A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling

Review conducted by the Citizenship Education Research Strategy Group
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This review was carried out with funding from the CitizEd project of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) and the Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Co-ordinating Centre (EPPI-Centre). We would also like to acknowledge the support of the University of East London in the time made available for Susan Ritchie to work on this review. A potential conflict of interest is declared by two of the authors of the review, since they are authors of studies that meet the review's inclusion criteria. Steps taken to address this are outlined in Chapter 5.


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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUMMARY</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aims of the review</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review questions</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. BACKGROUND</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Aims and rationale for current review</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Definitional and conceptual issues</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Policy and practice background</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Research background</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Authors, sponsors and other users of the review</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Review questions</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. METHODS USED IN THE REVIEW</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 User involvement</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Identifying and describing studies</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 In-depth review</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. IDENTIFYING AND DESCRIBING STUDIES: RESULTS</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Studies included from searching and screening</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Characteristics of the included studies</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Identifying and describing studies: quality assurance results</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. IN-DEPTH REVIEW: RESULTS</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Further details of studies included in the in-depth review</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Synthesis of findings</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Key issues emerging from the studies</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 In-depth review: quality assurance results</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 Nature of actual involvement of users in the review and its impact</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Summary of principal findings</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Strengths and limitations of this systematic review</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Implications</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. REFERENCES</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 Studies included in map and synthesis</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Other references used in the text of the report</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 List of excluded references</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 1.1: Members of the Citizenship Education Research Strategy Group</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 2.1: Search strategies for electronic databases</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 2.2: Journals handsearched</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUMMARY

Background

The concepts of citizenship education used in this review are drawn from the definition of citizenship education provided by Crick et al. (1998) and the policy framework for Citizenship Education in England, which became enshrined in National Curriculum documentation in 2000. The policy framework identifies three broad educational aims for citizenship: the moral and social development of students; political literacy; and community involvement. The framework focuses on the development of particular skills, attitudes and values across the whole of the curriculum. Research evidence to date suggests that there is a gap in professional knowledge about the implementation of Citizenship Education and its relationship with the core tasks of schooling – that is, learning and achievement – as well as with the processes and structures of schools as learning communities. This gap provided a rationale for a review of citizenship education at this time as did current interest in Citizenship Education in England, and indeed, in the four nations of the UK, where approaches differ. It was intended, however, that the review would also draw widely upon international research and that its key findings would be generally relevant.

Aims of the review

The aims of the review were to identify empirical evidence that can inform the manner in which citizenship education is implemented in schools, particularly in relation to curriculum content, pedagogy, leadership and management, school ethos and community relations. The implications of this were considered by the Review Group to be critical for informing policy and practice in teacher education.

Review questions

The main review question was:

**What is the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling?**

Where provision of schooling is made up of:

- learning and teaching
- school context and ethos
- leadership and management
- curriculum construction and development
- external relations and community

In order to achieve all of the aims of the review, an additional question was asked of the review’s findings:

**What are the implications of the findings of the review for teacher education?**
Summary

Methods

The search strategy led to 301 studies being found by electronic database searches. Further studies were found by other sources, for example, by handsearching journals. One set of inclusion and exclusion criteria was used for this review. These criteria were systematically applied to studies found by database searches and to studies identified by handsearching a large number of journals. Reviewers were over-inclusive at the initial screening. Review-specific and general keywords were then applied to all studies thought to meet the inclusion and exclusion criteria and each study was checked again against the criteria. A total of 14 studies ultimately met the criteria and were included in the in-depth review.

Results

The 14 studies selected for the in-depth review represented a range of study types and addressed the whole range of types of citizenship education and aspects of school provision. The studies also addressed a full range of curriculum subjects and phases of education.

In order to report findings relevant to these questions, the studies were grouped according to their relevance to the following six themes:

- learning and teaching
- curriculum construction and development
- school ethos and context
- leadership and management
- external relations and community
- teacher learning, knowledge and practice

The combined findings relating to these themes, were as follows:

- The quality of dialogue and discourse is central to learning in citizenship education.
- Dialogue and discourse are connected with learning about shared values, human rights, and issues of justice and equality.
- A facilitative, conversational pedagogy may challenge existing power/authority structures.
- Transformative, dialogical and participatory pedagogies complement and sustain achievement rather than divert attention from it.
- Such pedagogies require a quality of teacher-pupil relationships that is inclusive and respectful.
- Students should be empowered to voice their views and to name and make meaning from their life experiences.
- Contextual knowledge and problem-based thinking can lead to (citizenship) engagement and action.
- Engagement of students in citizenship education requires educational experiences that are challenging, attainable and relevant to students’ lives and narratives.
- Opportunities should be made for students to engage with values issues embedded in all curriculum subjects and experiences.
A coherent whole-school strategy, including a community-owned values framework, is a key part of leadership for citizenship education.

Participative and democratic processes in school leadership require particular attitudes and skills on the part of teachers and students.

Listening to the voice of the student leads to positive relationships, an atmosphere of trust and increased participation. It may require many teachers to ‘let go of control’.

Teachers require support to develop appropriate professional skills to engage in discourse and dialogue to facilitate citizenship education.

Strategies for consensual change have to be identified by, and developed in, educational leaders.

Schools often restrict participation by students in shaping institutional practices but expect them to adhere to policies and this can be counterproductive to the core messages of citizenship education.

**Conclusions**

The evidence gathered by this review process makes a significant contribution to knowledge about the implementation of citizenship education, for policy, practice and research.

**Implications for policy**

1. The implications of the review for policy are significant for teacher education and professional learning. This learning has to do with three main facets of professional education:
   (i) the development of a set of values consistent with a vision for citizenship education
   (ii) the development of a body of knowledge relevant for being an educator in contemporary society – knowledge concerned with ethical understanding and processes of social change
   (iii) the development of professional skills around a pedagogy for citizenship education, including an awareness of educational policies and practices which support inclusion and the involvement of every child in the learning process.

   These three themes are inter-related.

2. Genuine participation in the learning process by teachers and students requires school-based decision-making and this is likely to lead to local differences, requiring a policy that encourages diversity rather than uniformity.

3. Citizenship education requires teachers to use and trust their own professional judgement, working within a culture of professional responsibility rather than only within a culture of technical accountability.

**Implications for practice**

- Citizenship education should be an intrinsic part of whole-school development planning and citizenship education should be an integral part of the core task of schooling.
- Citizenship education requires a focus on higher order critical and creative thinking skills and the processes of learning itself, including the quality of relationships and dialogue.
• The structures of the curriculum, together with its assessment requirements, should support and enhance a **learner-centred approach** which honours student voices; develops positive interpersonal relationships; stimulates higher order thinking; and caters for individual differences.

**Implications for research**

• There is a significant gap in the body of available empirical research that addresses the **implementation of citizenship education** at a school level.
• Making decisions about the quality of research in citizenship education is problematic and there is a **need for greater rigour and awareness relating to matters of quality and value**.
1. BACKGROUND

This chapter introduces the concepts of citizenship education as they are used in this review. It locates the review question in its current socio-political context of England before drawing upon and explaining the definition of citizenship education used by the Crick (1998) report in England. The provision in schooling and through teaching and learning for implicit Citizenship Education has long been established in the life of the school, across the curriculum and in extra-curricular activities. However, the recent statutory obligation of schools in England to provide explicit citizenship education offers a new and specific focus. Yet, given this changed context, research evidence to date suggests that there is a gap in professional knowledge about the implementation of Citizenship Education and its relationship with the core tasks of schooling – that is learning and achievement – as well as with the processes and structures of schools as learning communities. This gap provided a rationale for a review of citizenship education at this time, as did the current interest in Citizenship Education in England, and indeed, in the four nations of the UK, where approaches differ. It was intended however, that the review would also draw widely upon international research and that its key findings would be generally relevant.

1.1 Aims and rationale for current review

Citizenship education became a statutory requirement for secondary schools in England from September 2002 and a recommended subject for primary schools. The history of the development of this policy initiative spans the 1990s and has been informed by the requirements of the 1992 Education Act which required the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) to report on the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development of pupils in schools; by significant developments in Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE); and by a range of other initiatives which addressed the personal and social aspects of student development, including the National Forum for Values in Education and the Community. All these initiatives have been informed by growing societal concerns about values and the personal development of young people. Many of the providers of resources for citizenship education are in the voluntary sector and within government departments. Since citizenship education per se is a new area of experience for pupils in schools, there has, to date, been very little sustained empirical research on the implementation of citizenship education that can inform the development of explicit citizenship education. The function of this review was to explore and examine the available empirical evidence relating to the broader complementary context of implicit citizenship education. It is hoped that this review has a contribution to make in relation to the development and implementation of citizenship education, particularly in relation to curriculum content, pedagogy, leadership and management, school ethos and community relations.

1 The term 'citizenship education' is used in this document with lower case initial letters to refer to the broadest use of education for citizenship, i.e. education for personal, moral, social, cultural and spiritual development in all aspects of school life and learning, and with upper case initial letters (Citizenship Education) to refer to that element of the formal curriculum.
1.2 Definitional and conceptual issues

The conceptual framework that has been adopted for this review is drawn from Crick (1998). This framework has been selected because it was itself the outcome of considerable expert research, development and consultation, drawing on a wide range of processes, which together were referred to at the time as forming ‘preparation for adult life’ initiatives. It is also a framework that defines the scope of citizenship education in England and, although its terminology is contested, it is ‘maximal’ in its scope and provides a broad pragmatic framework around which to focus the study.

The key elements of the Crick framework are as follows.

**Moral and social development**

The report describes this aspect of education as near the heart of citizenship education and includes the development of moral values and personal development which takes place for students in a wide range of contexts and in many different ways.

**Community involvement**

This is described as learning about, and becoming helpfully involved in, the life of the community, and in service to the community. The community includes, firstly, the school, and then the wider local and national communities of which students are a part.

**Political literacy**

This concerns learning about, and how to become effective in, public and community life through knowledge, skills values and attitudes that support active engagement.

In addition to this, the National Curriculum sets out what schools are required to teach under these headings, and the expectation is that students will:

- have knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens
- develop skills of enquiry and communication
- develop skills of participation and responsible action

1.3 Policy and practice background

Within England, and to some extent the four nations of the UK, the Crick Report (1998) provides the current framework for citizenship education. McLaughlin (1992; 2001) characterised Crick’s approach as a ‘maximal’ in its breadth and scope. However, it is not uncontroversial in its definitions and its scope. Davies (1999; 2000), for example, has identified nearly 300 definitions of citizenship education; Crick has been criticised in its most basic terms and as being in itself undemocratic. Most research subsequently has investigated terminology and definitions of citizenship in the National Curriculum (Flew, 2000; Heater, 1999; Lawton et al., 2000; Scott, 2000).

Crick et al. (1998) define citizenship education as including three distinct strands: moral and social responsibility; community involvement; and political literacy. The programmes of study for the National Curriculum for Citizenship appear to focus more on political literacy, but many of the outcomes are in the domain of personal development, such as developing the skills of enquiry and communication or...
developing skills of participation and community action (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), 1999). Citizenship is linked in these documents to whole school ethos and organisation, to values education and to the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development of pupils. Whilst much discretion is left to individual schools, it is clearly expected that citizenship education will appear in discrete curriculum time, across the whole curriculum and in extra curricular activities, and be related to the school’s particular vision and values. There is little discussion about pedagogy or assessment.

1.4 Research background

Kerr (1999a; 1999b; 2002; 2003) reveals a number of common sets of issues and challenges which are facing education systems worldwide and which have led to the contemporary focus on citizenship education and its related themes. Although these themes are often disparate, they have in common a focus on schooling outcomes other than traditional achievement outcomes. Thus the domain of citizenship education includes all of those planned interventions in schooling which have as their purpose a personal or social outcome, rather than only a focus on academic or vocational qualifications.

In a British Educational Research Association (BERA) Professional User Research Review, Gearon (2003), argues that research into explicit citizenship education in the UK is 'as new as its post-Crick and post-National Curriculum context' (op. cit., p 1). However, within disparate areas such as values education, character education and PSHE, there is a considerable amount of research which is relevant since these areas are being drawn in under the newer remit of citizenship education. He refers also to ‘implicit citizenship education which has antecedents from the 1970s onwards in relatively marginal initiatives, such as peace education, global studies, human rights education and political education’ (ibid, p 5).

The most prominent review of research during this transitional phase was the review of values-based research by Halstead and Taylor (2000) which linked citizenship to values education. It focused on five key research areas and several teaching and learning related questions in respect of which the summaries of research were related: social background research; the development of values through the life of the school; theoretical frameworks and strategies; curriculum and teaching methods; and assessment and evaluation of the development of pupils’ values.

Gearon’s (2003) review identifies the following four key messages for citizenship research:

- Citizenship education in national and international contexts is a response to macro-level changes in the nature of social and cultural, political and economic systems.
- Shifting historical circumstances – social and cultural, political and economic – alter both definitions of, and research agendas for, citizenship education.
- The citizenship education research agenda in England has been dominated by responses to the Crick Report and the introduction of National Curriculum Citizenship.
- In addition to the developing body of research on ‘explicit’ citizenship, educators and policy-makers can usefully draw upon research in areas of ‘implicit’ citizenship (for example, in the context of values education/ PSHE) which were in existence prior to the introduction of Citizenship Education in the National
Curriculum, especially where strong and self-evident links do exist, such as in spiritual, moral, social and cultural development, and involvement in community life.

In a review of how teacher educators were approaching citizenship, McGettrick (2002) identified the following three broad approaches:

- a transmission approach, which focuses on the knowledge content of citizenship education. It is instructional in style, predictable in intent and focused in its methodologies, and inflexible in programme design
- a process approach, which focuses mainly on the context of schooling and the ways in which schooling is organised – developmental in style, unpredictable in intent, varied in methodologies and flexible in programme design
- a transformational professional approach, which is concerned with the re-professionalisation of teachers as facilitators of learning and focused on learning as a process for transforming society – based on the teacher as a primary agent of social change, developed in a community context, adaptable to widely changing circumstances, and flexible in programme design

These three broad approaches are indicative of the diversity with which citizenship education is currently being addressed by teacher educators and by schools themselves. In order to adopt any approach to citizenship education, at school or initial teacher training (ITT) level, it is critical to have an informed view of the scope of education for citizenship in relation to content, pedagogy, leadership and management, ethos and external relations. Views of politicians and lobbyists are not sufficient; educators necessarily respond from a different perspective, which is that of the informed practitioner whose central task has to do with learning within a particular community. There has been very little serious research that has addressed models of practice for citizenship education at a school-based level, and very little attempt to integrate notions of citizenship education into broader educational philosophies and practices.

From an educational perspective, there are a number of crucial issues that need to be addressed in relation to citizenship education, as follows:

- understanding how citizenship education is related to the processes and structures of schooling
- understanding the links between citizenship education and personal development, including spiritual, moral, social and cultural development
- understanding the relationship between citizenship education and (lifelong) learning
- understanding the relationship between citizenship education and learning outcomes

The first of these forms the focus of this review question, which is about exploring the impact of citizenship education on the manner in which schools are structured and the ways in which they make provision for student learning. The second, third and fourth focus on specific processes and outcomes of schooling which are particularly relevant to citizenship education.

Whilst ‘citizenship’ is a term that has recently entered educational discourse in England, through legislation, the ambit of citizenship education embraces much of what professional educators already hold to be important, although the language in use may differ. This Review Group was concerned that the research should not be
narrowly focused on the current English experience of citizenship education, but should include an international dimension on policy, provision and practice which would significantly strengthen the review through exploring generic and specific issues relating to citizenship education from other cultures and national educational contexts. Thus it was important that search terms picked up alternative words and descriptors in use in the field.

This review makes a contribution to addressing these questions by drawing together evidence of how schools make provision for citizenship education and the impact of that on the processes and structures of schooling. Alexander (1992) proposed a framework for analysing school practice, which includes observable factors: the context or the ethos of the school, the pedagogic process (i.e. learning and teaching), the content of the curriculum, leadership and management and external relations. This provided a framework for analysing provision: that is, those structures and practices in which schools engage to support their aims and purposes. In this review, citizenship education was understood as all the planned curriculum provision that professional educators construct for their students in order to develop as active and informed citizens. This provision may be formal or informal, extra-curricular, cross-curricular or within particular curriculum strands, including the provision for pastoral and personal development of students. These intentional practices may thus relate not only to subject content, but also to relationships for learning and principles (such as equality, fairness) underlying policies, and teaching and learning practices. They thus relate to both pedagogy, and school ethos and culture. This review aimed to begin to identify the effect of citizenship education on key aspects of school policies, including learning and teaching, leadership and management, curriculum, personal development and community relationships. It also aimed to begin to identify the conceptual frameworks that inform those practices, and how curricula differ from setting to setting and over time. It did not address questions of impact or effectiveness in terms of student outcomes.

1.5 Authors, sponsors and other users of the review

The review question has emerged from a perceived need which has been made more urgent by the statutory requirement for higher education institutions to train teachers as teachers of Citizenship Education, alongside students who are training to be teachers of traditional subjects (Teacher Training Agency (TTA), 2004). One of the contributors to the review is the CitizEd project, a network of all higher education providers of ITT in citizenship education in England and funded by the TTA (http://www.citized.info/). The experience of this group is that there is a significant gap in professional understanding of what citizenship education actually is; what the subject knowledge might be; what the links with learning and schooling generally are; how citizenship education is best implemented in practice; and its implications for school leadership and management. Such a gap in knowledge requires the development of a substantial research base and dissemination network. The Citizenship Education Research Strategy Group (CERSG) was set up in response to this need. The steering committee of the CitizEd Project are members of the CERSG, which also includes a strong representation of policy-makers and non-government organisations which are providers of resources for citizenship education, as well as the newly formed Professional Association of Citizenship Teachers. The reviewers include researchers and teacher educators, who between them have significant experience of school and wider educational leadership and management.
1.6 Review questions

The overall question to be addressed in the review is:  
*What is the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling?*

The provision of schooling is understood to mean those structures and processes that constitute the school as a learning organisation (Alexander, 1992), specifically:

- learning and teaching
- school context and ethos
- leadership and management
- curriculum construction and development
- external relations and community

In order to achieve all the aims of the review, it will be necessary to address the further question:  
*What are the implications of the findings of the review for teacher education?*

The term ‘impact’ is used in this review question with care. It could imply a linear, cause-effect relationship between citizenship education and the provision of schooling. However, the CERSG was concerned that such a narrow definition might not do justice to the complexity of the two variables, and the iterative relationship between them. Thus the review will be concerned with the nature of the relationship between the two variables and impact in either direction.
2. METHODS USED IN THE REVIEW

This chapter gives details of the systematic methodology used for the review. It describes the role of the Review Group and user involvement in the review process. It describes in detail the search methodologies, the location of the screening process, the keywording methods, the process of data-extraction, and the quality assurance process. It gives an overview of the in-depth review, the data-extraction process, and the synthesis of findings.

