian Hui, Ministry of Education, Singapore 11.05 Christine Twine, LTS, Scotland 11.20 Discussion	• What meaning does active citizenship have? To what extent is it a focus in our country? • What is citizenship education and active citizenship and how is it defined? • Why should we promote active citizenship education?
12.00 LSDA young people's presentation	• Active citizenship DVD Young people from the post-16 citizenship development projects in England will present a DVD they have produced.

Lunch 13.00

Session 3: Developing practice - learning through participation and active citizenship education	
Chair: *Mark Lancett (ACCAC)*	
Presenters	**Key issue and questions to explore**
14.00 Peter Johnson, NCCA, Ireland 14.15 Jeroen Bron, SLO, Netherlands 14.30 Katalin Falus, OKI, Hungary 14.45 Discussion	• What are the different traditions and contexts (cultural, historical, political, educational) that underpin the development of active citizenship in different countries? How do these affect and explain its development? • Which learning contexts are necessary for young people to develop and practice citizenship and active citizenship (eg school based democratic governance; community based)? What are the challenges to developing these? • How can we assess and recognise achievement in citizenship and active citizenship? What are the challenges to recognising achievement?

15.45 *Tea*

Session 4: Skills and capabilities in active citizenship education	
Chairs: *John Lloyd (DfES) and Rob Pope (LSDA)*	
Group activity and discussions	**Key issue and questions to explore**
16.15	• What skills and capabilities should young people develop through active citizenship learning? • Are there common skills for citizenship and active citizenship across country contexts? • To what extent are active citizenship skills, qualities and dispositions assessable?

17.15 Summary and close for the day

19.00 *Dinner in Oxford - Malmaison*

Friday 10 March 2006

Session 5: Training teachers in education for active citizenship	
Chair: *Ian Davies, University of York*	
Presenters	**Key issue and questions to explore**
09.00 Mark Evans, University of Toronto, Canada 09.15 Clare McAuley CCEA, and Anne-Marie Poynor, Western Education and Library Board, Northern Ireland 09.30 Ian Davies, University of York, England 09.45 Discussion	• What skills and qualities do teachers of citizenship (existing and new) need to develop? • What forms of teacher education and what kinds of teaching methods need to be developed for citizenship and active citizenship? • What developments have there been in teacher training for active citizenship?

10.30 *Coffee*

Session 6: Resources for successful development of active citizenship education	
Chair: *Jan Campbell, QCA*	
Presenters	**Key issue and questions to explore**
10.45 Bruno Losito, University of Rome, Italy 11.00 Lynne Parmenter, Waseda University, Japan 11.15 Sandra Cubitt, Ministry of Education, New Zealand 11.30 Discussion	• What kinds of resources and support are necessary for the successful development of citizenship in schools, colleges and communities? • To what extent can new technologies/ new media be used to support the development of active citizenship? • How can we ensure all young people have the opportunities to develop the skills and capabilities to be active members of their communities?

12.30 *Final plenary* – reflections and learning points from the seminar; next steps and how this study will be reported and disseminated. (Julie Nelson and Liz Craft to lead)

13.00 *Lunch and close*

Annexe B International Seminar, Oxford, England, 8-10 March 2006 - delegate list

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

National Foundation for Educational Research

INCA International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks Internet Archive