2.1 User involvement

2.1.1 Approach and rationale

Citizenship education is a complex variable, as is its relationship to practice. Whilst there are many studies which address the theoretical and political aspects of citizenship education and studies which address teacher or student perspectives on citizenship education or student outcomes, far less research has been undertaken into the actual implementation of citizenship education. Furthermore, in England, Citizenship has become a subject in its own right in teacher education, thus requiring a significant educational rationale and an understanding of how citizenship education relates to other aspects of school provision. For this reason, user involvement in the review is critical.

2.1.2 Consultation processes

The CERSG included 10 teacher educators with particular responsibility for citizenship education, two local education authority advisors and one schoolteacher with responsibility for citizenship education. These members of the Review Group contributed specifically to the ‘usability’ of the review question and processes, through attendance at a series of Review Group meetings, responding to draft documents by email, and through participation in the consultation process.

A wider teacher educator network, representing 17 higher education institutions engaged in educating citizenship teachers, was consulted on the process of the review from the beginning. This involved the presentation of the review question and process at a conference of 35 citizenship teachers and teacher educators in December 2002, inclusion of the developing protocol in the CitizEd newsletter and a specific consultation site on the CitizEd website with invitation for comments and critique. In March 2002, a near final version of the protocol was emailed to the complete mailing list of the ITT CitizEd group (over 200 people) as part of the consultation process.

In addition, the initial findings of the review were presented to an invited audience of practitioners, of both teacher education and school education, in September 2003. The group discussed the validity of the findings, and then considered the implications of the findings for policy, practice and research. It is also intended to produce a ‘teacher friendly’ version of the findings in booklet form for wider dissemination.
2. Methods used in the review

2.2 Identifying and describing studies

As noted earlier, explicit Citizenship Education as a discrete subject in the curriculum is recent in English schools and other contexts worldwide. It was not the aim of this review to focus solely on research into the explicit implementation of Citizenship Education, as in the National Curriculum, or to focus solely on evaluations of specific programmes. Neither did the review have as an objective reviewing research into the civic knowledge or attitudes of learners, or learning outcomes, although some studies exist, such as the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Survey (Torney-Purta, et al., 2001) and, specifically the study of 14 year-olds in England (Kerr et al., 2001; 2002).

There are aspects of what is currently being defined under the umbrella of ‘citizenship education’ which have been practised in schools for many years: for example, service learning in the US, or moral development as part of PSHE in England. These contribute implicitly to citizenship education. The main focus of this review of research was on the broadest possible interpretation of citizenship education, which would include, but not be limited by, explicit Citizenship Education as a discrete timetabled subject in a school. That is, it aimed to include both implicit and explicit citizenship education, though the timing of the review was too early to pick up studies relating to the National Curriculum for Citizenship Education in England.

It was the impact of this broad interpretation of citizenship education on the provision of schooling, including teaching and learning that formed the core of the study. Thus the findings can be said to be relevant to all school leaders and teachers reviewing their provision and practices for citizenship education. The findings should be considered to offer a partial and limited contribution to the research base about the implementation of Citizenship Education in England.

Moreover, just as research usually lags behind school change and implementation of policy, as in respect of Citizenship Education, so, inevitably, do reviews of research. Nevertheless the findings of this review should inform both the implementation of Citizenship Education in school provision and pedagogy and, importantly, how a policy for Citizenship Education is embedded in whole-school practices.

2.2.1 Defining relevant studies: inclusion and exclusion criteria

Studies were assessed according to the following inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Language of report
Studies were included if they were written in English.

Type of citizenship education
Studies were included if they reported on a type of citizenship education. As noted in the background to this review, citizenship education includes a range of important types of curricular interventions, including personal development and spiritual, moral, social and cultural development, political literacy, community involvement and other terms in use, such as service learning or character education. Studies were included if they addressed any one, or any combination, of these types of citizenship education as a specific focus of research.
2. Methods used in the review

Aspect of school provision
Studies were included if they reported on an aspect of the provision of schooling. As noted in the background to this review, the provision of schooling was divided into five aspects: learning and teaching; school ethos and context; leadership and management; external relations; curriculum construction and development.

Type of study and study design
Studies were included if they were empirical in nature. They could be descriptive studies that reported on any aspect of citizenship education and any aspect of the provision of schooling (descriptive studies); or studies which explored the relationship between an aspect of citizenship education and an aspect of the provision of schooling, including teaching and learning (exploration of relationships); or studies that were evaluations of naturally-occurring or researcher-manipulated interventions which were citizenship education interventions which had an impact on, or a relationship with, an aspect of provision of schooling (evaluations); or development of methodologies relating to citizenship education and the provision of schooling. Reviews of the literature on citizenship education were not considered to be appropriate for data-extraction but formed a useful background reference for the review.

Setting and population
Studies were included if they reported on pupils in school or pre-school, between the ages of 4 and 18. Studies dealing only with students outside this age range, in further or higher education or adult education, were excluded.

Date of research
Since the review relates to the impact of citizenship education, it was likely that most relevant studies would be those reported in 1988 or later; that is, since the beginning of the period of major policy changes with regard to citizenship and preparation for adult life in the UK. Thus studies were only included if they reported on research conducted from 1988 onwards.

Table 2.1 indicates the criteria that were applied initially to exclude studies.

Table 2.1: Inclusion and exclusion criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label codes inclusion and exclusion criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exclude because:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. not citizenship education and provision of schooling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. not schools (pupils aged 4 to 18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. conducted pre-1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. not in English language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. not empirical research (unlike the above codes, this code was not applied to titles or abstracts but only when the study was available in full text)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.2 Identification of potential studies: search strategy

Reports were identified in the following ways/from the following sources:

(i) bibliographic databases
   − Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC)
   − British Education Index (BEI)
(ii) web-based information gateways
   – Social Science Information Gateway (Sosig)
   – Belief, Culture and Learning Information Gateway (BeCaL)
(iii) specialist registers (research registers of the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER), the Scottish Council for Research in Education (SCRE))
(iv) search of journal publisher’s web pages and handsearching of key journals (see Appendix 2.2)
(v) personal contacts
(vi) scanning the reference lists of already identified reports
(vii) direct requests to educational research institutions and association members
   – Association for Educational Assessment - Europe (AEA Europe)
   – Association of Assessment Inspectors and Advisers (AAIA)
   – NFER
   – QCA

Search terms for searching bibliographic databases included the following sets in combination (full details of the exact terms used and dates of searches are presented in Appendix 2.1):

- terms to indicate that a study is about citizenship education
- terms to indicate that a study involves pupils aged from 4 to 18
- terms to indicate that a study concerns an aspect of the provision of schooling
- terms to indicate that a report relates to a research study

Searches were made of the contents lists and abstracts of journals, which are the key and leading publications for studies in the area of citizenship education. A list of these journals is recorded in Appendix 2.2.

2.2.3 Screening studies: applying inclusion and exclusion criteria

As illustrated in Figure 3.1, searches of electronic databases produced a range of items that were downloaded into an Endnote database (DB1). The inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied to abstracts where those were available, otherwise to titles. Those reports that appeared to meet the criteria were entered into Database Two (DB2). Parallel to this, journals and other sources of studies were handsearched; both printed and electronic versions of journals were available. Because abstracts, and in many cases the full text, were available at this handsearching stage, handsearched reports that appeared to meet the criteria were entered straight into DB2. Where the information required for applying the inclusion criteria was not detailed in a report or abstract, reviewers were over-inclusive and entered the report into DB2. The full text of all the reports reaching DB2 were obtained. The same inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied to the full texts and those meeting the criteria were coded as is described in the next section.

2.2.4 Characterising included studies

Studies which met the inclusion criteria were coded using keywords devised to be generic for educational research as a whole: for example, relating to subject areas, population, setting – see Appendix 2.3 (EPPI-Centre, 2003a). The following two sets of review-specific keywords were developed by the review team: one relating to citizenship education and one to school provision (Table 2.2). Both sets were
applied to all studies thought to meet the inclusion criteria. The definitions of these keywords are included in Appendix 2.4.

Table 2.2: Review-specific keywords

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Citizenship Education</th>
<th>School provision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral and social responsibility</td>
<td>Learning and teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community involvement</td>
<td>Curriculum construction and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political literacy</td>
<td>School ethos and context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual moral social and cultural development</td>
<td>External relations and community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education for diversity</td>
<td>Leadership and management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and social literacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer mediation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.5 Identifying and describing studies: quality assurance process

The review team and the EPPI-Centre link team collaborated on quality assurance throughout the review process. At each stage of screening, inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied by two members of the review team. A total of 33 abstracts from DB2 were screened independently by a member of the EPPI-Centre and details of difficulties with this process were fed back to the Review Group. Keywording was carried out independently by two members of the Review Group and the EPPI-Centre link team conducted independent keywording on a total of 10 papers.

2.3 In-depth review

2.3.1 Moving from broad characterisation (mapping) to the in-depth review

This review used only one set of inclusion criteria and all studies meeting these criteria were reviewed in depth. Many of the reviews produced in collaboration with the EPPI-Centre have used a two-stage approach to characterise a broad range of research before proceeding to examine a narrower range of studies in depth.

2.3.2 Detailed description of studies in the in-depth review

The 14 studies identified as meeting the inclusion criteria were analysed in depth, using guidelines for coding and quality assessing educational research (EPPI-Centre, 2003b) and EPPI-Reviewer®, the EPPI-Centre’s reviewing software.
Appendix 2.5 gives an outline description by identification of study, country of study, focus of topic, curriculum area, type of study, type of citizenship education and aspect of provision of schooling. A detailed description of the studies included in the final review is included in Appendix 4.1.

2.3.3 Assessing quality of studies and weight of evidence for the review question

Three components were identified to help in making explicit the process of apportioning different weights to the findings and conclusions of different studies. Such weights of evidence were based on the following:

(A) the soundness of studies (internal methodological coherence), based upon the study only
(B) the appropriateness of the research design and analysis used for answering the review question
(C) the relevance of the study topic focus (from the sample, measures, scenario, or other indicator of the focus of the study) to the review question
(D) an overall weight taking into account (A), (B) and (C)

Following the data-extraction process, each component was judged independently by two Review Group members to be of high, medium or low weight. The reviewers then compared weightings and, if necessary, discussed the reasons for their judgements and came to an agreement about the weighting to be assigned.

In making the overall weight of judgement, the relevance of the study topic focus (C) was considered to be the most important, moderated by the judgement of the soundness of the study (A). The appropriateness of the research design (B) was considered to be least important.

The data were then synthesised to bring together the studies which answer the review question and which met the quality criteria relating to appropriateness and methodology.

2.3.4 Synthesis of evidence

The nature of the review question and the structure for keywording classification provided the framework for the synthesis of evidence. It was clear from cross-referencing review-specific keywords (see Table 4.1) that there were studies providing evidence across the range of types of citizenship education and the range of aspects of provision of schooling. The purpose of the review was to provide evidence for practitioners, policy-makers and researchers that is useful in relation to how schooling is provided. Thus the findings were synthesised, using the aspects of provision of schooling. In order to address the review sub-question, a further category was added to this list: entitled teacher learning, knowledge and practice.

2.3.5 In-depth review: quality assurance process

Data-extraction and assessment of the weight of evidence brought by the study to address the review question was conducted by pairs of Review Group members who worked first independently, then moderated their decisions and came to a consensus. Members of the EPPI-Centre team worked with the Review Group in moderating data-extraction and assessment of weight of evidence on 20 percent of the studies.
This chapter provides details of the numbers of studies identified from the beginning of the searching process to the selection of the 14 studies which constitute both the systematic map and the studies which were used for data-extraction and synthesis. It also describes some of the general characteristics of those studies in relation to the review question and describes the quality-assurance process.

3.1 Studies included from searching and screening

Figure 3.1 summarises the number of studies at each stage of the review. Three hundred and one studies were identified as relevant from the searching of electronic databases and entered into an Endnote database (Database One). A further 63 were identified from handsearching of journals. Handsearching of journals, whether online or offline, enabled a greater degree of screening to take place before selection of studies. Of the 301 studies from electronic databases, 147 were excluded; the number of studies excluded against each of the initial criteria actually totals 154 as the codes are not mutually exclusive. A total of 154 studies met the inclusion criteria. These, plus the 63 from handsearching, created Database Two, making a total of 217.

Of these, 65 were excluded because they did not address both a type of citizenship education as defined by the keywords and an aspect of provision of schooling. Thirty-eight were excluded because they did not report on research relating to schools, 11 were conducted pre-1988, three were not in the English language and 86 were not empirical research.

Fourteen studies met the inclusion criteria and were entered into Database Three. Of these, 13 were identified by journal handsearching; only one was identified solely by electronic database searches.

3.2 Characteristics of the included studies

Tables 3.1 and 3.2 summarise the characteristics of the 14 studies that met the inclusion criteria. They show the range of study types, the types of citizenship education they address, the aspect of school provision and other key characteristics.

In terms of study types, Table 3.1 shows that the 14 studies were mainly evaluations of naturally-occurring interventions or explorations of relationships.

**Table 3.1: Description of the type of study (N = 14)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of integration considered</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration of relationships</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation: Researcher-manipulated intervention</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
*One study was coded both as an exploration of relationships and as an evaluation (naturally-occurring).

It is notable that citizenship education in these studies appears across a range of curricular subjects, a range of aspects of provision of schooling and in a range of ‘forms’ or types of citizenship education (Table 3.2). In terms of the latter, all 14 studies were concerned with moral and social responsibility, and two-thirds with spiritual, moral, social and cultural development; half the studies dealt with conflict resolution, community involvement or emotional and social literacy. In relation to the five aspects of provision, almost all the studies were concerned with teaching and learning and two-thirds with school ethos and context. The topic focus of the studies confirmed the predominance of teaching and learning, and also the focus on the curriculum in half the studies. In relation to curriculum focus, the studies covered a wide range of curriculum subjects in addition to citizenship, cross-curricular themes and the hidden curriculum. Secondary schools were studied in 10 studies and seven studies looked at primary schools. Only one study focused solely on citizenship education in a single sex (all boys) setting. Data for the last two study aspects have not been presented in tables.

Table 3.2: Type of citizenship education and aspect of provision (N = 14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of citizenship education</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral and social responsibility</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community involvement</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political literacy</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character education</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and social literacy</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education for diversity</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer mediation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of provision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External relations and community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership and management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum construction and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School ethos and context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation and management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other topic focus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Identifying and describing studies - results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Curriculum focus</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-curricular</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hidden</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy further languages</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSE</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious Education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other curriculum</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The material does not focus on curriculum issues</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Studies could focus on more than one type of citizenship education, aspect of provision, topic area or curriculum focus.

3.3 Identifying and describing studies: quality assurance results

Standard EPPI-Centre keywords and review-specific keywords were applied to all studies in DB4 by two members of the review team and these were moderated by the EPPI-Centre team. This process led to clarification of terminology relating to citizenship education and provision of schooling. In addition, the Citizenship Education Research Strategy Group considered the map in detail and made further recommendations for exclusions, as well as for re-checking on the search strategy to ensure that key studies had not been missed. The reviewers spent some considerable time reworking the search strategy and consulting colleagues nationally and internationally to ensure that the search process was as comprehensive as possible. The conclusion of the CERSG was that, whilst there is a wealth of literature on citizenship education, there is very little that focuses explicitly on the actual implementation of citizenship education within the process and structure of schooling.
Figure 3.1: Filtering of papers from searching to map to synthesis

1. Identification of potential studies
   - Two-stage screening
     Papers identified where there is not immediate screening (e.g. electronic searching)
     N = 301 (DB1)

2. Application of inclusion/exclusion criteria
   - Abstracts and titles screened
     N = 301
     - Papers excluded
       N = 147
     - Papers included
       N = 154
   - Potential includes
     N = 217 (DB2)
     - Papers excluded
       N = 0
     - Papers not obtained
       N = 0
     - Duplicate references excluded
       N = 0
   - Full document screened
     N = 217
     - Papers excluded
       N = 203
     - In map but excluded from in-depth review
       N = 0
     - Papers not obtained
       N = 0
     - Duplicate reports of same study
       N = 0
   - Systematic map
     Studies included
     N = 14 (DB3)
     - Papers excluded
       N = 86
     - Papers not obtained
       N = 0
   - In-depth review
     Studies included
     N = 14

*not mutually exclusive

Key to inclusion criteria:
1. not citizenship education or provision of schooling
2. not schools (4 to 18)
3. conducted pre-1988
4. not English language
5. not empirical research

A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling
4. IN-DEPTH REVIEW: RESULTS

This chapter describes the characteristics of the finally selected studies. The synthesis of findings in relation to the main review question is given in five main sections, which are descriptors of the aspects of the provision of schooling, followed by a summary of key themes emerging across the studies. A final section deals with the quality-assurance processes for data-extraction.

4.1 Further details of studies included in the in-depth review

The full details of the final studies selected for in-depth review are summarised by aims, research questions, study design, type of study, findings and conclusions. This summary can be found in Appendix 4.1.

The 14 studies were characterised by a breadth of types of citizenship education and of aspects of school provision. This is represented in Table 4.1, which cross-references each study by the two sets of review-specific keywords.

Table 4.2 describes the weight of evidence assigned to each of the 14 studies in the in-depth review. As the first column indicates, five were judged to be of high trustworthiness on their own terms, five were judged to be of medium trustworthiness and four were judged to be of low trustworthiness. In terms of overall weight of evidence that takes into account not only internal methodological coherence, but also each study's appropriateness and relevance to the review question, there were three studies which were rated as contributing a high overall weight of evidence; seven studies which were rated as contributing a medium weight of evidence; and four studies which were rated as low weight.
### Table 4.1: Type of citizenship education by main educational topic focus (N=14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Moral and social responsibility</th>
<th>Community involvement</th>
<th>Political literacy</th>
<th>Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development</th>
<th>Education for diversity</th>
<th>Character education</th>
<th>Emotional and social literacy</th>
<th>Values education</th>
<th>Service learning</th>
<th>Conflict resolution</th>
<th>Peer mediation</th>
<th>Human rights education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External relations and community</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership and management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and teaching</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum construction and development</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School ethos and context</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Many studies studied more than one type of citizenship education and had more than one educational topic focus.
### Table 4.2: Weight of evidence of studies included in the in-depth review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>A. Internal methodological coherence of study (trustworthiness)</th>
<th>B. Appropriateness of research design and analysis for this review</th>
<th>C. Relevance of the study topic focus for this review</th>
<th>D. Overall weight of evidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behre et al. (2001)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carter and Osler (2000)</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clare et al. (1996)</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day (2002)</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deakin Crick (2002)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flecknoe (2002)</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gillborn (1992)</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holden (2000)</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maslovaty (2000)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mooij (2000)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naylor and Cowie (1999)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russell (2002)</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor M (2002)</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams et al. (2003)</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Synthesis of findings

In order to answer the review question, the findings of each study will be reported under each aspect of the provision of schooling: that is, learning and teaching; school ethos and context; leadership and management, curriculum construction and development; and external relations and community. These aspects of provision overlap in practical arenas of school provision: for example, school ethos and teaching and learning are closely related to each other in that relationships are key features of both. However, for the purpose of this review, each study will be reported in the aspect of provision for which its findings are most relevant. Where there are findings that relate specifically to another aspect of provision, these will be identified under that heading. Hence studies may appear under one or more headings. Any other themes that emerged from the studies, which were not directly related to one of the identified categories of school provision, were treated as a second phase of findings and are reported in section 4.3. The findings are presented according to their weighting (high to low) and alphabetically by author. The findings are reported as they were by the authors and with the authors’ conclusions and implications.

Table 4.3 shows which studies are most relevant to particular aspects of the provision of schooling.

Table 4.3: Relevance of studies to aspect of provision of schooling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of provision</th>
<th>Studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning and teaching</td>
<td>Russell, 2002; Clare et al., 1996; Day, 2002; Deakin Crick, 2002; Holden, 2000; Maslovaty, 2000; Mooij, 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum construction and development</td>
<td>Holden, 2000; Day, 2002; Deakin Crick, 2002; Clare et al., 1996; Russell, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership and management</td>
<td>Carter and Osler, 2000; Deakin Crick, 2002; Flecknoe, 2002; Maslovaty, 2000; Mooij, 2000; Taylor, 2002; Holden, 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School ethos and context</td>
<td>Behre et al., 2001; Carter and Osler, 2000; Flecknoe, 2002; Taylor 2002; Williams et al., 2003; Gilborn, 1992; Naylor and Cowie, 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External relations and community</td>
<td>Holden, 2000; Haviv and Leman, 2002; Gilborn, 1992</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1 Learning and teaching

The findings of seven studies were finally considered to be relevant to this theme. Initially, 13 studies were keyworded as addressing learning and teaching, but, on closer inspection, only seven studies provided substantive evidence on this aspect of the provision of schooling. Three of these studies were rated as having a high overall weight of evidence in relation to the review question. Three of the other four studies were rated as having medium weight and one as having low weight of evidence in relation to the review question.

Deakin Crick’s (2002) case study explored the development of a set of shared values within a school community and the utility of those shared values as specific interventions in teaching and learning across the secondary school curriculum. One of the key findings of this high-rated study was the quality of discourse around values in enhancing the learning and personal development which took place. Teachers in the study found that,
by introducing shared values into teaching and learning across the curriculum, they related to the whole person as learner, incorporating the students’ personal and emotional experience and their story into the process of learning, rather than just focusing on the student’s acquisition of knowledge, skills and understanding. The teachers reported that integrating spiritual, moral, social and cultural development into their own subject teaching was more meaningful and useful than addressing it in a separate part of the timetable. They also found that the quality of higher order creative and critical thinking skills was enhanced in lessons where values were brought to the foreground. Values interventions were found to provide a vehicle through which students could make meaning out of their learning, through naming and speaking about their own experiences and connecting with the stories of their community, as expressed in their values. Teachers stimulated students to engage in responsible action resulting from their learning, thus moving beyond the curriculum. As a result, teachers were required to move beyond the traditional confines of their subject to engage with local and global issues. This resulted in professional learning. Although the Christian foundation of the school influenced ethos and mood, whole-school spiritual, moral, social and cultural development was needed to bridge a gap between theory and practice.

Maslovaty’s (2000) highly rated study of teachers’ strategies for dealing with moral and social dilemmas in Israeli state religious elementary schools supported the findings that an ethical dimension is perceived to be an essential part of teachers’ educational perspective and of their pedagogical knowledge and responsibility. A consensus on professional morality was seen as a key dimension of the profession and discourse about a democratic society is seen as essential to the educational process. Teachers recognised and accepted the responsibility of the school system for resolving moral dilemmas. Over one-third of the socio-moral dilemmas identified in the study were dealt with in the context of the classroom in a way that exposed all students to a shared experience of situations of conflict, confrontation, exchange of views or multi-directional thinking, as well as co-operative decision-making and responsibility for action. Private talk or dialogue between teacher and student was the most common pedagogical behaviour and this was linked to ‘cognitive coaching’. The author described this as a way of thinking and working which ‘invites self and others to shape and reshape their thinking and problem solving capacities with the goal of forming people who think autonomously and work interdependently’ (op. cit., p 439). Teachers used content, specific differentiation in teaching strategies to address different types of dilemmas. The teachers’ own beliefs and value systems were found to contribute to their choice of strategy, leading to the conclusion that the development of the teacher’s own reasoned, comprehensive and flexible socio-moral credo is important. Furthermore, the context in which teachers work affected their choice of strategy: a decentralised, professional learning community was found to be more supportive in this domain than a context where teacher support was absent and a ‘technical culture’ existed. Overall the study provides evidence of a high weight that socio-moral issues should be dealt with in schools by using strategies for self-reflection, dialogue and discourse. Coping with socio-moral dilemmas may contribute effectively to the construction and development of teachers’ and pupils’ meta-cognitive, decision-making and problem-solving competencies.

In conclusion, Maslovaty’s study indicates that the socio-cultural climate of education and of class learning needs to support educational processes. Two important issues that arise from the study are a need for consensus on professional morality and discourse about a democratic society and participation in in-service training to raise teachers’ awareness of socio-moral issues. Teachers accepted the school’s responsibility for resolving dilemmas. The learning climate in classrooms where socio-moral dilemmas were dealt with exposed pupils to a shared experience.
of conflict, exchange of views, co-operative decision-making and responsibility for action. Professional learning communities supported teacher choice of appropriate strategies for dealing with dilemmas, such as self-reflection, dialogue and discourse.

Russell’s (2002) highly rated study into children’s moral consciousness and the role of children’s discussion produced relevant findings. Firstly, children’s discussions incorporated certain themes that included the concept of fairness, responsibility and choice, the value of human life, authenticity and respecting others. Both boys and girls used empathic and impartial reasoning interchangeably, depending on the context. The conclusions were that dialogue has an important part to play in fostering reflective thinking, understanding, tolerance and respect for others, and that the student voice is an essential component. The implications of this study for teaching and learning are that didactic teaching methods do not promote moral consciousness, whereas the art of dialogue as a pedagogical strategy is critical. Letting go of power leads to an atmosphere of trust and safety, enhancing the pupil/teacher relationship and increasing participation and inclusion. Key thinking and learning skills developed in the context of moral dialogue can be transferred to other areas of knowledge and learning. The classroom can become an inclusive environment through respectful discussion as opposed to the ‘winning’ characteristic of a debate. This enables pupils to develop higher cognitive abilities and engage in meaningful learning.

A medium-rated study of a Forum Theatre workshop designed to invite the audience to actively engage in moral dilemmas as they are presented in a play (Day, 2002) provided evidence that drama can be a very useful vehicle for personal development, for social interaction, and for political action and engagement. Empathy was stimulated in students by the play and this provided motivational energy, which was focused on action and was orientated towards the ‘other’. Students then transferred this empathy to other ‘victims’ they knew in schools. The Forum Theatre provided an opportunity for moral reasoning, for ‘frame freezing’ and for discussion about moral issues. Students engaged with the process through identification with ‘real life’ issues and with identification with the real experiences of actors. The forum created a co-operative learning environment in which dialogue and debate was a key strategy. The message of respect for others was conveyed through both the content of the theatre and through the process of learning that took place.

Holden (2000) conducted a two-school study into teachers’ beliefs and practices in social and moral education, and students’ perceptions of teaching. This medium-rated study provided evidence that moral and social development was seen as a process which underpinned all that teachers do and that it takes place in a wide variety of contexts across the curriculum, and particularly in Circle Time and in ‘literacy’ hour. Teachers had some difficulty in defining moral development and their practice tended to be dominated by ‘teacher talk’ and the teachers’ agenda. The author concluded that there is a need to allow students to define the agenda and to participate in debate to enhance learning. The students were found to have a complex understanding of social relationships and of ‘right and wrong’ from an early age. The author suggested that, in order to be more explicit in this area, and to include the wider aspects of citizenship education, there is a need for professional learning to extend teachers’ knowledge and allow for greater flexibility in curriculum delivery.

Mooij’s (2000) medium-rated multi-level study into the promotion of pro-social behaviour aimed to ascertain whether pupil behaviour could be influenced in a pro-social direction. This study was achieved through planned interventions at the school and classroom level. The findings indicated that school-level interventions did have an effect and that these were social-pedagogical, and didactic school and class variables,
although ‘personal’ variables were more significant than intervention effects or co-variable effects.

In relation to teaching and learning, the most important school characteristics which promote pro-social behaviour were regular strategies or procedures used by teachers and schools to get along with pupils. These included rules of conduct and didactic rules; partly individualised but socially relevant didactic learning procedures; assessment and evaluation procedures; and procedures to reinforce desired pupil behaviour. A key finding was the importance of student participation in the creation of those procedures and the extent to which students felt responsible for them (see also, Flecknoe, 2002; Taylor, 2002). Procedures for getting along with conspicuous or ‘at risk’ students were important, as was a whole-school strategy for promoting the development of pro-social and cognitive behaviour.

In a low-weight study focusing on the nature of instructional conversations, Clare et al. (1996) identified the importance of classroom discourse in creating a ‘zone of proximal development’ for students in moral development, alongside their reading comprehension. The quality of language, interaction and questioning by the teacher was found to be crucial. Within literature lessons, the teacher brought into focus developmentally appropriate moral dilemmas, and created cognitive dissonance for her students in addressing themes within the stories that were relevant to the moral development of the students. A study of the texts produced by students exposed to this quality of discourse showed that they were able to move beyond a superficial understanding of the basic points to explore the moral and emotional quality of the texts and the embodiment of those qualities in various characters. The authors concluded that moral education could be a useful tool for enhancing students’ comprehension and that these forms of learning could be usefully integrated. However, this process requires teachers to move from the conventional role of ‘reciters’ of wisdom into a more open, facilitative and conversational pedagogy. The authors concluded that this needs professional understanding and skill, which may not be acquired in a teacher education system where there is a focus on didactic methods and technical competence.

4.2.2 Curriculum construction and development

The findings of six studies were relevant to this theme. Initially, only five studies were keyworded as addressing curriculum construction and development, but on closer inspection, another study provided supportive evidence on this aspect of the provision of schooling. Two of these six studies were rated as having high and three medium overall weight of evidence in relation to the review question, and one was considered to have low weight.

Russell’s (2000) highly rated study provided evidence of learning in one domain (literacy) being integrated with another (moral consciousness) and concluded that the skills of dialogue and debate promoted as part of the development of moral consciousness could, and should, be transferred across the curriculum. Clare et al.’s (1996) low-rated study provided evidence to support this.

Holden’s (2000) medium-rated study provided some evidence that moral and social development can be offered through all parts of the curriculum, especially in literacy and Circle Time. Deakin Crick’s (2000) high-rated study supported this finding, with examples of how the school’s values were highlighted within traditional curriculum subjects. Day’s (2002) medium-rated study focused on drama as a vehicle for personal development, and there was evidence that the empathy and skills developed
in that context were transferred across domains. There was a need for other subject teachers in the school to be aware of that possibility and to extend and develop the learning from the Forum Theatre to other subjects and domains.

In a medium-rated evaluation of a Unified Studies course some 20 years afterwards, Williams et al. (2003) discovered evidence that a unique, experiential high school curriculum, not specifically designed to cultivate character, helped to change the environment of character education, and bring about students’ appreciation for people and environment. The authors suggested that character and moral sensibility can be learned indirectly in a high school setting through highlighting moral issues embedded in all academic subjects and linking real world perspectives to school experiences and to students’ lives. The experience required a high level of teacher and student involvement; a caring learning environment; differentiated teaching and learning; interdisciplinary perspectives; active participation; dialogue; co-operation; teamwork; problem-solving; and practical applications of learning.

4.2.3 Leadership and management

The findings of seven studies were relevant to this theme. Initially, only four studies were keyworded as addressing leadership and management, but, on closer inspection, seven studies provided substantive corroborative evidence on this aspect of provision of schooling. Two of these studies were rated as having a high overall weight of evidence, three were considered to be of medium weight, and two of low weight in relation to the review question.

Deakin Crick’s (2002) high-rated study produced findings that indicated the importance of an explicit framework of values in underpinning school development planning and ethos. Participation in the identification of a values framework was an important feature and students in the study were found to have positive views on what was important for them in their school. This led to a set of values that were ‘owned’ by the whole school community. The importance of a values framework was echoed in Carter and Osler’s (2000) low-rated study which proposed a Human Rights framework as a basis for developing a more positive school ethos.

Holden’s (2000) medium-rated study identified the need for a shared policy around citizenship education and the creation of a common language and understanding. Part of this was to do with the development of an explicit set of shared values.

Mooij’s (2000) medium-rated study underlined the importance of a thorough school-specific developmental process, including outside support, in the formation of a policy to encourage pro-social behaviour. He concluded that schools needed to plan and evaluate their own social, cognitive, didactic and organisational developmental processes, based on accurate information.

Linked to this, Maslovaty’s (2000) high-rated study identified a consensus on professional morality as a key dimension of the profession, with a discourse about a democratic society as central to this process. There were also implications in this study for the concept of decentralised education policy in which school leaders are participants in a professional learning community, rather than technicians within a ‘technical culture’.

Taylor’s (2002) medium-rated study of school councils concluded that schools need to be explicitly self-conscious about how the school council fits in with the wider decision-making processes. They could offer this possibility as students participate in
democratic processes for influencing and facilitating change in the students' environment.

Flecknoe’s (2000) low-rated one-school study underlined the importance of a democratic community as a centre of educational leadership. Including students in matters pertaining to school leadership and management enhanced teacher sensitivity to students’ views and created a culture where students listened to each other. He concluded that democratic participation must centre on real issues, not peripheral ones, in order to change behaviours and develop an inclusive agenda. He suggested that the development of pupils through engagement with democratic procedures is a missing dimension in school effectiveness and improvement theories, since this creates the social capital of trust between groups.

### 4.2.4 Ethos and context

Originally, 10 studies had been evaluated as contributing to this theme, but on closer inspection, the findings of six studies were seen to have high relevance for this theme. These studies were evenly divided as to those considered to have medium or low weight of evidence in relation to the review question.

Behre et al. (2001) described a medium-rated study that explored teachers' reasoning about their roles and responsibilities in dealing with violence in various spaces in the school. They found that teachers were opposed to school violence, but conceptions of their professional roles and perceptions of responsibilities about intervention varied according to school type (elementary and middle school) and physical location within the school. Middle school teachers were more likely than elementary teachers to say the location of violence affects who should respond and they identified more school locations where they would not intervene to stop violence, because of concerns about physical risk and efficacy. Elementary school teachers emphasised caring for, and safety of, the children. Such findings indicate that different professional norms and school cultures existed in these age-related school settings. The authors suggested that redefining responsibility and roles in specific locations might promote ownership of spaces and reduce violent events. Clearer and more consistent rules and enhanced administrative support would influence teachers’ judgements and reasoning about their roles and responsibilities for intervention.

Although the focus of the study itself was on teachers' reasoning, there was some evidence about the relationship of this to learning and teaching. All of the teachers condemned physical fights, regardless of where they were located. The teachers’ sense of their professional role and responsibility was the underlying issue that helped explain the differences in thinking between elementary and secondary school teachers, and influenced whether or not the teachers would intervene in situations of violence occurring in different spaces within the school. Professionally undefined spaces in the school created more complexity in teachers’ decision-making.

Elementary school teachers conceptualised their professional roles in different ways from secondary school teachers and were more likely to use reasoning based mainly on moral components, whereas secondary school teachers were more likely to use judgements which were based on moral, social, conventional and personal considerations. There was also evidence that contextual issues were important in influencing teachers' judgements about whether or not to intervene. The level of administrative support from the school community and the clarity and consistency of the rules operated within the school as a whole had an influence on the teachers’ reasoning.
Taylor (2002) conducted a quantitative and qualitative study of the role of school councils and their contribution to citizenship education. The study was rated as of medium weight of evidence. Her research suggested that participation in a school council can make a positive contribution to students’ personal development, to their social interaction and to their sense of active engagement. In particular, it may develop skills of listening and speaking, discussion, negotiation, teamwork, asking for others’ views and representing them, arguing a point of view and taking a range of information into account when decision-making. It may also foster collaborative learning. Teachers and students perceived the main benefits of a school council as the existence of a forum in which students were able to discuss their views and concerns, improve school ethos, allow students to contribute to the running of the school, and have a mutually informative process for staff and students. The active experience of the school council was a form of real engagement in learning and in the school as a community.

Implications arising from this study are that, in order to flourish, the functioning of school councils needs to be integrated into the school structure, with recognised lines of communication, support and status. Schools need to be more explicitly self-conscious about how the school council fits with wider decision-making approaches in school. The ethos should embody the expectation that realistic school change, which positively affects the student environment, is possible through democratic processes. Student participation at all levels needs to be valued and respected, and particular attention should be paid to facilitating the involvement of non-councillors so their voices can be heard. This can bring about a sense of student empowerment and ownership, which may be accompanied by attitudinal change, which, in turn, can improve the ethos of the school as a learning community.

In examining democracy and citizenship through the school council in one school, Flecknoe’s (2002) low-rated study echoed the need for democratic participation to centre on real issues in order to change behaviours and develop an inclusive agenda. The introduction of a school council heightened respect and trust between teachers and pupils, sensitivity to pupils’ views and development of pupils’ listening abilities. Through the school council, pupils had the opportunity to speak and to be heard; to discuss matters of importance; to be taken seriously; to contribute to decisions made by consensus; and to begin to develop an understanding of democracy in action.