QCA Invitational seminar

Active Citizenship

DELEGATE LIST

The Randolph Hotel, Oxford

8-10 March 2006

Delegate	Organisation	Email address
Mark Evans	Acting Associate Dean, Teacher Education Ontario Institute for Studies in Education University of Toronto 252 Bloor St. West Toronto, Ontario M5S 1V6 CANADA	mevans@oise.utoronto.ca
Biography: Mark is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning at OISE, University of Toronto. He teaches in both the initial teacher education and graduate programmes and has been involved in a variety of curriculum reform initiatives, locally and internationally (e.g. Toronto, Pakistan, Ottawa, EU). He has written and contributed to numerous articles, books, and learning resources in the areas of citizenship, social studies, and teacher education.		
Katalin Falus	Senior Researcher National Institute for Public Education (OKI) 1051 Budapest Dorottya u. 8 HUNGARY	FalusK@Oki.Hu
Bruno Losito	National Institute for the Evaluation of the Education System (INVALSI), Villa Falconieri, Via Borromini 5, I-00044 FRASCATI ITALY	Bruno.losito@invalis.it
Lynne Parmenter	Waseda University 1-104 Totsukamachi, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo, 169-8050, JAPAN	lynne@waseda.jp
Biography: Lynne is a professor in the Faculty of Letters, Arts and Sciences at Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. Her main research interest is citizenship education in Japan and beyond, with a particular focus on intercultural and global aspects of citizenship.		
Jeroen Bron	SLO Postbus 2041 7500 CA Enschede NETHERLANDS	j.bron@slo.nl
Sandra Cubitt	Senior Analyst, Social Science Ministry of Education P O Box 1666 Wellington NEW ZEALAND	Sandra.cubitt@minedu.govt.nz
Biography: Sandra is a Senior Policy Analyst in the Curriculum, Teaching and Learning Division within the Ministry of Education in New Zealand. She has taught in secondary schools, lectured in teacher education programmes, participated in curriculum development and led professional development projects. Prior to her current position, Sandra a reviewer in the Education Review Office.		
Anne-Marie Poynor	Citizenship Officer with the Western Education and Library Board NORTHERN IRELAND	Anne_Marie_Poynor@welbni.org

Delegate	Organisation	Email address
Clare McAuley	Principal Officer, Local and Global Citizenship CCEA Clarendon Dock 29 Clarendon Road Belfast BT1 3BG NORTHERN IRELAND	cmcauley@ccea.org.uk

Biography:

Clare is Assistant Principal Officer for Local and Global Citizenship with the Northern Ireland Council for the Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment (CCEA). She is involved in developing curriculum and assessment support materials for Key Stages 3 and 4 in preparation for the statutory implementation of this subject strand in September 2007 as part of the revised Northern Ireland curriculum. She is also involved in supporting and developing the CCEA Learning for Life and Work GCSE qualification of which citizenship is a component.

She sits on various Advisory Groups and Steering Committees including the International Committee on Conflict Resolution and Peace Education, the Northern Ireland Human Rights Commission Education Forum, the Cross-Boarder Education for Reconciliation Project and the Schools' Community Relations Implementation Panel.

Peter Johnson	Director, Curriculum and Assessment NCCA 24 Merrion Square Dublin 2 REPUBLIC OF IRELAND	Peter.johnson@ncca.ie

Biography:

Peter is a Director of Curriculum and Assessment with the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA). His main areas of responsibility are lower secondary review and the humanities subjects at post-primary level. He is also currently involved in the development of new curricular components as part of a major reform of upper secondary education taking place in the Republic of Ireland.

Christine Twine	Learning and Teaching Scotland The Optima 58 Robertson Street Glasgow G2 8DU SCOTLAND	c.twine@ltscotland.org.uk
Lian Hui	National Education Branch Planning Division Ministry of Education 1 North Buona Vista Drive SINGAPORE 138675	LIAN_hui@moe.gov.sg
Rosario Sanchez	Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia C/Alcala, n° 34 28014 Madrid SPAIN	rosario.sanchezn@mec.es

Biography:

Rosario is a state secondary English teacher who is currently working as a Technical Adviser in the General Secretariat of Education of the Ministry of Education and Science. She is a member of the Spanish Committee for the European Year of Citizenship through Education, and has contributed to documents relating to the new subject of Education for Citizenship produced for the new Education Bill.

Rosario is coordinator of the website for the European Year of Citizenship through Education Year and organised the seminar "European Year of Citizenship through Education" and the International Symposium organised in collaboration with UNESCO and Madrid University Carlos III "Education and Citizenship Values: Experiences and Contributions from Europe". She also coordinates collaboration for curriculum design for the new curriculum subject Education for Citizenship.