A large-scale medium-rated survey of teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of peer-support systems to challenge bullying (Naylor and Cowie, 1999) found that, in general, the systems were effective in reducing the negative effects of bullying for victims, and peer supporters developed skills and enjoyed offering personal care. However, schools needed to facilitate and support student take-up of such schemes and to work to transform some teachers’ negative perceptions. School benefits included the creation of a socio-emotional climate; the demonstration of care; and savings on teacher time and involvement.

As a result of a low-rated study of school culture through classroom relationships, Carter and Osler (2000) argued that school ethos requires fundamental changes in order to realise children’s human rights in school settings. A narrative account of one school indicated the need to reduce teacher control and rigid discipline, build meaningful relationships, develop a comprehensive vision and inclusive practices for the school community. The authors suggested that pluralism, participation, self-determination, democracy, inclusion and transparency characterise human rights practices and advocated that implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child would provide a participatory structure with explicit human rights education. Through democratic practices and student involvement in school decision-making
processes, Carter and Osler argued that students would be able to develop skills to access their rights and claim their identities.

A recurring theme centred on the issue of teachers' orientation to the control of pupils and their interactions, and the creation of a ‘rigid classroom’ structure, which was found to be counterproductive for positive interpersonal relationships and the creation of a participative culture. Rigid discipline was found to impinge on certain freedoms and preclude particular identities, forming students in a restricted and stereotyped range of ‘child images’ and masculine identities. It curtailed self-determination.

From a qualitative low-rated study of two contrasting comprehensive schools, one which operated a ‘colour blind’ policy and the other which was actively attempting to realise equality of rights which were genuinely pluralistic, Gillborn (1992) provided evidence to show that, despite often benign intentions, teachers’ frequent criticism and control of Afro-Caribbean students acted effectively to exclude them from opportunities enjoyed by white pupils. The author argued that schools need to be much more pro-active about their anti-racist policies and practices to support race equality. In particular, schools need to pay close attention to the hidden curriculum that, through teacher-student interactions, often reinforces the realities of citizenship for black people and denies black students their rights.

4.2.5 External relations and community

The findings of three studies were relevant to this theme. (Originally a further study had been seen as relevant.) Two of these studies were rated as having a medium overall weight of evidence in relation to the review question and one was considered to be of low weight.

Day (2002), in a medium-rated study, examined the use of Forum Theatre to explore refugee and homeless issues in schools by means of educating emotional intelligence through interaction. Through ‘frame freezing’, the drama provided opportunities for moral reasoning, discussion about moral issues, re-examination of social and moral values, and the development of empathy and action. Respect for others was conveyed through both the content and the method of learning. Sympathy towards refugees was transferred into empathy for human experience in general and, in contrast with the rhetoric they experienced in their social/political world, the drama workshop provoked a desire amongst students to do something about refugees and homelessness issues in real life.

In her medium-rated study, Holden (2000) showed that, even when schools appeared to be successful in many aspects of social and moral education and where the ethos, the atmosphere and the way in which children were treated was paramount, there could be gaps in language, perception, understanding and consensus between the views and values of teachers and parents. In the two primary schools studied there was an assumption of shared values, although some teachers saw parents as promoting different values and priorities. The author identified several aspects of provision which schools need to consider in delivering citizenship: rights and responsibilities beyond the school; discussion of democratic processes; a human rights and values-based framework from which students can make decisions; and student participation in debate and agenda-setting.

In a low-rated study contrasting the race equality policies and practices in two comprehensive schools, Gillborn (1992) illustrated how, after a severe attack on another, mainly white, school in which its students were involved, one school
consciously tried to change assumptions and practices so as to build equal respect for all learners and promote a true and strong partnership between the school and the local black community. In so doing, it was attempting to model a genuinely pluralist form of citizenship that worked with and within the law.

4.3 Key issues emerging from the studies

The studies in the sample come from different countries and they illustrate that educational processes and practices take place in a social context: the local context of the school in its community, within a specific country, its educational system and ethos, and in a wider global environment. These all impact on citizenship education and its implications for the provision of schooling (Day, 2002; Deakin Crick, 2000; Gillborn, 1992; Holden, 2000).

A careful scrutiny of the evidence from the studies pertaining to the five aspects of the provision of schooling led to the identification of six common, overarching themes. These themes were explored and developed in the consultation with users. The six themes are presented here as they relate to (a) learning and teaching and curriculum development and (b) school leadership, management and ethos. The themes represent key values and school practices, which seem to be important to the provision of citizenship education. Conceptually they are inter-related and apply across the aspects of provision of schooling.

The six themes are:

- participation in the decision-making process
- ownership and agency
- authority and empowerment
- dialogue and discourse
- student-lived experience and relevance
- teacher learning, knowledge and practice

4.3.1 Learning and teaching and curriculum development

**Participation in decision-making and ownership and agency**

The findings of the studies provided evidence of an issue around the processes and practices of school, such as involvement, consultation, consensus-making and democratic procedures. Participation was linked with a sense of ownership of the process by participants and with a sense of agency. Processes involved establishing a set of shared values, which were owned by students and the wider school community, and which provided a meaningful and pedagogically useful vehicle for citizenship education (Deakin Crick, 2000). The studies suggested that students should be actively involved in making and supporting rules for the behavioural context of learning and teaching, resolving conflicts and taking action (Maslovaty, 2000; Mooij, 2000; Taylor, 2002).

**Dialogue and discourse**

The practices of dialogue and discourse were apparent throughout all the studies and were highly characteristic of processes of citizenship education that had an impact on schooling. They were especially connected in these studies with issues of human rights, race equality, developing values and talking and listening. The implication of the studies was that learning and teaching strategies should explicitly recognise the
need for a more facilitative, conversational pedagogy, where dialogue and discussion are the norm (Clare et al., 1996; Deakin Crick, 2000; Day, 2000; Russell, 2000). All the studies indicated that schools’ involvement in transformative interactive dialogical pedagogies and democratic processes was not at the expense of, but complementary to the enhancement of academic learning and achievement. Dialogical pedagogies require quality of relationships, which are inclusive and respectful.

**Authority and empowerment**
The studies provided evidence that exercise of the processes of participation, decision-making, ownership, dialogue and agency tended to challenge authority and power structures and facilitated new forms of empowerment. Democratic approaches to learning and teaching in the classroom (Carter and Osler, 2000) and school (Flecknoe, 2000; Taylor, 2002) may be experienced as challenges to teacher authority and school practices and ethos. The studies indicated that all students needed to be empowered to be able to voice their views, and to name and make meaning from their life experiences. Contextual knowledge, problem-based thinking and matching learning content with pedagogy seemed to result in engagement and action, for individuals and groups (Day, 2002; Deakin Crick, 2002; Russell, 2002).

**Student-lived experience and relevance**
Emerging from the studies was other evidence that suggested that the engagement of students required educational experiences that were age-related and developmentally appropriate. Moral issues and dilemmas needed to be age-appropriate and relevant to students’ everyday lived experience, but they also needed to create cognitive dissonance where teachers assisted with developmentally appropriate questions to facilitate higher order and critical thinking for greater moral or social reasoning (Clare et al., 1996). Relevance was also highlighted by democratic participation, such as through a school council where there was evidence of a need to focus on real issues (Flecknoe, 2000; Taylor, 2002). Students should be allowed to define agendas of importance to them (Holden, 2000). Curriculum opportunities should be made for students to discover real life moral issues embedded in all subjects and which are relevant to their own narrative experience (Deakin Crick, 2000; Williams et al., 2003).

**4.3.2 School leadership and management and ethos**

**Participation in decision-making and ownership and agency**
In relation to school leadership and management, there was evidence that a coherent and participative whole-school strategy, including a community-owned values framework and shared strategies for learning processes, were a necessary part of school leadership for citizenship education (Deakin Crick, 2000; Flecknoe, 2000; Holden, 2000; Maslovaty, 2000; Mooij, 2000). Evidence from the studies showed that schools often restricted democratic participation by students and teachers in shaping institutional practices, but expected them to adhere to policies. Staff and students needed to develop attitudes and skills to effect change, through progressive adoption of democratic processes (Carter and Osler, 2000). For instance, setting up a school council was not in itself a guarantee of student participation, positive attitudes or progressive practices. Inclusion, influence and strategies for consensual change had to be worked on (Taylor, 2002). The studies provided evidence that involvement led to identity formation and/or group belonging, and that action and a developing sense of agency effected change.
4. In-depth review - results

**Authority and empowerment**
A traditional school culture of accountability and responsibility could shift between staff and student. There was evidence in the studies that professional norms and some teachers’ perceptions may countermand or undervalue more open and holistic processes at either an individual level or in relation to the institution of school (for example, concerning school councils (Taylor, 2002)) and peer-support systems (Naylor and Cowie, 1999).

**Teacher learning, knowledge and practice**
The studies provided evidence to suggest that, in order to promote students’ personal and social development, teachers needed support in their own professional learning and practice. Teachers required support to develop appropriate professional skills and discourse (Clare et al., 1996; Day, 2002; Deakin Crick, 2000; Russell, 2002). Letting go of power in order to listen to the voice of students led to an atmosphere of trust and safety that enhanced teacher/pupil relationships and increased participation (Deakin Crick, 2000; Russell, 2002). An ethical dimension was considered to be an integral part of teachers’ professional knowledge and practice (Clare et al., 1996, Deakin Crick, 2000; Holden, 2000; Maslovaty, 2000), but professional learning was needed to develop the language, skills and professional know-how to support this in everyday school life, teaching and learning.

4.4 In-depth review: quality assurance results

Data-extraction for all 14 studies was carried out independently by two reviewers and, for three studies, by three members of the Review Group. EPPI-Centre staff were involved in reviewing seven of these. The main differences between reviewers stemmed from their judgement of the nature of the study type. In each case, the reviewers moderated their findings and agreed upon a final judgment. Two reviewers were also authors of studies and, in these cases, neither were involved in data-extraction made on their study at any stage.

4.5 Nature of actual involvement of users in the review and its impact

A consultation with users took place in September 2003. Eleven people attended, including six teachers or teacher advisors for citizenship education, and four researchers. The preliminary findings were presented to the group, together with details of the methodology of the review.

The group was sub-divided into policy-makers, practitioners and researchers, and each of these groups assessed the validity of the findings in relation to their own experience and identified the impact of the findings on their practice. They then listed those findings for inclusion into the review. A plenary discussion provided further development of these ideas.

In addition to this, a working copy of the review and findings was posted on the CitizEd website, which networks between all higher education institutions engaged in teacher education for citizenship. Comments and views were invited through this process.
5. FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Summary of principal findings

The main review question was:
*What is the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling?*

In order to achieve all of the aims of the review, the subsidiary question was:
*What are the implications of the findings of the review for teacher education?*

In order to report findings relevant to these questions the studies were grouped according to their relevance to the following six themes:

- learning and teaching
- curriculum construction and development
- school ethos and context
- leadership and management
- external relations and community
- teacher learning, knowledge and practice

5.1.1 Identification of studies

The search strategy led to 301 studies being included in the initial stage of the review. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were systematically applied to these studies. Review-specific and general keywords were applied to 35 of these studies. The 14 studies identified for the in-depth review were the entire set that were identified through the search strategy as being appropriate to answer the review question.

5.1.2 Mapping of all included studies

The studies included in the in-depth review represented a range of study types and addressed the whole range of types of citizenship education and aspects of school provision. In addition to this, the studies addressed a range of curriculum subjects and phases of education.

5.1.3 Nature of studies selected for the in-depth review

The nature and characteristics of the studies included in the review are described in Chapter 4. A full summary of all the studies can be found in Appendix 4.1. The studies selected for the in-depth review were all those studies included in the systematic map.

5.1.4 Synthesis of findings from studies in the in-depth review

The combined findings relating to these themes, based on the authors' reports of their findings, their conclusions and the implications drawn (as reported in section 4.2) and highlighted according to our judgement, professional experience and expertise, were essentially as follows:

- The quality of dialogue and discourse is central to learning in citizenship education.
• Dialogue and discourse are connected with learning about shared values, human rights, and issues of justice and equality.
• A facilitative, conversational pedagogy may challenge existing power/authority structures.
• Transformative, dialogical and participatory pedagogies complement and sustain achievement rather than divert attention from it.
• Such pedagogies require quality in teacher-pupil relationships and pupil-pupil relationships that are inclusive and respectful.
• Students should be empowered to voice their views, and to name and make meaning from their life experiences.
• Contextual knowledge, and problem-based thinking can lead to (citizenship) engagement and action.
• Engagement of students in citizenship education requires educational experiences that are challenging, attainable and relevant to students’ lives and narratives.
• Opportunities should be made for students to engage with values issues embedded in all curriculum subjects and experiences.
• A coherent whole-school strategy, including a community-owned values framework, is a key part of leadership for citizenship education.
• Participative and democratic processes in school leadership require particular attitudes and skills on the part of teachers and students.
• Listening to the voice of the student leads to positive relationships, an atmosphere of trust and increases participation. It may require many teachers to ‘let go of control’.
• Teachers require support to develop appropriate professional skills to engage in discourse and dialogue to facilitate citizenship education.
• Strategies for consensual change have to be identified by, and developed in, educational leaders.
• Schools often restrict participation by students in shaping institutional practices but expect them to adhere to policies and this can be counter-productive to the core messages of citizenship education.

These findings support the findings of previous reviews discussed in Chapter 1. By drawing heavily upon ‘implicit’ citizenship education, they address one of the key messages of Gearon’s (2003) review and do so in an international context. This facilitates a focus on the implementation of citizenship education in the context of schooling. It also updates and adds significantly to Halstead and Taylor’s (2000) review, particularly on knowledge about the development of values throughout the life of the school and curriculum, and learning and teaching strategies. In terms of McGettrick’s (2002) evaluation of teacher education for citizenship, these findings suggest that all three approaches to citizenship education (see section 1.4) are important and, in particular, that a focus only on a transmission model, which would focus on the knowledge, skills and understanding for citizenship education within a discrete curriculum time, would limit the scope, aims and purpose of citizenship education. Attention should also be given to pedagogy and learning across the school and to school ethos and climate.

Kerr and Cleaver’s (2004) literature review highlights the complexity and debate about terminology, particularly about the concepts of citizenship, citizenship education and active citizenship. They suggest that debates about how these should be approached in practice are unlikely to go away; indeed, they may become more heated as time goes by. The findings of this review underline the complexity of the subject, and address one particular aspect of implementation: that is, the impact of citizenship education on the school development process as a whole.
5.2 Strengths and limitations of this systematic review

Planning
In relation to planning, the strengths of the methodology were in the specification of the review question. This particular question was chosen because the field of citizenship education in England and the other countries of the UK is an emerging area of education policy that has been the focus of legislation and national guidance. The review question was broad and conceptually complex and this was both a strength and limitation of the review. It was a strength because it drew together types of educational activities that may not necessarily be named as ‘citizenship’ in policy terms, but nevertheless contribute towards the aims of citizenship education. This enabled an exploration of issues relating to the implementation of citizenship education that make a significant contribution to knowledge. It utilised a framework for understanding and analysing the provision of schooling (Alexander, 1992) that limited the scope of the review to five aspects of provision. The review question itself both enables the possibility of mapping the field of policy into practice in relation to citizenship education, and by its breadth and complexity, may limit what can be found.

The question of impact and the relationship between the two complex variables of the review question was problematic. The CERSG was keen that the relationship of ‘impact’ between the two variables was not construed as one way – that is, the impact of citizenship education on provision of schooling. Rather, the review sought to include studies, such as that by Gillborn (1992), which looked at the impact of an aspect of school provision on citizenship education. This increased the complexity of the review.

Searching
In relation to the search strategy employed in this review, the aim was to be systematic in covering as many sources as possible and then, more importantly, recording the search process. This meant that, in theory, it would be possible to repeat the review and significantly to build on it at a later date when there might be more evidence to add. However, no searching can ever be completely comprehensive, and with this review in particular, the concepts are complex and difficult to measure by definition, and also relevant to all aspects of schooling.

Kerr and Cleaver (2004) conclude that the current literature base for empirical studies in citizenship education is ‘sparse’ and that there are still significant difficulties around terminology and definition, which are likely to remain for some time, as different interest groups emerge in this area. They suggest that small research studies, pilot studies and school-based work are at the cutting edge of the field; these types of studies are unlikely to be found in the established educational research databases, nor in academic journals, which form the basis for the search strategy. In fact, the majority of the studies in this review were found by handsearching. Nevertheless, these factors make comprehensive searching problematic and this is a potential weakness of this review, which should be borne in mind.

Specifically, two further studies have now been identified that appear to meet the inclusion criteria for this review but both were published after the searching stage of this review (Nelson et al., 2003, 2004). These will need to be considered in any update of the review.
Recording
A systematic approach as outlined by the core EPPI-Centre review process was followed. Careful recording was a key feature in relation to selecting studies found to be relevant to the review question. That only 14 studies were selected from an original total of 301 found in the first stage of searching may seem to be a weakness. At times, some members of the CERSG were critical of what seemed to be missing data residing in other studies. However, the progressive focusing that is central to the EPPI-Centre review process meant that studies were initially labelled according to title and abstract (DB1), secondly based on full text (DB2), and finally based on consultation with the Review Group (DB3). Thus the identification of only 14 studies meant that attention was given to the most relevant studies for answering the specific question of the review as defined by the EPPI-Centre process.

Quality assurance
Another strength of being systematic in the review process was the checking of judgements made through double and sometimes treble independent action. The application of inclusion and exclusion criteria, the application of keywords, and data-extraction were checked in this way. Differences between reviewers' judgements were reconciled before findings were recorded and stored in the EPPI-Reviewer® database. One weakness of this process was the time taken at each stage that was not reflected in the funding available.

Assessment of the weight of evidence from individual studies
The primary studies included in the review had been undertaken for a range of reasons that might not be close to the question of the review. The assessment of the weight of evidence in relation to the review question was a feature that enabled the most relevant studies to be given greater weight of evidence than less relevant ones, and to enable judgements to be made about the overall dependability of the review.

The role of the CERSG
A strength of the methodology was the establishment of the CERSG. This group comprised experts from policy, including non-government organisations and government departments, practitioners at various levels within the schooling system and researchers. Members of the group were involved in strategic decision-making at key points and the network created by the CitizEd group meant that consultation was wider than the group itself. A weakness of the review process was the part-time nature of the reviewers compared with the amount of time and organisation required to complete a review process; this made the review vulnerable to circumstances such as employment change and illness.

Scope of the review question in relation to current policy in England
The intention of this review was to focus on the breadth of interpretation of education for citizenship and to apply the findings of the studies to key aspects of school provision. At the time when the review question was being formulated, the National Curriculum implementation in England was at a very early stage. However, nearly two years on, English teachers engaged in citizenship education, unlike their Scottish counterparts for example, are likely to be concerned with the implementation of programmes of study which are set out in the National Curriculum Framework, within a discrete subject on school timetables at secondary level. This review question does not directly address the immediate concerns of such teachers; it is more relevant to school leaders as a whole, since it addresses different types of provision of schooling and how an embedded citizenship education policy might impact on the core processes of schooling. For Citizenship Education teachers (specialists), the review will be useful for
its contribution towards an understanding of relevant pedagogical strategies, rather than definition of terminology, or best practice in relation to the National Curriculum.

As such, this review can make a contribution to the growing literature base for citizenship and citizenship education, and the need highlighted by Kerr and Cleaver (2004) for researchers and practitioners to keep abreast of this. Its focus is very specific, and it may complement and enhance other studies in this emerging and complex field. Indeed, the second review will develop this further by focusing on the impact of citizenship education on learning and achievement in schools.

**Potential conflict of interest**

A further potential weakness of this review is the fact that two of the authors of the review were also authors of two studies (Deakin Crick, 2002; Taylor, 2002). The steps taken to minimise this risk were:

- the identification of papers through searching and keywording by the whole review team, with both of these papers being identified and keyworded by other members of the team
- a declaration of interest to the Review Group
- the double data-extraction and moderation by other members of the Review Group, and by one member of EPPI-Centre staff

**5.3 Implications**

The findings of this review were presented to a group of practitioners, policy-makers and researchers in September 2003. This consultation led to the following implications being identified and included in this report.

**5.3.1 Implications for policy**

**Professional learning**

At a policy level, there are significant implications of this review for teacher professional education. These were in the following three main areas:

- the education of teachers who will be engaged in generic citizenship education
- those engaged in the specific requirements of Citizenship Education (e.g. within the National Curriculum)
- those engaged in leadership in education whose decisions have an impact on the formation of young people as citizens

The studies suggest that citizenship education is the proper domain of all teachers, whatever their subject expertise and role in the school, and in whatever phase of education they teach. The implications of this for professional learning are significant.

In each of these areas of teacher education, there will be a requirement to address three main facets of professional education and development. Firstly, there are the values and the vision of citizenship education. There is a need to have a clear understanding of the nature and potential impact of citizenship education on young people and its contribution to the school community and wider society. This will include professional education in understanding the implications of social transformation and ethical decision-making in society. Integral to their professional development as teachers for citizenship education are aspects of teacher development which are sometimes viewed as personal – such as a teacher’s own...
ethical vision and values; the capacity to communicate these interpersonally; and capacity for building empathic and trusting relationships with students and peers. These skills are consistently developed in other ‘helping professions’, but have not typically had much attention in teacher education.

Secondly, there is a need to develop a body of knowledge which will be relevant for present day society and the enhancement of society through citizenship education. This knowledge and understanding will principally be concerned with ethical understanding and understanding the needs and processes of social change, as well as an openness to the socio-political and economic forces which shape and are likely to shape society in the future.

Thirdly, there is a need to have well developed professional skills. This will require particular attention to pedagogy and an awareness of educational policies and practices which support social inclusion and the involvement of every child in educational processes, both of which are implied by citizenship education. Pedagogy, characterised by discourse and dialogue and facilitative approaches to authority and the exercise of power, requires particular professional skills. Significantly these include those skills relating to listening to the ‘voice of the other’ and the importance of the quality of relationship between teachers and learners as a central part of the learning process.

Of particular significance is the interaction of the elements of professional values: that is, professional knowledge and understanding and professional skills and abilities. It is the interaction of these which will give power to learning within citizenship education.

**Participation and diversity**
Participation in schooling processes and the responsibilities arising from that right to participate has implications for both teachers and learners in terms of policy. Genuine participation in local processes in schools requires a policy framework which encourages diversity of provision, since local decision-making is likely to lead to difference rather than uniformity. This difference may manifest itself at a classroom, a school or a school-systems level.

**Professional discernment and power**
Linked to professional discernment and power, is the importance of enabling teachers to use and trust their own professional judgment, working within a culture of professional responsibility rather than only within a culture of technical accountability. The curriculum itself, and other national strategies for learning and teaching, should be viewed as scaffolding rather than as a cage, in that they should serve and support participation in professional decision-making, and learner-participation in the processes of schooling. Leadership structures that allow this are likely to be those where the authority to do something rests with the same person or team that has the responsibility to do it. This is likely to be a distributed leadership structure.

### 5.3.2 Implications for practice

**Whole-school development**
Significant for practice is the implication that provision for citizenship education should be an intrinsic part of whole-school development planning. The studies indicate that citizenship education will find expression through all aspects of the provision for schooling and is appropriately highlighted across the curriculum. The school ethos, policies for teaching and learning, professional learning, external relations, leadership and curriculum can, and should, reflect the ways in which the school is making
provision for citizenship education. In other words, citizenship education is integral to the core business of schooling.

**Learning and teaching**
Of particular note are the implications for learning and teaching. Citizenship education requires a focus on higher-order thinking skills and the processes of learning itself. The studies suggest that a learner-centred approach is critical to successful citizenship education: that is, an approach to learning which values the quality of relationship between learner and teacher, which attends to the student voice, which stimulates higher order thinking and which treats students as individuals with differing experiences and needs.

**Learner-centred cultures**
It is important too, that the structures of the curriculum, together with the assessment requirements of the curriculum, actually support and enhance a learner-centred approach, rather than work against it. This may require a greater balance between the content requirements of the curriculum and the processes necessary for a genuinely learner-centred system and a radical re-think of the modes of curriculum delivery, particularly for students in secondary education with its focus on subjects. Learner-centred approaches, which underpin citizenship education, require space for aspects of provision which are difficult to measure quantitatively, and require time and commitment. Reflection, for example, is an important learning process that suffers from deadlines and the drive for curriculum ‘coverage’ and yet it emerges in the studies as critical for citizenship education.

**5.3.3 Implications for research**

The review findings suggest that there is a significant gap in the body of available research. There is a disjunction between research in citizenship education and research in citizenship per se. Where there is research into citizenship education, this often focuses on student learning outcomes, attitudes, or teachers’ views. There is little that addresses the particular review question of this study: that is, implementation at a school level.

There is very little empirical research into the implementation of citizenship education. What there is tends to be both qualitative and quantitative, with a tendency towards the small case-study approach or a single school study, which can be simply descriptive rather than developing explanatory theory.

The quality of studies in this review varies significantly. Of the 14 studies, four were judged to have low trustworthiness, seven were judged to have medium trustworthiness and three were judged to be high trustworthiness. The subject matter of citizenship education has much to do with qualities that are not adequately researched by only quantitative measurement or recorded using a framework more appropriately designed to deal with medical or economic subject matter. Citizenship education has to do with values, beliefs, opinions, relationship and other phenomena that require interpretation and judgement. Making decisions about the quality of research in this context is problematic and controversial and there is a need for greater methodological and analytic rigour in the execution and reporting of research, with greater awareness and transparency relating to interpretation of matters of quality and value.
6. REFERENCES

6.1 Studies included in map and synthesis


6.2 Other references used in the text of the report


EPPI-Centre (2003a) *EPPI-Centre Keywording Strategy for Classifying Education Research*. (Version 0.9.7). London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit.


### 6.3 List of excluded references


6. References


Fogelman K (1996a) Education for democratic citizenship: some European issues and examples from Great Britain. School Field 7: Numbers 1&2.


6. References


6. References


References


Sykes SA (1986) Using the mass media to teach critical thinking skills to high school students. Unpublished M.S. Practicum Thesis. Fort Lauderdale, FL: Nova University.


APPENDIX 1.1: Members of the Citizenship Education Research Strategy Group

(*Review Group member/author)

Professor James Arthur, Christchurch University College, Canterbury
Ms Sheila Bloom, Institute for Global Ethics, UK Trust
Mr Tony Breslin Citizenship Foundation
Dr Peter Brett, St Martin’s University College, Lancaster
*Mr Max Coates, University of Bristol (Reviewer)
Dr Ian Davies, Department of Educational Studies, University of York
Professor Jon Davison, London Metropolitan University
Mr Richard Davison, Head of PSHE and Citizenship, St George Community School, Bristol
*Dr Ruth Deakin Crick, University of Bristol (Co-ordinator)
Dr Liam Gearon, Centre for Research in Human Rights, University of Surrey
Mr Malcolm Lewis, Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol
Ms Janet Palmer, Manchester Metropolitan University
Mr Mark de Pulford, Lord Chancellor’s Office
Dr Sue Jackson, Birkbeck College, University of London
Mr David Kerr, NFER
Ms Sandie Llewelin, The Post-16 Citizenship Group
Professor Bart McGettrick, University of Glasgow (Chair)
Anne Raven, Schools Advisor PSHE and Citizenship, Oxford
*Ms Susan Ritchie, University of East London
Mr Don Rowe, Citizenship Foundation
*Dr Monica Taylor, Journal of Moral Education and University of London Institute of Education (Reviewer)
Ms Jan Urban Smith, Schools Advisor PSHE and Citizenship, Gloucester

EPPI-Centre staff

Ms Rebecca Rees, Education Research Officer
Ms Dina Kiwan, Education Research Officer
Ms Zoe Garrett, Education Research Officer
APPENDIX 2.1: Search strategies for electronic databases

Notes
- Searches were run using the BIDS Ovid interface.
- '/' after a term indicates that searches sought terms in the database's controlled term field (descriptors) only.
- 'exp' indicates that the database also looked for 'narrower' controlled terms as defined in the database's thesaurus.
- '.mp' indicates that searches sought terms in the following fields: title, edition statement, abstract, heading word.
- '*' indicates that the searches sought terms assigned by the database as the main focus of the study.

Database: ERIC

Dates: 1985 to November 2002

1. *Citizenship participation/ or *Citizen role/ or *Citizenship education/ or *
   Citizenship responsibility/ or *Civics/ or Citizenship/
2. exp ethical instruction/ or exp moral development/ or exp moral values/ or exp
   values education/ or “moral education” .mp
3. exp learning processes/ or exp thinking skills/ or Metacognition/
4. exp democratic values/ or exp moral values/ or exp social values/ or exp values/
   or exp values education
5. exp civil rights/ or exp democracy/ or exp freedom/ or exp freedom of information/
   or exp freedom of speech/ or exp justice/ or Civil liberties/
6. exp ethical instruction/ or exp moral values/ or exp religious education/ or exp
   social values/ or exp values education/
7. exp british infant schools/ or exp catholic schools/ or exp high schools/ or exp
   junior high schools/ or exp middle schools/ or exp nursery schools/ or exp schools/
   or exp secondary schools/
8. exp british national curriculum/ or exp curriculum/ or exp curriculum design/ or exp
   curriculum development/ or exp curriculum evaluation/ or exp curriculum guides/
   or exp curriculum research/ or exp english curriculum/ or exp hidden curriculum/
   or exp national curriculum/ or exp preschool curriculum/ or exp secondary school
   curriculum/
9. exp educational assessment/ or exp educational objectives/ or exp effective
   schools research/ or exp instructional effectiveness/ or exp program effectiveness.
   Or exp program evaluation. Or exp school effectiveness. Or exp student
   development. Or Outcomes of education/
10. (1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 or 6) and 7 and (8 or 9)
11. exp action research/ or exp classroom research/ or exp curriculum research/ or
    exp educational research/ or exp effective schools research/ or exp evaluation
    research/ or exp institutional research/ or exp qualitative research/ or exp
    research/ or exp social science research/
12. limit 11 to English language
13. 10 and 12
Appendix 2.1: Search strategies for electronic databases

Database: British Education Index

Dates: 1986 to November 2002

1. citizenship.mp
2. values.mp
3. school.mp
4. study.mp
5. (1 or 2) and 3 and 4
6. citizenship education.mp
7. values.mp
8. values education.mp
9. community service.mp
10. learning about learning.mp
11. emotional intelligence.mp
12. schools.mp
13. curriculum.mp
14. study.mp
15. investigation.mp
16. research.mp
17. (6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11) and (12 or 13) and (14 or 15 or 16)
APPENDIX 2.2: Journals handsearched

These journals were all searched back to 1988, or the first issues. Where searches back to 1990 produced no results, a 10% sample of issues between 1988 and 1990 was searched.

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<td>American Journal of Evaluation</td>
<td>International Review of Education</td>
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<td>Australian Journal of Education</td>
<td>International Journal of Children's Spirituality</td>
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<td>British Educational Research Journal</td>
<td>International Journal of Inclusive Education</td>
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<td>British Journal of Sociology of Education</td>
<td>International Journal of Leadership in Education</td>
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<td>Journal of Beliefs and Values</td>
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<td>British Journal of Educational Studies</td>
<td>Journal of Curriculum Studies</td>
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<td>British Journal of Curriculum and</td>
<td>Journal of Education for Teaching: International</td>
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# APPENDIX 2.3: EPPI-Centre keyword sheet

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<td>Governors</td>
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<td>B. Exploration of relationships</td>
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<td>Residential school</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special needs school</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Workplace</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other educational setting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>14. To assist with the development of a trials register please state if a researcher- manipulated evaluation is one of the following:</th>
<th>15. Please state here if keywords have not been applied from any particular category (1-10) and the reason why (e.g. no information provided in the text).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Controlled trial (non-randomised)</td>
<td>PTO to apply review-specific keywords (if applicable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Randomised controlled trial (RCT)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling
# APPENDIX 2.4: Review-specific keywords - definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Citizenship education</th>
<th>Educational programmes which are designed to:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral and social responsibility</td>
<td>Develop in learners moral and social attitudes values, beliefs and behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community involvement</td>
<td>Engage learners in learning and service in the wider community or the school community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political literacy</td>
<td>Equip learners with the knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and know how to engage in public life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development</td>
<td>Develop in learners any aspect of personal development which is not measured as a cognitive learning outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education for diversity</td>
<td>Nurture in learners an understanding of difference between groups and cultures and a capacity to engage positively with groups and cultures ‘different in some way from me’ (includes race, disability, gender, religion, ethnicity and sexual orientation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character education</td>
<td>Contribute to the formation of a person – values, virtues, character and behaviour – which is beneficial to self, others and society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and social literacy</td>
<td>Develop the capacity to understand one’s own emotions, others’ emotions and to use that knowledge effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values education</td>
<td>Nurture learners in an understanding of and a personal engagement with values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service learning</td>
<td>Engage learners in learning which is constructed as service in the wider community or in the school community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td>Enable learners to understand and resolve personal and communal conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer mediation</td>
<td>Enable learners to support peers in resolving conflicts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights education</td>
<td>Lead to an understanding of human rights and an engagement with the values of human rights legislation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## School provision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning and teaching</th>
<th>Pedagogy, learning, teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum construction and development</td>
<td>Curriculum design, development and delivery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School ethos and context</td>
<td>School ethos and the ‘hidden curriculum’, the values of the school in practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External relations and community</td>
<td>Engaging members of the wider community in the process of education in the school or beyond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership and management</td>
<td>Leadership development, school development planning, administration, organisational practices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 2.5: Map of keywords – the 14 included studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Identification of report (or reports)</th>
<th>In which country/countries was the study carried out? (Please specify.)</th>
<th>What is/are the topic focus/foci of the study?</th>
<th>Curriculum</th>
<th>Which type(s) of study does this report describe?</th>
<th>What type of citizenship education does the study examine?</th>
<th>What aspects of school provision does the study examine?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behre W, Avi Astor R, Meyer A (2001) Elementary- and middle-school teachers’ reasoning about intervening in school violence: an examination of violence-prone school subcontexts</td>
<td>Handsearch Details USA</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Organisation and management Policy Teaching and learning Other topic focus <em>Teacher intervention in school violence</em></td>
<td>The material does not focus on curriculum issues.</td>
<td>Exploration of relationships Morality and social responsibility Community involvement</td>
<td>Moral and social responsibility Community involvement Emotional and social literacy Conflict resolution</td>
<td>Learning and teaching School ethos and context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clare L, Gallimore R, Patthey-Chavez G (1996) Using moral dilemmas in children’s literature as a vehicle for moral education and teaching reading comprehension</td>
<td>Handsearch Details USA</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Classroom management Curriculum Organisation and management Teaching and learning</td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>Exploration of relationships Morality and social responsibility Community involvement</td>
<td>Moral and social responsibility Community involvement Spiritual, moral social and cultural development Education for diversity Emotional and social literacy Conflict resolution Human rights education</td>
<td>Learning and teaching Curriculum construction and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Identification of report (or reports)</td>
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<tr>
<td>use of Forum Theatre to explore refugee and homeless issues in schools.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Theatre production&lt;br&gt;Teaching and learning</td>
<td>Extra-curricular</td>
<td>occurring intervention</td>
<td>Spiritual, moral social development&lt;br&gt;Emotional and social literacy&lt;br&gt;Values education&lt;br&gt;Conflict resolution&lt;br&gt;Human rights education</td>
<td>School ethos and context&lt;br&gt;External relations and community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deakin Crick R (2002) &lt;br&gt;Transforming Visions, Managing Values in Schools: A case study</td>
<td>Handsearch</td>
<td>Details&lt;br&gt;England</td>
<td>Curriculum&lt;br&gt;Organisation and management&lt;br&gt;Policy&lt;br&gt;Teaching and learning</td>
<td>Citizenship&lt;br&gt;Cross-curricular&lt;br&gt;Geography&lt;br&gt;Hidden&lt;br&gt;Literacy&lt;br&gt;further languages&lt;br&gt;Music&lt;br&gt;PSE&lt;br&gt;Religious education&lt;br&gt;Science</td>
<td>Exploration of relationships</td>
<td>Moral and social responsibility&lt;br&gt;Community involvement&lt;br&gt;Political literacy&lt;br&gt;Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development&lt;br&gt;Education for diversity&lt;br&gt;Emotional and social literacy&lt;br&gt;Values education&lt;br&gt;Peer mediation</td>
<td>Learning and teaching&lt;br&gt;Curriculum construction and development&lt;br&gt;School ethos and context&lt;br&gt;External relations and community&lt;br&gt;Leadership and management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flecknoe M (2002) &lt;br&gt;Democracy, citizenship and</td>
<td>Electronic database</td>
<td>Details&lt;br&gt;England</td>
<td>Organisation and management</td>
<td>Citizenship</td>
<td>Exploration of relationships</td>
<td>Moral and social responsibility</td>
<td>Learning and teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 2.5: Map of keywords – the 14 included studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Identification of report (or reports)</th>
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<th>What type of citizenship education does the study examine?</th>
<th>What aspects of school provision does the study examine?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| school improvement: what can one school tell us? | education-line www.leeds.ac.uk | Policy  
Teaching and learning  
Other topic focus: School council | Curryriculum  
Equal opportunities  
Hidden curriculum | Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention and exploration of relationships | Moral and social responsibility  
Community involvement  
Political literacy | Learning and teaching  
School ethos and context  
Leadership and management |
Hidden curriculum | Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention and exploration of relationships | Moral and social responsibility  
Community involvement  
Political literacy  
Education for diversity | Learning and teaching  
School ethos and context  
External relations and community |
Organisation and management  
Policy  
Teaching and learning | Citizenship | Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention | Moral and social responsibility  
Community involvement  
Political literacy  
Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development  
Conflict resolution | Learning and teaching  
Curriculum construction and development  
School ethos and context |
| Maslovaty N (2000) Teachers' choice of teaching strategies for dealing with socio-moral dilemmas in the elementary school | Handsearch | Details Israel | Classroom management  
Methodology  
Teaching and learning | Cross-curricular  
Exploration of relationships | Moral and social responsibility  
Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development  
Conflict resolution | Learning and teaching  
School ethos and context  
Leadership and management |
| Mooij T (2000) Promoting prosocial pupil behaviour: 2. Secondary school intervention and pupil effects | Handsearch | Details The Netherlands | Classroom management  
Organisation and management  
Teaching and learning | Other curriculum  
The material focuses on the organisation of | Evaluation: Researcher-manipulated intervention | Moral and social responsibility  
Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development | Learning and teaching  
School ethos and context |
### Appendix 2.5: Map of keywords – the 14 included studies