Delegate	Organisation	Email address
Rick Battistoni	Department of Political Science Providence College Howley Hall 316 Providence, RI 02918-0001 USA	rickbatt@providence.edu
Biography: Rick is Professor of Political Science at Providence College. For the past 15 years, Rick has been a leader in the field of community service-learning, especially as it relates to questions of citizenship education. From 2001-2004, Rick directed *Project 540*, a nationwide high school civic engagement initiative.		
Mark Lancett	PSE Consultant ACCAC Castle Buildings Womanby Street Cardiff CF10 1SX WALES	mark.lancett@ntlbusiness.com
John Annette	Birbeck College University of LONDON	j.annette@bbk.ac.uk
Ted Huddleston	Citizenship Foundation 63 Gee Street LONDON EC1V 3RS	ted.huddleston@cittizenshipfoundation.org.uk
Biography: Ted works at the Citizenship Foundation in London where, among other things, he oversees the political literacy programme and coordinates international work. Ted has worked in education in a number of different capacities - as classroom teacher, teacher educator, researcher and writer. In recent years, his main area of interest has been the development of citizenship education, both nationally and internationally – including policy development, teacher training and materials writing on education for democracy and human rights in the former Yugoslavia. He is the co-author of *Good Thinking: Education for Citizenship and Moral Responsibility* (2001); the author of *Changing Places: Young People and Community Action*, (2002) and *Citizens and Society: A Political Literacy Resource Pack* (2004); the editor of *Tool for Teacher Training for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education* (2005); and the co-author and co-editor of *Making Sense of Citizenship: A Continuing Professional Development Handbook* (2006).		
Peter Hayes	CSV Education for Citizenship 237 Pentonville Road LONDON N1 9NJ	phayes@csv.org.uk
Biography: Peter has been Director of CSV Education for Citizenship since 2001. He has written a number of resources for citizenship education, is a regular contributor to the education press, and is Treasurer of ACT. Peter was formerly a teacher and Head of Expressive Arts, Professional Officer for English at SCAA and a team inspector for OfSTED.		

Delegate	Organisation	Email address
John Lloyd	Citizenship Adviser DfES Sanctuary Buildings Area 4C Great Smith Street LONDON SW1P 3BT	John.lloyd@dfes.gsi.gov.uk
Biography: John is an Adviser for Citizenship Education at the DfES and formerly a senior adviser with responsibility for projects and equalities at Birmingham Advisory and Support Service. John was a member of the PSHE Advisory Group and Citizenship Working Party contributing to the development of both the PSHE Framework and statutory Citizenship curriculum in England. Author of *Democracy Then and Now*, *Blueprints Health Education* and co-editor of the *Health Promoting Primary School* along with other books and articles, he was Adviser to Channel 4 Schools All About Us Television series No Bullying Here and Karl's Story winning the Royal Television Society Gold Award. He has worked internationally on citizenship most recently presenting a paper at the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.		
Scott Harrison	HMI specialist adviser for Ofsted	Scott.Harrison@ofsted.gov.uk
Biography: Scott Harrison HMI is the specialist adviser for citizenship at Ofsted. He is responsible for Ofsted's inspection of citizenship in schools and for their publications. In the last year Ofsted has published twice on citizenship in secondary schools, and additionally on post-16 citizenship pilot projects and citizenship initial teacher training.		
Cherry White	TDA Strategy Directorate Portland House Bressenden Place LONDON SW1E 5TT	cherry.white@tda.gov.uk
Biography: Cherry was recently appointed Programme Leader in the Strategy Directorate of the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA). Responsibilities include international links, the ITT element of the Teach First programme and a number of R&D projects to support classroom and school practice.		
Ian Davies	Deputy of Education Studies University of York Heslington York YO10 5DD	id5@york.ac.uk
Biography: Ian is deputy director of citizED (see www.citized.info) through which he helps develop teacher education for citizenship education. He is based at the University of York and teaches and supervises work on citizenship education at undergraduate MA, MPhil and PhD levels. He is the author of numerous journal articles and books and has international experience in Taiwan, the USA, Canada, Russia, Japan, Europe and elsewhere.		
Bernadette Joslin	Learning and Skills Development Agency Regent Arcade House 19-25 Argyll Street LONDON W1F 7LS	bjoslin@lsda.org.uk