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<th>What aspects of school provision does the study examine?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Russell J (2002) Moral consciousness in a community of inquiry</td>
<td>Handsearch Details Ireland</td>
<td>Curriculum Teaching and learning</td>
<td>Other curriculum Thinking Skills</td>
<td>Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention</td>
<td>Moral and social responsibility Community involvement Political literacy Spiritual, moral, social and cultural development Emotional and social literacy Conflict resolution Peer mediation Human rights education</td>
<td>Learning and teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor M (2002) Schools Councils: Their role in citizenship and personal and social education</td>
<td>Handsearch Details England</td>
<td>Teaching and learning Other topic focus School councils</td>
<td>Citizenship Hidden curriculum</td>
<td>Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention</td>
<td>Moral and social responsibility Political literacy Emotional and social literacy</td>
<td>Learning and teaching School ethos and context External relations</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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## Appendix 2.5: Map of keywords – the 14 included studies

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</table>
**APPENDIX 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review**


**What are the broad aims of the study?**

This study explores teachers’ reasoning about their roles and responsibilities surrounding violence in specific school contexts and differences between elementary- and middle-school teachers’ reasoning about violence in specific school sub-contexts. Schools were chosen due to the high likelihood that students and teachers had been exposed to school violence and because district officials, school principals, local police and community organisations had indicated problems with violence during school hours (p 138). The aims were to build on existing empirical research considering when and where teachers intervene in violence as a result of policy and public concerns about school violence and to inform theory regarding why teachers choose to intervene in certain instances.

**What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?**

The study starts with the hypothesis that teachers in high schools may have employed distinctly different moral reasoning patterns in spaces that are professionally undefined, based on their sense of ‘ownership’ of those spaces. The researchers employed Cognitive Development Domain (CDD) theory to explore these issues. One hundred and eight teachers participated, 50% from primary and 50% from secondary schools. 75% were female and 25% were male.

**Study design summary**

This is a cross-sectional interview study that compares elementary-school teachers and middle-school teachers’ reasoning about roles and responsibility around school violence.

**Type of study**

Exploration of relationships

**Findings**

More middle-school teachers than elementary-school teachers indicated that a teacher’s response would be different in his or her classroom than it would in the hallway. Elementary school teachers were more likely to describe violence in non-classroom spaces using justification from moral domains. Middle-school teachers were more likely to employ multi-faceted reasoning about non-classroom space. The most common moral justification centred around harm to themselves or students and the existence of a caring relationship between teacher and student. The most common social conventional reasoning centred around feelings of efficacy in these spaces and a sense of diminished responsibility in these spaces. Middle-school teachers were more likely to say that the location of violence affects WHO should respond. Reasons included that teachers are not always present and that other adults are responsible. Elementary-school teachers were more likely to say that location does not have an effect and reasons were based on the moral domain because safety of the children was paramount.

When violence occurred off the school site, almost 70% of respondents reasoned against intervention on the grounds of greater risk to the teacher and decreased responsibility of the teacher. Teachers’ reasoning remained the same whether violence occurred in the hallway or the schoolyard. About half of each group changed their judgements when applying the reasoning to the other group (i.e. middle-school teachers talking about the elementary school teachers).
### Conclusions

All the teachers condemned physical fights, regardless of where the fights took place. However, teachers’ reasoning about reacting to violence appeared to be influenced by transactions between contextual variables and the issue of professional roles and responsibilities. The overall contexts of school type (elementary vs. middle school) influenced how teachers discussed violent events. The specific sub-contexts where fights occurred within each school type affected teachers’ judgements and reasoning. The teachers’ sense of professional role/responsibility surrounding a school fight influenced how they would respond to a fight. Middle-school teachers expressed more conflict surrounding interventions in specific locations than teachers in elementary schools. The authors conclude that ‘professional role’ and expectations may be the underlying issue that helps explain many of the differences in thinking between elementary- and middle-school teachers. Middle-school teachers identified more locations where they would not intervene to stop school violence than did elementary school teachers. This appeared to be connected with differing conceptions regarding their professional roles. Elementary- and middle-school teachers’ specific reasoning patterns about violence intervention also differed. These differences between elementary- and middle-school teachers in reasoning patterns were associated with differing notions of professional responsibility and distinctive perceptions of potential danger that were associated with specific locations. Redefining responsibility and defining roles in specific locations may reduce the number of un-owned places and also reduce the number of overall violent events occurring in the school setting. This study highlights the utility of CDD theory as a lens through which to view teachers’ reasoning and their employment of different judgements. The findings outline some important contextual issues that may impede teachers’ judgements to intervene. For example, when teachers refer to a lack of rules or administrative support (social conventional), it is likely that greater administrative support and clearer, more consistent rules would influence teachers’ judgement and reasoning about their roles in stopping hallway fights. This way, the exploration of teachers’ reasoning could be used to help identify difficulties in their environments.

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### What are the broad aims of the study?

An examination of the dynamics of classroom relationships and perceptions of how rights and wrongs operate in an all boys’ comprehensive school in the English West Midlands. The principal aims of the research were to examine the feasibility of adopting a human rights framework as a basis for school life and to evaluate subsequent relationships and identities.

### What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?

Human rights offer a useful framework for the development of a whole-school climate, which treats students as ‘subjects’ and participants in the creation of positive interpersonal relationships and a culture that was consistent with the human rights framework.

### Study design summary

The study was a planned intervention for the target group, a class of 30 14-15 year olds. The teacher was trained in strategies and materials to use which allowed the boys to examine relationships, using problem-solving and group work. The students undertook these classes over a four-week period, and were given the opportunity for participant observation of the classes. The researcher functioned as ‘participant observer’ during the process and interviewed a random sample of students and three members of staff after the programme.

### Type of study

Evaluation: Researcher-manipulated intervention

### Findings

Most of the students seemed to feel it was inappropriate to discuss human rights and that rights for some were synonymous with weakness and needs. Many students observed that rights were not universal, perceiving them to be derived from teachers and therefore not innate, with no consistency of application.
Rights belonged to a privileged few. The term 'rights' is used in order to make a demand and to vent frustration. Some students used the language of rights to counter any claim by the teacher that the student is acting irresponsibly. Students who initiate dilemmas and contribute to classroom disruption may then believe that they have forfeited their rights, creating a cycle of exclusion. Onlookers may associate rights with conflict or unreasonable demands. For some teachers, the introduction of democratic approaches in the classroom undermines teacher control. Issues of distrust emerged throughout the data - students would value teachers having more confidence in them. Teachers who operated a more contractual classroom tended to find their work perceived as tokenistic or undervalued by colleagues. Students and some teachers have a flawed or restricted image of what human rights mean. Rights are perceived as unmasculine and undesirable, held by a few and synonyms for demands. Two responses to teacher control, as opposed to teacher initiation of democratic principles, are to cooperate or to oppose, thus leading to a power struggle. Non-participation was the norm and students share little responsibility for their behaviour and no automatic allegiance to the school as a learning community. Support for the school is likely to be instrumental rather than affective. When the classroom environment is uncertain, responses of teachers become less assured. Most frequently adopted styles are passive aggressive, passive or paternalistic.

**Conclusions**

The research suggests that realisation of children's human rights within school settings requires a fundamental change in school cultures. Drawing on the challenges and barriers presented to the realisation of such rights in one school, the study proposes a model that may be of value to those teachers and students who are actively working to develop their schools as human rights communities. A recurring theme was the issue of teacher control and the extent to which a rigid classroom is undesirable in meeting the best interests of the school community. The school, as it currently operates, does not simply lack cooperation but fails to build meaningful relationships between its members. The data suggests that students and staff see themselves disparately. It does not seem possible to talk of a school community; instead, the school is little more than a collection of individuals and groups. A comprehensive vision and inclusive practices are prerequisites for community. Participation is currently restricted so the students and staff have little opportunity to help to shape the institution, yet the institution expects them to abide by policies drafted in its name. Individuals appear to lack the confidence or skills to effect meaningful changes; even when structures are transparent, anti-democratic practices appear to prevent students and staff from holding the institution accountable. Rigid discipline reduces positive relationships and responses, opposing good human rights practice. It impinges on the freedoms of the group and precludes particular identities. Pluralism is unlikely to be fostered as students conform to a restricted and stereotyped range of 'child images' and masculine identities. A benign authoritarian model is incongruent with a human rights framework, for, while control rather than participation is practised, self-determination will be curtailed. Rights will remain the discourse of the minority. As a result, citizenship is unlikely to be fully realised. The implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child would provide a structure for participation within a framework, which includes explicit education in human rights. It is through this holistic framework that the key pillars of democracy, inclusion and transparency are best developed. The research suggests a progressive adoption of democratic methods so that students and staff have time to work with them. Through democratic practice and student involvement in school decision-making processes, students are able to develop the skills to access their rights and claim their identities. Collectively, the school is able to shape a living values system. It can then strive for the best imagined solution to the challenges it faces.
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review


**What are the broad aims of the study?**

To study instructional conversations (IC) in order to understand how to implement extended discourse in the classroom

**What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?**

To examine the effect of introducing and monitoring opportunities for extended discourse about reading comprehension in class discussion and written essays and using moral dilemmas in children’s literature as a vehicle for moral education. This is implicit, not stated as research questions.

**Study design summary**

The study examined the transcripts of lessons over the course of a school year in one classroom of a teacher systematically assisted to develop a more conversational style of instruction. Samples of the writing of fourth-grade children who participated in the lessons were content, analysed for themes relating to moral questions.

**Type of study**

Exploration of relationships

**Findings**

Analysis of the lesson transcripts suggested that young students initiate discussion of the values-implications of the texts they read, if opportunities for connected discourse are increased. Students in the IC groups that engaged with the moral issues posed by the teacher were more than four times as likely to mention more subtle or problematic effects of friendship in essays written after the lesson than were those students who did not engage with issues. On the other hand, the majority of students whose reading comprehension lessons addressed other concerns showed no evidence that the student treated the events in the story as problematic for a friendship. Simply reading the story proved insufficient, indicating that good texts alone may not bring about the kind of cognitive dissonance likely to lead to moral development. Instruction in the form of assisted performance - where a teacher brings into focus developmentally appropriate questions and helps her charges wrestle with them - may be a key requirement. The distribution and emergence of 'tracer' points across student texts indicated that it was the students who had been exposed to Stage 3 reasoning, focusing on the importance and meaning of being a 'good' friend that were able to comprehend the problem in relationships between two characters in the story.

In aiming to change instruction discourse processes during reading comprehension lessons, the project developed an approach that came to rely on the moral dilemmas presented and explored in fiction and other literature to achieve its instructional goals. In exploring these dilemmas, the students in the lessons we examined were able to get more than the basic points from the stories they read. They were able to move beyond superficial understandings to explore the moral and emotional quality of the texts and the embodiment of these qualities in various characters.

**Conclusions**

The highly interactive and challenging discussion approach of instructional conversation, coupled with the teacher’s decision to focus on the moral dilemmas of the stories, created a zone of proximal development for the students for both reading comprehension and moral growth. These lessons reveal that moral education can be a useful tool for educators attempting to enhance students’ comprehension. Literature-based infusion of moral education is not easy, despite its advantages over an 'additive' approach. First such an infusion requires that teachers be able to recognise appropriate dilemmas and present them to students in a way that is compatible with their moral reasoning. To do so successfully, teachers must be versed in the stages of moral development posited by Kohlberg's model and must learn to recognise what issues are age-appropriate and likely to create moral dissonance. Teachers also need to develop the technical ability to generate and lead such discussions. This takes teachers away from a conventional role of reciters of wisdom and into a more open, facilitative and conversational pedagogy.

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*A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling* 71
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are the broad aims of the study?</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A quasi-evaluative study focusing on the experiences of the Forum Theatre workshop by teachers and students, and interactions between its participants. Forum Theatre gives audience members the opportunity to take on the moral dilemmas they are presented with actively, by entering into the play and taking on the role of one character. They attempt to resolve the conflicts experienced by their character, by enacting ideas for appropriate and effective behaviour within the make-believe context of the Forum Theatre stage.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The study was a qualitative case study using ethnographic methods - particularly constant comparison and other methods to develop codes, categories and themes. There was therefore not a specific hypothesis or research question.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study design summary</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This is a quasi-evaluative study of a ‘unique’ case of drama used for social and moral development. It used qualitative methodology to explore the experiences of teachers, students and participants in the workshop to identify key themes, codes and categories which reflect the impact of the workshop on students’ moral and social development, and on teachers’ practices. There were three workshops in three schools with 60 students attending. Teachers selected five students from each school for participation, but 20 participated.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of study</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Findings</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. All teachers and students found the topic of refugees and homelessness to be highly relevant because they were familiar to their own experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The students attributed the realism of the workshop to the skills and qualities of the actors, who were of a similar age and background, and used language they were familiar with.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Different rules applied within the workshop from ‘normal classrooms’: that is, an interactive approach that invited students to participate as adults, teachers and activists as well as learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Students experienced sympathy towards refugees, which developed into empathy, which they transferred to human experience in general. However, this contrasted with some rhetoric they experienced in their social/political world in relation to refugees and homelessness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Students were able to differentiate between amusing interventions in the story and valuable ones, which were those perceived to make a difference to the outcome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The workshop provoked a desire among students to ‘do something about the issues’ in real life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The issues raised in the workshop were not followed up in school in a learning context. This led to frustration expressed by teachers and students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conclusions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Forum Theatre workshop is particularly useful for moral education, providing an arena for educating ‘emotional intelligence’. The motivational energy of the empathy stimulated by the play was focused on action: that is, oriented towards the ‘other’. Students would then transfer this empathy to other ‘victims’ they knew in school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The convergence of the experiences of the actors and the students facilitated student identification with the actors. The Forum Theatre provided opportunity for moral reasoning, ‘frame-freezing’ and discussions about moral issues. It moved and engaged students, and stimulated them to re-examine their own social and moral values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This critical examination process was not subsequently given a forum in school. It enabled a co-operative learning environment including dialogue and debate. The message of respect for others was conveyed through both the content and the method. Forum Theatre provided a tangible shared experience with moral content on which moral reasoning could subsequently be based. Dramatic methods can enliven (personal, social and health education (PSHE), but often PSHE and drama are perceived as separate entities.</td>
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*A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling* 72
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

There was a need for sharing of information over programmes between theatre company and schools in order to facilitate planning. The relationship between drama and moral education is often espoused. The study supports the view that, in reality, drama and PSHE often operate as separate entities.


**What are the broad aims of the study?**

This book aims to discover if planned interventions in spiritual, social, moral and cultural education change the way that pupils perceive, understand and articulate the core set of values underpinning a school’s ethos. The impact of teacher interventions on the pupils’ general and subject specific knowledge is conducted, which develops into a discussion about the impact on teaching and learning styles, and the development of teacher-pupil relationships. The study attempts to demonstrate that spiritual, social, moral and cultural education does not (and should not) take place as a distinct lesson, but should underpin the whole-school approach to teaching and learning.

**What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?**

The study has different questions for different stages of the research, but the overriding questions to be addressed were ‘Can ‘the ‘softer’ side of values and spirituality be managed, measured, improved upon and used as a defensible alternative ‘voice’ in the cacophony of the competing demands and pressures of contemporary school leadership?’ and ‘Are the values promoted by the school, practised?’

First stage question: ‘Did the school community identify a common set of core values?’

Second stage: ‘Where were values taught in the curriculum?’

Third stage: ‘What is the impact of teaching core values explicitly within existing subject areas?’

Fourth stage: ‘What are the implications for teaching values within the curriculum?’

**Study design summary**

Repertory grid technique, developed by Kelly (1955) within the framework of personal construct theory, was used throughout this study. Structured interviews gave some indication as to the subject’s core constructs in relation to school. The elements were representative of the differing aspects of school; these were supplied to subjects for consistency purposes. Subjects rated the constructs against the elements. The study used correlation statistic (Pearson Product-Moment) to judge the importance of one construct or element with another. A curriculum audit was conducted in relation to the schools’ core values. A member of staff from each department worked with a research teacher to examine the content of the schemes of work in that subject area. It took the form of a discussion about teaching and learning, followed by an interrogation of what and where there were moments of opportunity to focus on the school’s core values. Teachers then devised a series of lesson plans for two terms to address the core values.

Students completed written work in the main, and teachers completed observations and evaluations. During the teaching, three formal focus groups took place to discuss changes in pupils learning. Each teacher was observed on two occasions by the deputy head and another researcher; comments were fed back to the focus group. Two videotapes were also used in the analysis. Each subject area used different types of intervention which are briefly described in the findings section of each subject area.

A control group and an experimental group took part in the same topics in the same subject area, but the control group did not have the values intervention. Pupils were given a questionnaire to complete at the beginning of the year. The results were entered into a computer program, which produced statistical data identifying the most significant values for each pupil. Seven months later, the same instrument was used on the same pupils in the same way, enabling judgements to be made about changes in the way pupils understood school values. Comparisons were made between the control group and the experimental group. After the second tranche of repertory grids was elicited, the data was analysed from a range of perspectives using INGRID and DELTA systems. The mean of each pupil’s rating score on each construct (1-9) was calculated for the first and second grid. The first and second grids were then put through DELTA to provide a correlation statistic, measuring the degree of correlation between the grids in relation to the nine constructs.
### Type of study

Exploration of relationships

### Findings

| Details |
|------------------|------------------|
| Consultation resulted in nine core values: |
| Valuing ourselves |
| Valuing others |
| Justice |
| Forgiveness |
| Truth |
| Trustworthiness |
| Stewardship |
| Fulfilling our potential |
| Faith in Christ |

Curriculum audit and pupil perceptions:

286 constructs in total. 35 (or 12.2%) related to positive interpersonal relationships. Values relating to friendship were more important than others, signifying an alternative conception to the ‘autonomous self’ to the conception of ‘persons in relation’.

29 constructs related to self-identity (10.1), which overlapped with equality which numbered 17 (5.9%). However, the most significant family of constructs were those related to learning, achievement and excellence (65 in number; 22.7%). 34 (11.9%) related to Christian faith and 25 (8.8%) related to moral development or knowing right from wrong. The environment was important to pupils with 26 (9.1%) responses received, but constructs related to the curriculum were scarce (1.1% or 3 in number).

Teachers and staff:

62 constructs in total. As with the students, learning and achievement was the most significant family of constructs (22.6% or 14). Valuing interpersonal relations and teamwork were identified in 9 (14.5%) of the constructs. This is consistent with the findings from the pupils on the value of interpersonal relationships. Valuing equality in terms of meeting the needs of all pupils was found in 7 (11.3%) constructs with 11 (17.7%) relating to the environment, in particular the learning environment, in terms of resources and space. 8 constructs referred in some way to the Christian foundation of the school, most commonly in terms of its historical roots and its influence on the ethos and mood of the school, but not directly related (or relevant) to the context. 5 (8.1%) constructs related to the curriculum in terms of its breadth and scope, rather than the content.

Overall, this stage of the research confirmed and supported the findings of the values consultation, highlighting the importance of positive relationships for both teachers and pupils, and a desire for all pupils to achieve highly.

Interestingly, the curriculum was highlighted as needing further development and commitment in terms of delivering spiritual, moral, social and cultural education.

After the planned intervention, the results were as follows (by subject area):

**Science:** Pupils conducted an experiment of working in groups over the course of three one-hour sessions. At the beginning of the last lesson, the teacher introduced the nine school values for pupils to consider in relation to the experiment. The results were recorded through a brainstorming session and included the following: respecting the comments of others; listening to others’ ideas; sharing equipment; not making up results; forgiving other people’s mistakes; and trusting people.

The next intervention in science was focused on blood transfusions. This took place over a week and included homework. Two worksheets were completed; the second was given as homework a week after the first and revealed how Charles Drew died from a road traffic accident and was refused a blood transfusion from a whites-only hospital. The pupils’ responses were quite emotive.

Correlations were found between the way pupils dealt with the values prior to the intervention and after, resulting in the view that values intervention encouraged a reflective searching for deeper meanings to events and issues. They also encouraged pupil responsiveness.

**French:** 14/15 year-olds, average ability and a little disaffected with French (especially the boys). Most of the sessions were focused on real-life examples, thus appearing to deal with values, but pupils did not initially
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling

appear to make the links between what they were doing in class and a real-life scenario that would relate to them. The pupils were given a test and an information technology project that provided a summary of what had been learned.

In a topic that required students to decide on what they wanted in their community, respect, justice and valuing others emerged as important considerations. The rules that the community would abide by enabled the school’s core values to be considered in greater depth and application.

In a topic about food and drink, questioning that elicited deeper meanings was characteristic of the intervention, and resulted in discussions about underlying values and prejudices regarding foreign food and cultures. When discussing the values, the teacher related them to life in the school, thereby providing a ‘lived’ perspective. However, the development of language skills was considered to be restrictive, leading to considerations of developing the language skills from year 7 (11/12 year-olds).

RE: 14/15 year olds, middle ability. Social class, gender, ethnic origins and free school meals register were examined to ensure that the group reflected as far as possible the most holistic view of pupils attending the school.

Having recently explored the notion of commitment, pupils were required to think about their personal journal and consider what type of commitment was required at each stage. Explicit intervention about the how the Christian faith was a pre-requisite was then considered. Pupils voluntarily offered baptism and marriage in church as important stages in their personal journey. A story about baptism followed and pupils discussed the importance of being able to practise a religion so long as it was ‘acceptable to a tolerant society’ which lead on to a consideration of justice.

Geography: Age 11/12 years, mixed ability, but in reality above average.

Values targeted were stewardship and respecting others. This took the form of discussion, through role-play, about a new road being built. Lessons were recorded on video and pupils were reminded of respect for others when becoming passionate about their cause!

In another intervention, students examined the shape of the earth, where they were given a story about the Western understanding of the earth’s shape. This led to a discussion about Galileo’s punishment for his mathematical theories, whilst also accepting the church and God. Students wrote their reflections in silence and they were then read aloud to the class.

Geography: On a fieldtrip, pupils identified trust as a key value: trusting the boat driver and teachers, and teachers trusting the pupils.

The theme of forgiveness arose in a session that required the interpretation of photographs, written and verbal anecdotes about the rebuilding of Bristol after bomb damage. There were comments that noted the need to forgive some actions of others in order to move forward in life. The explanation of values has added an extra dimension to the curriculum, involving a spiritual, reflective approach to discussions which built up trust and respect through the sharing of ideas.

Music: 13/14 years, mixed ability.

Having composed a piece of music, the pupils were involved in a peer-assessment exercise which involved discussion of truth, sympathy and empathy, and involved skills in listening and respect for others.

In a group work activity in music, the teacher initiated a discussion of values related to teamwork and the class engaged in a brainstorming session about what skills and values were required to work in a team. At the same time as discussing the value of teamwork, the pupils had to display the appropriate skills in order to meet the outcomes of the lesson. The pupils found that it was important to treat people equally and fairly, to listen to others and appraise them. This had an impact on the way they worked in groups in other lessons as this session was used as a point of reference, thus resulting in the values being used as a tool to transfer learning.

The quality of thinking and talking was significant to the whole process in enhancing the learning that took place. The intervention addressed the whole person as a learner and resulted in teachers relating to the pupils differently. Consequently the teachers felt that a ‘one-off’ personal, social and health education (PSHE) slot was inappropriate, preferring an environment in which the teacher meets the pupils in other contexts. Thinking skills went beyond what would normally occur in the subject lessons.

Conclusions

The quality of thinking and talking was significant to the whole process in enhancing the learning that took place. The intervention addressed the whole person as a learner and resulted in teachers relating to the pupils differently. Consequently the teachers felt that a ‘one-off’ PSHE slot was inappropriate, preferring an environment in which the teacher meets the pupils in other contexts. Thinking skills went beyond what would
Teachers discussed the two years’ research and came up with three groups of outcomes:

1. **Pupil development**: Values intervention provided a vehicle that enabled pupils to make sense and meaning out of their learning. However, a gap was identified between theory and practice that requires further spiritual, moral, social and cultural development.

2. **Making connections**: Dialogue is the most appropriate medium to explore this gap, so that pupils can name and speak of their experiences. The researchers state that the importance of quality discourse cannot be underestimated. Discussion of values resulted in some instances in an energy to embark on action related to the chosen topic. This fits well with the citizenship aim to enhance community involvement.

3. **Holistic curriculum**: Values intervention adopts a holistic relationship between pupils and teachers, rather than concentrating on just the cognitive needs. Teachers involved felt that, in order to deliver the interventions well, they needed to move beyond their normal teaching resources and consider global issues, thus resulting in professional development. This led them to consider their teaching to be more purposeful as it provided an added dimension to their subject. Overall, the research demonstrates the ability to operationalise an approach to spirituality that is integrated with everyday life and experience.

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<table>
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<tr>
<th>What are the broad aims of the study?</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. To consider Hargreaves theory of school improvement</td>
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<td>2. To examine the theories implicit in Her Majesty’s Inspectors’ (HMI) reports</td>
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<td>3. To consider if the re-culturing of the teaching profession would lead to an improvement in the outcomes of education</td>
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<tr>
<th>What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?</th>
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<td>The three theoretical perspectives outlined in the aims are considered through the case study. It is not clear whether there was an overt research question or hypothesis.</td>
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<th>Study design summary</th>
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<td>The study is explicitly stated as a small-scale case study. It takes place against the backdrop of a range of theoretical interests of the researcher. There is no explanation as to whether these perspectives are objectives or a range of subjective interests of the researcher. The case study is conducted by interview on a face-to-face basis. 5 teachers, 3 support staff and 8 students participated in the study in a primary school.</td>
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<th>Type of study</th>
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<td>Exploration of relationships</td>
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<th>Findings</th>
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<td>Individual teacher and co-professional voices and descriptions suggest as outcomes, self-confidence, decision-making, co-operation, and conflict resolution skills, with pupils involved in policy development on behaviour. There were Pupil accounts and claims of emerging political consciousness. Pupils like a listening forum and like the fact that the school listens. ‘The overall impression from these conversations with the pupils, and from their pictures, is that they consider the school council to be important; it gives them opportunity to speak and be heard; it is a pleasant experience; important items are discussed; the school and governors all take this seriously; decisions are all taken in a non-threatening way, by consensus; they have an understanding of aspects of democracy in action.’</td>
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<th>Conclusions</th>
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<tr>
<td>Flecknoe argues that Hargreaves in his ‘capital’ theory of school effectiveness and improvement identifies that developing the intellectual and social capital amongst staff supports school improvement. The author</td>
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</table>
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

concludes that the development of pupils with concurrent changes in attitudes towards staff is a missing dimension. The institution of democratic procedures has heightened respect for teachers by the pupils involved in the school council. Trust has developed between these two groups and particularly between quiet and potentially disruptive pupils. The author is unclear as to the follow-through potential of democratic participation into adult life and expresses his view as a hope rather than a conclusion.

The HMI implicit theory of citizenship. Flecknoe suggests that HMI argue for involvement in issues which are not of great consequence. This, he states, leads to potential tokenism and Flecknoe notes that much discussion in the school council centres on behaviour and is thus seen as important. Pupils affect the content of sex-education lessons. He concludes that democratic participation must centre around real issues and not peripheral ones in order to change behaviours and develop an inclusive agenda with the democratic community as the centre of educational leadership. This links to work by Furmann and Storratt (2002). They argue that the perceived risks of democracy are chaos and loss of control. Flecknoe extends this to suggest that this is possibly the reason as to why HMI avoid structural change in schools linked to pupil opinion or decision-making. Flecknoe concludes that teacher sensitivity to student views is enhanced and that pupils listen to each other to a greater extent. Flecknoe asserts that the study is inherently limited and he expresses concerns over reliability and the impact of the study in terms of generalisation. He does, however, claim his study to be a good basis for further research and discussion.


What are the broad aims of the study?
The study draws on qualitative data gathered in two English comprehensive schools and explores the powerful lessons that are being taught through the daily interactions with students. The paper highlights some of the problems and possibilities that currently exist, arguing that one of the most pressing needs is to recognise and challenge the racism that operates in school and society.

What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?
These are not made explicit.

Study design summary
The study utilised a general investigation using participant observation of lessons, assemblies and after-school events, questionnaires, interviews with staff and students and analysis of documents.

Type of study
Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention

Findings
In the first school:
The Afro-Caribbean students emerged as the single most controlled and criticised group in the school. They were frequently criticised for behaviour for which white and Asian students were not criticised. Teachers were responding differently to Afro-Caribbean students.
For white and Asian students, reasons given for two-thirds of detentions were 'rule-breaking', whereas for Afro-Caribbean students, about half the detentions were for much less clearly defined reasons, including attitude. These were based on the interpretation of the teachers, rather than evidence of rule-breaking.
Both white teachers and Afro-Caribbean students tended to view the conflict between them as racial in character, not just teacher versus student, but black versus white.
Despite benign intentions, teachers played an active role in re-creating the racial structuring of educational experience and opportunity.
In the second school:
The manner in which the school addressed the crisis of the Gulf War was pro-active in supporting each student’s right to their own view, but refused to support one side or another. Staff monitored student attitudes
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

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<th>Study</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Journal/Volume/Issue</th>
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**What are the broad aims of the study?**

Whilst Citizenship Education has been compulsory at secondary level since September 2002, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) recommends it for implementation at the primary phase. The study seeks to review the various interpretations of the QCA advice. It also reports on research carried out in two contrasting primary schools in which teachers’ current beliefs and practices in social and moral education are evaluated along with children’s perceptions of teaching.

**What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?**

1. What are the teachers’ perceptions of moral and social education?
2. What provision do they make for moral and social education?
3. What are the children’s perceptions of social and moral education?
4. How does provision for social and moral education relate to education for citizenship?

**Study design summary**

The study was an evaluation of two contrasting schools’ approaches to social and moral education, through interviews of individuals, focus groups, observations and analysis of documentation. 9 teachers and 7 groups of children participated.

**Type of study**

Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention

**Findings**

Social education was seen as the teaching of social skills and a socialising process, which underpinned all that teachers did. This was seen as compensating for what the home does not teach and as the creation of a necessary structure for school. Moral education was found to be difficult for teachers to define. No teachers mentioned a policy for social and moral education, although the ethos, the atmosphere and the way children were treated was paramount. There was little planning, and moral and social education was seen as something that is done instinctively and comes into all aspects of teaching. Moral and social development took place in a wide variety of contexts in the curriculum, but circle time was cited by most. Teachers usually set the agenda for what would be discussed in moral and social education. Both schools set high expectations of behaviour and conflict resolution. Among the middle-class, schoolteachers felt that the parents would foster the same values, but in the low socio-economic area, teachers felt the opposite. In the two schools, discussion and debate in literacy hour was used for moral and social development. These followed a pattern of teacher talk predominating. The children had a complex understanding of social relationships and right and wrong, even from an early age. They were usually aware of the purposes of lessons and understood expected behaviour in a variety of contexts. They perceived the school as encouraging them to take responsibility for their own actions. They could reflect on their own learning in social and moral education, and acknowledged that this guided their behaviour. They felt learning at home and school was the same, with some exceptions, and acknowledged that much took place in the playground, especially when they had responsibility for sorting out...
Conclusions

The schools seem to be successful in many aspects of social and moral education. This was evidenced by students being able to articulate their learning. They were able to think about their emotions and engage in interpersonal problem-solving and develop an inner locus of control. Many of the areas of citizenship, as defined in the new curriculum, were in place. Teachers anticipated more moral values driven education coming from structured lessons, whilst the experience of pupils was that learning in this area took place more from classroom activities and in the playground.

There was a lack of policy which meant that teachers and parents were not equally informed. Thus, with a common lack of language and understanding there was a difficulty in defining the subject. There was also a perceived disparity between the views of parents and teachers, which were sometimes seen as at odds with each other.

Many areas of the QCA guidelines appeared to be touched on by a wide range of teachers. Some aspects, such as conflict resolution, were covered in detail and some only received a cursory response. The global dimension was cited as being inadequately covered.

There was a degree of imposition and there was held to be a need to allow the pupils to define agendas of importance to them. This was seen as part of the promotion of the democratic process.

Professional development is seen as necessary in order to allow for a building of both content and knowledge and allow for greater flexibility of delivery.

Research is identified as desirable in the area of parents as co-educators. Evidence of a lack of consensus between home and school was found. This would need to encompass the variations in views from ethnic minorities. Despite the two schools being ostensibly successful, there were areas of weakness and lack of clarity.

Neither had a common policy, and they were left assuming they had a set of shared values. Many teachers found it difficult to define social and moral education, and some saw parents as promoting different values and problems. Few teachers allowed students to set the agenda for class debate or to participate significantly in class discussion.

There were only some aspects of citizenship education covered in these schools and there was much missing. Schools will need to include a wider brief for citizenship: rights and responsibilities beyond the school; discussion of democratic processes, human rights and a values-based framework from which students can make decisions; and participation by students in debate and agenda-setting.


What are the broad aims of the study?

The focus of the study is the professional morality of teachers and the strategies used to cope with socio-moral dilemmas which arise during learning situations in schools in Israel.

It examines the factors which explain the choice of variance in the selection of these teaching strategies.

What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?

1. In what manner do elementary school teachers deal with socio-moral dilemmas and the issues that arise in the classroom or school?
2. Are there any context-specific differences in teacher’s choices of strategies for dealing with dilemmas?
3. What characterises teachers who typically choose specific (and specified) teaching strategies?

Study design summary

Anonymous questionnaire administered to 480 teachers representing 62% of the teachers in 37 elementary schools. These were selected from Government lists. The study focussed on the exploration of relationships.

Type of study

Exploration of relationships
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

Findings
The study shows that there are a number of different ways for coping in an instructive manner with social and learning conflicts or dilemmas in the classroom or school contexts. A private talk or dialogue with the pupils involved was chosen by the largest number of teachers (44%) for dealing with various conflicting situations. The two discourse strategies were chosen almost equally: (i) organising a classroom discussion and then telling pupils how to act was selected in a wide range of situations by 18% of the teachers, and (ii) organising a discussion in class and finding a solution acceptable to the pupils was chosen by 19%. In general, teachers did not normally disregard socio-moral dilemmas nor did they delegate conflicts to other school authorities, such as the principal, counsellor, supervisor, etc. Similarly, telling the pupils how to act was not usually viewed as an acceptable strategy. A less frequently used strategy was to delegate the issue to parents.

Different strategies were chosen by teachers according to the content or situation of the dilemma. Concerning integrity in interpersonal related issues, more than half the teachers chose to solve the conflict in a personal talk with the pupils concerned, with no general class discussion. Issues involving physical and verbal violence such as altercation, laughter or mockery, resulted in the preferential selection of discussions during a lesson, using incomplete or complete discourse equally. This division, between dilemmas involving integrity and those involving violence, was found to be statistically significant. In an initial factor analysis method (principle components), two factors were retained by the Mineigen criterion. Table II shows this analysis after the rotated factor pattern.

Factor analysis dividing the dilemmas into two factors showed that the first factor included dilemmas dealing with integrity (Dilemma 2, 3, 4 and 6) and the second factor included dilemmas dealing with verbal and non-verbal violence (Dilemma I and 5). The Cl reliability coefficient for factor I (the integrity factor) was Cl = 0.859 and for factor II (the violence factor) was Cl = 0.794.