Delegate	Organisation	Email address
Rob Pope	Learning and Skills Development Agency Regent Arcade House 19-25 Argyll Street LONDON W1F 7LS	rpope@lsda.org.uk
Biography: Rob joined the Learning and Skills Development Agency (LSDA) in 2004 to take up the role of Development Adviser for post-16 citizenship. He has a long held interest in citizenship education, first as a sociology teacher and in a variety of roles within the Post-16 Citizenship Development Programme. Rob has extensive experience of teaching and management in post-16 education, coming to the LSDA from Richmond Upon Thames College where he was Head of Social Sciences. He has also been involved in teacher education as a course tutor and in adult education as a tutor in social sciences for the Open University.		
Helen Lim	Learning and Skills Development Agency Regent Arcade House 19-25 Argyll Street LONDON W1F 7LS	hlim@lsda.org.uk
Biography: Helen has worked on the Learning and Skills Development Agency's (LSDA's) Post-16 Citizenship Development Programme for three years. In her current post as Development Officer, and as a result of her commitment to citizenship education, Helen has recently undertaken teacher training. Helen is also an English Literature MPhil/PhD candidate at the University of Westminster.		
Rachel Marshall	Learning and Skills Development Agency Regent Arcade House 19-25 Argyll Street LONDON W1F 7LS	rmarshall@lsda.org.uk
Biography: Rachel is the administrator for the Post-16 Citizenship Development Programme at the LSDA. Rachel previously worked for Youthcomm as a full time youth worker and has been involved in a number of national citizenship events over the past three years. Rachel is committed to post-16 citizenship education and believes that it is vital that young people's views are taken seriously.		
Mick Waters	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority 83 Piccadilly LONDON W1J 8QA	watersm@qca.org.uk
Liz Craft	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority 83 Piccadilly LONDON W1J 8QA	crafte@qca.org.uk
Biography: Liz is Adviser for citizenship at the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. She has responsibility for the national curriculum for citizenship in England, assessment of citizenship and qualifications in Citizenship Studies. She has worked with practitioners to develop and produce materials to support citizenship teaching in schools including the Schemes of Work for Citizenship www.standards.DfES.gov.uk , materials to support assessment www.qca.org.uk/citizenship, and the 'Play your part' guidelines for developing citizenship post-16 www.qca.org.uk/citizenship/post16. Previously she was a manager for National Curriculum review in 2000, and the Project Manager for the *Advisory group on Citizenship Education and the teaching of democracy in schools* and the publication of the Crick report 1998. She is a member of various national steering groups for citizenship education and regularly contributes to conferences on citizenship education.		
David Pepper	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority 83 Piccadilly LONDON W1J 8QA	pepperd@qca.org.uk
Jan Campbell	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority 83 Piccadilly LONDON W1J 8QA	campbellj@qca.org.uk

Delegate	Organisation	Email address
Louise Wright	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority 83 Piccadilly LONDON W1J 8QA	wrightl@qca.org.uk
David Kerr	NFER The Mere Upton Park SLOUGH SL1 2DQ	d.kerr@nfer.ac.uk
Biography: David is Principal Research Officer at the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) and Visiting Professor in Citizenship at Birkbeck College, University of London. He was Professional Officer to the Citizenship Advisory Group chaired by Sir Bernard Crick. David is currently directing a nine-year Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study which began in 2001 and aims to assess the short and long-term effects of the new citizenship courses in schools on young people.		
Julie Nelson	NFER The Mere Upton Park SLOUGH SL1 2DQ	j.nelson@nfer.ac.uk
Biography: Julie is a Senior Research Officer at the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER), where she leads the nine-year Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, alongside David Kerr. Previously she led the national evaluation of the Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects in England, as well as a number of smaller-scale projects in the field of citizenship education. Julie has also undertaken work in the areas of work-related learning, social inclusion and key skills.		
Sharon O'Donnell	NFER The Mere Upton Park SLOUGH SL1 2DQ	s.odonnell@nfer.ac.uk
Biography: Sharon is a Principal Information Officer and Head of the Eurydice Unit for England, Wales and Northern Ireland which is based at the NFER. Eurydice is the information network on education in Europe. Sharon has worked on the INCA project since its inception in 1996 and has been INCA Project Leader at the NFER since 1999.		
Alex Brown	Alex attended Richmond Upon Thames College where he was involved in a citizenship project; next year he will study English and Film at Sussex University. Alex has been involved in a number of national citizenship events. Alex strongly believes that young people should have the space to debate about issues that affect them and that young people do take an interest in political issues.	
Chris Bradshaw	Chris is studying a BTEC National Diploma in Media Studies at Fareham College. Previously, Chris was part of a Citizenship project at Fareport Training Organisation; through this he was involved in the 'European Citizenship through video' competition in which their entry came joint first. Chris believes that young people's views and opinions should be heard and that if young people work together that they can make the greatest changes to the world today.	
Chrissy Faranda Bellofilio	Chrissy is studying Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Maths at A level at Aylesbury High School. She has been involved in many citizenship activities that have aimed to give young people the opportunity to discuss issues that they feel strongly about. Chrissy believes that being open minded, eager to listen and able to reflect on other people's views is a really important part of being an active citizen.	
Ena Mansah	Ena is studying English and Drama at Greenwich University. Ena has been involved in citizenship through music projects and continues to facilitate opportunities for young people to be involved in citizenship education. Ena values post-16 citizenship and feels it is essential for young people to have better knowledge of politics so they can create informed opinions.	

Annexe C Questionnaire relating to Active Citizenship - sent to INCA countries in Autumn 2005

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks (INCA) Internet Archive

Thematic Study: Active Citizenship

The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) in England is interested in the issue of active citizenship from an international perspective and has commissioned the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (NFER) to produce a thematic study on active citizenship in education across the countries of the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks (INCA) Internet Archive (www.inca.org.uk)[11]. The questionnaire which follows forms an essential part of the initial data collection for the study. We would therefore be very grateful for your response. For ease of completion, we have provided a sample answer to each question based on the situation in England. We would also recommend that you refer to the background paper provided before completing the questionnaire. We hope that this will help you decide how best to interpret and define the term 'active citizenship' in your responses.

We are also interested to obtain any supporting documentation, such as policy documents, frameworks, guidelines, or support materials for teachers or students. Online links to such documentation, where these exist, would be our preferred option for receipt.

We would be grateful if completed responses could be returned to Sharon O'Donnell (s.odonnell@nfer.ac.uk) by **7 October 2005**.

Your contact details:

Name:
Job title:
Organisation:
Country/state:
Email address:

[11] Australia, Canada, England, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Singapore, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the USA and Wales.

Active Citizenship: Thematic Study Questionnaire

1. How is citizenship defined in education policy? Is *active* citizenship or a similar concept defined? (Please refer to Section 1 of the background paper)
2. Where is *active* citizenship included in national educational policy documentation (eg in documentation on national aims, in curriculum, assessment, qualifications, inspection, or teacher training documents etc)? If active citizenship is not included, please indicate this in your response, and provide information on citizenship education generally.
3. How is active citizenship taught and assessed through the school curriculum?
4. How is active citizenship taught and assessed through qualifications?
5. What materials and resources (eg textbooks, TV programmes, websites) promote active citizenship? Who are these produced by and targeted at?
6. How are teachers trained to teach active citizenship? Who is responsible for this?
7. How and by whom is active citizenship in schools inspected and evaluated?
8. In what types of non-school learning settings, such as work-based training, the youth and community sector, or adult education, does active citizenship learning occur? What types of training in active citizenship are available for those involved in such settings (eg. school or youth leaders, young people, parents, or community leaders)?
9. What other areas of national policy include a specific focus on active citizenship (eg home affairs, environmental or sustainable development policies)?

We would appreciate your responses to any or all of the above questions. In addition references to publications in the area of active citizenship or useful web links would also be gratefully received. Information received in response to the above questions will contribute to the formulation of an 'issues paper' on active citizenship which will provide the focus for presentations and discussions at an international seminar to be held in the United Kingdom in March 2006.