Findings from the regression analysis indicate that the background variables, in teaching contexts and the belief systems indices, contributed differentially to the explanation of the teachers’ choice of strategies for dealing with socio-moral dilemmas.

The content area, which explained the variance most effectively, was the belief system indices of interests, values, standpoints and satisfaction with pedagogical and social issues. Social and personal values explained high evaluation of responsibility and discourse with students.

The second area, which contributed to the explanation, was the teaching context, which included indices of school background such as district, and school processes such as professional norms and interactions at school (including in-service training and the Talbert & McLaughlin (1994) indices). The context indices show that the districts have differential contributions to choice of strategy. Participating in service training raises awareness of socio-moral issues. The supportive community of teachers explains the preference for discourse with pupils.

The final area, which contributed to the explanation, was personal background, including the extent of religious observance and use of the mass media. The contribution of mass media was not consistent, while religious observance and teaching seniority explained strategies of taking responsibility for dealing with socio-moral dilemmas.

Conclusions
An ethical dimension is perceived by elementary school teachers in the Israeli State religious system as an integral part of their educational perspective and of their pedagogical knowledge and responsibility. A consensus on professional morality is seen as a key dimension of the profession. Discourse about a democratic society is seen as essential to the educational process.

Teachers recognise and accept the responsibility of the school system for resolving dilemmas. Over one-third of the socio moral dilemmas are dealt with in the context of the classroom in a way that exposes all the pupils to a shared experience of situations of conflict, confrontation, exchange of views or multi-directional thinking, as well as cooperative decision-making and responsibility for action.

Private talk or dialogue between teacher and pupil is the most common pedagogical behaviour. This is linked to ‘cognitive coaching’, suggesting a way of thinking and working which invites self and others to shape and reshape their thinking and problem solving capacities. The goal is to become intentionally holonomous (that is, one who thinks autonomously and works interdependently).

Content-specific differentiation in teaching strategies was used to resolve socio-moral dilemmas. Within and between differences can be explained according to the situated cognition and socio-cultural and emancipatory
Constructivism

Teacher beliefs and values system contributes to their choice of strategy. This increases the importance of expanding teacher’s socio-moral value orientation and their multi-cultural perception to develop a reasoned, comprehensive and flexible socio-moral credo.

School district policy influences the teacher choice of strategy; choice depends in part on a decentralised educational policy. Teachers are best able to make appropriate choice of strategies in professional learning communities, rather than in a context where teacher support is absent and a 'technical culture' exists.

Expressions of teacher dissatisfaction with elements of the school environment contribute to choice of strategies. Personal background variables least explain choice of strategies and could be thus combined with teacher beliefs and values, forming the 'personal and ideological' belief system of the teacher. The study suggests that socio-moral issues should be dealt with in schools, using strategies for self-reflection, dialogue and discourse. Coping with socio-moral dilemmas may contribute effectively to the construction and development of teachers' and pupils' meta cognitive, decision-making and problem-solving competencies. The choice of a coping strategy depends on a wide range of content, situation, cultural and historical factors as well as the teachers' belief systems and the teaching context.


What are the broad aims of the study?

To empirically test a theoretical multilevel model of promoting pro social behaviour in secondary aged pupils, by stimulating specific educational conditions. Interventions were used at a school level to check whether, and how, this impacted on pupil level effects.

What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?

To examine whether pupil effects in terms of social behaviour occur because of educational changes at classroom and school levels, involving increased pupil participation and responsibility in specifying and controlling behavioural and didactic rules.

Study design summary

Seven schools in total agreed to participate in the study, comprising four intervention schools and three control schools. The study focused on pupils in years 1 and 3 (year 1 was 11/12 year-olds and year 3 was 13/14 year-olds); it had a longitudinal group of 352 pupils. The study took place over three years (1995-97 inclusive). Pre-tests and post-tests were carried out with all schools in order to compare the results of the intervention. Teachers and pupils completed the questionnaires relating to these tests. The schools involved were aware of research findings of a previous survey that related to their school and levels of pupil aggression.

Pre-test numbers: 39 form teachers, 596 first-year pupils and 364 third-year pupils.


Longitudinal group: 352 pupils

During the period between pre- and post-test, teachers worked together to develop their school practice alongside guidance from the researchers; they met researchers bi-monthly.

A school working group was established to deal with ‘social behaviour’ and, where possible, ‘cognitive learning behaviour’. Teachers presented ‘positive’ measures that dealt with social and cognitive learning characteristics of education. They discussed and developed more attractive didactic approaches to vary the social processes during lessons. Teachers met in their working groups to discuss, clarify and stimulate new ideas. A researcher observed lessons and followed up with explanatory interviews with the teachers. Teachers compared, discussed and formulated concepts that related to rules. This was a ‘prototypical’ formulation that concretised the intention to be strict on pro-social behaviour.

The quantitative data for teachers and pupils was then checked, using two-tailed testing and statistical data packages, including SPSS, to verify the validity of the intervention used.

Multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the longitudinal intervention results.

Type of study

Evaluation: Researcher-manipulated intervention
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

Findings

Some results were found concerning the social pedagogical scale variables and the didactic aspects related to the percentages of lesson time that pupils spend while working differentially. One school scored higher on the sharing of responsibility of class rules on the post-test compared with the pre-test. In the same school, whole group teaching was reduced and individuals worked on different tasks as part of the intervention. Pupils experiencing positive relationships between persons in class at post-test time varied between the experimental and control schools. The sharing of responsibility of school rules increased in three of the four intervention schools. This did not happen in the control schools. The author provides a detailed statistical account of how each variable was measured and the results of the intervention according to post-test results.

Conclusions

The multilevel hypothesis was confirmed, but the author argues that a three-level analysis rather than a two-level analysis would provide more useful insights for bigger groups. It is argued that the theoretical model could provide a first prototypic indicator system for school quality. Schools could have a clearer view on their primary processes and effects if they could plan and evaluate their own social, cognitive, didactic and organisational development. Too many 'improvements' are put forward without consideration of their adequacy, fit or proof of real effects. The author concluded that the most relevant school characteristics appear to be: regular ways of teachers and pupils to get along, which includes the pupils in the making of such rules; flexible learning and planning strategies, with the pupils involved if they are going to take responsibility for living up to the rules; involvement of all interested parties when promoting pro social and cognitive behaviour; and varied methods of delivery are important.


What are the broad aims of the study?

To assess the extent of use of peer-support systems, along with an evaluation of the benefits and problems associated with the systems from the perspectives of teachers who are involved and teachers who are not involved in running the systems, peer supporters, and year 7 and year 9 potential and actual users.

What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?

The study was a questionnaire survey of secondary school pupils and their teachers from schools where a peer-support system had been in place for at least one year, which aimed to elicit the perspectives and experiences of participants.

Study design summary

The questionnaire survey sought the perspectives and experiences of the following groups in each of the participating schools: (i) a tutor group of year 7 (aged 11/12) users (n=20 to 30); (ii) a tutor group of year 9 (aged 13/14) users (n= 20 to 30); (iii) as many of the peer supporters as possible; (iv) the teachers involved in running the systems; and (v) three or four of the teachers not involved in running the systems.

Type of study

Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention

Findings

The three most commonly mentioned benefits for users were: that the service provided 'somebody who listens', 'the strength to overcome the problem' and that it 'shows that somebody cares'. The year 7 and year 9 pupils were less enthusiastic about these benefits than the peer supporters and both groups of teachers. For all groups, the most frequently mentioned benefit is that users are 'provided with the strength to overcome their bullying problems'. The two most frequently mentioned benefits of being a peer supporter concerned the acquisition of skills and a demonstration that they cared. The users of the systems were less likely to comment on skill acquisition.
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling


What are the broad aims of the study?
To illuminate and interpret children's moral consciousness and the part played by discussion in helping to foster moral development.

What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?
The study sought to find categories of meaning, and propositions that sum up main themes that emerge from transcripts of children's conversations with each other and their deliberations and reflections on moral and social dilemmas.
Can a 'community of inquiry' enhance moral awareness in young people?

Study design summary
The study used the Constant Comparative method to sort through transcripts of children's moral deliberations within Thinking Time sessions. There were two groups of children (one aged 7-8 and the other aged 11-12) from two schools. These were analysed for key themes, meanings and patterns.
Type of study
Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention

Findings
Fairness was a theme that was central to the children’s discussions. Children tend to begin with broad definitions and then refine their ideas following interaction with others. Fair was first defined as quantitative equality and then expanded by the older group to include forgiveness and reciprocity. The older children used more deductive reasoning and made more distinctions. Both groups used utilitarian considerations. Boys in the younger group were adamant that rules must be kept for fairness, then later saw fairness as equity taking account of, and accommodating, individual difference. The girls saw fairness in terms of sharing in awareness of another’s need.

Responsibility and choice was another theme. One must do what is right and take responsibility for that decision. Choices demand courage and a sense of responsibility.

The value of human life takes precedence over legal considerations when the two are in conflict.

Empathic and impartial reasoning: Both boys and girls used impartial and empathic reasoning interchangeably depending on the context.

Gender differences: Younger boys were more concerned with keeping rules within fairness, whereas the younger girls were more concerned with equity. Sharing was an important part of girls play; they made no allusion to rules in playing again. Girls felt an obligation to report damage accidentally caused; boys did not.

Authenticity: There was a strong leaning in the data for all children included to choose the good for its own sake. Authenticity means one had to do what one thought was right even if that conflicted with authority.

Respecting others: There was a consensus in both groups that one must respect others and that involved the inclusion of the marginalised in society, according them equal rights on the basis of common humanity. Exclusion was unfair and unacceptable. Colour or race did not have special connotations for the younger group.

Both groups probed the meaning and attributes of true friendship. One must possess the qualities that one demands in a friend and one only knows oneself through relationships with others. Loyalty and trust are hallmarks of true friendship for the older group. There was a high level of moral awareness and developing sensitivity in the groups.

The older children’s superior ability to articulate enables higher levels of reflections. There was a high level of participation by children who have learning difficulties in other areas. There was value in dialogue in boosting a child’s confidence. Having a voice, they felt that what they said mattered and others listened.

There were different levels of thinking evident between older and younger groups. The more able children provided ‘scaffolding’ for the less able and challenged their thinking. Children at the highest level of ability raised the level of the discussion. Children displayed different levels of thinking at different stages of the discussion. Towards the end of the discussion, children would make statements that attempted to clinch the meaning.

Conclusions
The conclusions of the study emerged from the headings of the data transcripts that are presented in the findings. The overall conclusion is that dialogue has a role to play in fostering reflective thinking, understanding, tolerance and respect for others. It demonstrates the importance of student voice.

This study has implications for pedagogy, which the author lists as:
- change in the role of teacher from didactic methods to dialogue
- improved relationships
- fostering inclusiveness
- transfer of skills to other areas


What are the broad aims of the study?
To investigate and provide evidence of:
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

1. How primary and secondary schools see school councils as contributing to their provision for citizenship education, the life of the school as a whole and to the personal and social development of students
2. Whether, and if so, to what extent, students’ involvement in school councils:
   a. gives them a voice in school matters and enables them to act as agents of change
   b. facilitates their political literacy, especially their awareness and understanding of democratic processes, practices and participation
   c. encourages them to participate in civic activities in and around their school community
3. Issues in the development, implementation and review of the impact of school councils on young people’s personal, social and democratic learning.

(p 15-16)

What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?

As aims:
1. How primary and secondary schools see school councils as contributing to their provision for citizenship education, the life of the school as a whole and to the personal and social development of students
2. Whether, and if so, to what extent, students’ involvement in school councils:
   a. gives them a voice in school matters and enables them to act as agents of change
   b. facilitates their political literacy, especially their awareness and understanding of democratic processes, practices and participation
   c. encourages them to participate in civic activities in and around their school community
3. Issues in the development, implementation and review of the impact of school councils on young people’s personal, social and democratic learning

(p 16)

Study design summary

This was a two-phase study. Initially, telephone interviews were carried out with teacher leaders of school councils in 50 schools (25 primary and 25 secondary) to gather cross-sectional data that described the issues in running school councils. Secondly, case studies using 7 schools (3 primary, 4 secondary) were used to gather in-depth data using observations of school councils and interviews with student councillors and non-councillors. Research methodology described in Appendix 1.

Type of study

Description: Descriptive data considering the aims and roles of school councils, the organisation, representation and participation within school councils, and practical issues in running school councils
Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention
Perceptions considering the processes and impact of school councils on schools and outcomes for students

Findings

This book describes practical issues of running school councils and provides the perceptions of students, using their own voices, about their engagement in and their learning from school councils.

Details
From Section 2
1. The majority of teacher leaders of the school council were members of the senior management team (SMT) in the school.
2. The teacher leaders perceived their roles differently, some as facilitator, others as secretary or chairperson.
3. Secondary schools were more likely to have had a school council in place for longer, on average twice as long as primary schools.
4. Secondary schools were more likely than primary schools to report difficulties in setting up school councils; these included staff reluctance, timing of meetings and the very nature of the school itself.
5. The main aims of the school council were giving students a voice; enhancing personal and social skills; and developing citizenship as part of the national curriculum, and development of school as a community.

From Section 3
1. Overall, most schools in the sample held their council meetings once every half term. Secondary school councils tended to meet during lunchtime for an hour, while in primary schools, the council was more likely to meet during lesson time for half an hour.
2. Only a quarter of schools had a budget for the council; some raised money, when needed, from a range of
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

3. Just over half the councils included two representatives from each year group; younger age groups in both phases were more likely to be excluded from the school council.
4. In up to one quarter of the schools, other teachers were invited or involved as appropriate; there was little other adult involvement.
5. Elections for councillors were held in four-fifths of schools.
6. In the majority of schools, councillors had some preparation for their role.
7. In most schools, councillors obtained ideas from classmates for the school council agenda, but the process was sometimes informal and not institutionalised.
8. Topics for discussion were wide ranging, but often focused on facilities, playground, school buildings, organisation of school day, fundraising and catering.
9. The taking of notes from the meetings of the school council was a variable practice and not surprisingly was more likely to be undertaken by a student secretary in secondary schools.
10. Feedback to peers, teachers, other staff and governors was a weak link in the information giving and consultative process.

From Section 4
1. Observations of school council meetings indicated several practical issues about the conduct of meetings, including provision of a suitable place, space and time; length of time topics were discussed; and the status of the meetings.
2. The nature of the chairperson gave rise to different styles of meeting.
3. Participation in meetings was sometimes an issue, with a significant minority of people not making any active contribution.
4. Some councillors understood the need to represent peers, but head teacher chairpersons were aware of the need to emphasis the importance of consultation and representation.
5. The council itself could be an example of evolving, flexible and increasingly democratic practices.

From Section 5
1. Teacher leaders perceived the majority of councillors to be positive about the school council and their roles. There were some challenging issues, including student apathy, students disheartened at the pace of change and age-related differences.
2. Councillors’ attitudes to their experiences of being councillors were positive; they were motivated, enjoyed helping to run the school and liked the responsibility. However, there were some challenges in generating ideas, meeting diverse needs and personal tensions, socially and as a student.
3. Teacher leaders’ perceptions of non-councillors views were mixed and less positive, dependent on the achievements of the council.
4. The perceptions of non-councillors in two schools were largely positive.
5. Primary teacher leaders thought that teaching colleagues considered the council worthwhile, but only a third of secondary teachers thought so.

From Section 6
1. The main benefits for the school as a whole were perceived as being the creation of a forum in which students were able to discuss their views and concerns; Improving school ethos; allowing students to contribute to the running of the school, and having a mutually informative process for staff and students.
2. Most teacher leaders had encountered some difficulties or disadvantages of having school councils: time-pressures, student disillusionment about pace of change and keeping the momentum going.
3. Most teacher leaders reported at least one practical change as a result of having a school council. Changes were most likely to be improved facilities or equipment; organisation of breaks and procedure; refurbishment of toilets; uniform change; or better catering. Changes relating to curriculum and teaching were less likely to have occurred.
4. Teacher leaders perceived a wide range of learning outcomes for councillors, including communication (speaking and discussion), experience of meetings, political grounding and taking increasing responsibility.
5. Teachers were far less clear about benefits for non-councillors, suggesting insights into the democratic process and communication. This was dependent on the structures in place to ensure genuine student participation.
6. Councillors described their learning in relation to two main areas: (i) personal, social and problem-solving skills, and (ii) developing awareness and understanding of democratic procedures and practices.
Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

**Conclusions**

Guidelines offered:
1. Councils need to be given prominent status within schools.
2. A member of senior management needs to be in charge of running the council in order to give it status.
3. Whole staff meetings need to be provided to ensure that all staff members are fully aware.
4. Encourage governors to become involved.
5. Set clear achievable aims for the council from the outset.
6. Use elections to encourage political literacy.
7. Include school councils in joined up PSE and citizenship education provision.
8. Decide the optimum frequency, timing during the school day and length of meetings, but expect these to be a process of trial and error.
9. Invite non-teaching staff, parents, and governor representatives.
10. Be aware of potential financial resources.
11. Take practical steps to overcome time constraints.
12. Give special consideration to the involvement of younger students if they are included in the council.
13. It may be helpful to get ex-councillors to talk to prospective councillors and to provide additional preparation for the role of being a school councillor.
14. Try to cultivate a school ethos where being a councillor is respected and sought after.
15. Give all students the opportunity to make suggestions.
16. Do not rely on students to provide feedback to classmates without initiation and support from a teacher.
17. Ensure that each classroom has an ongoing record of council decisions.
18. Ensure ideas are attributed to the classes where they originated.

Many of the practical issues identified in the literature still exist in schools. Moreover, there is evidence of mixed effects on student learning, especially between councillors and non-councillors in terms of student learning. Setting up a school council is not necessarily a guarantee of student participation, positive attitudes or progressive practices.

School councils can promote key skills, such as personal and social skills, and some awareness and understanding of democratic practices. Schools need to be more explicitly self-conscious about how the school council fits with wider decision-making approaches in school.

The school council can offer the possibility, through democratic means, of influencing and facilitating change in a way that positively affects the student environment. This can produce a sense of student empowerment and ownership which may, in turn, produce powerful attitudinal outcomes. Having a school council may, however, raise expectations beyond what is realistic within the school framework.

In terms of the citizenship education strand of political literacy, the actual experience of the school council, as a councillor, and to a lesser extent as a member of the school community, complements the teaching process.

Students may develop skills of listening and speaking, discussion, negotiation, teamwork, asking for others’ views and representing them, arguing a point of view and taking a range of information into account when decision-making. Where the council works well, it may foster collaborative learning.

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**What are the broad aims of the study?**

To investigate graduates' opinions of their experiences and what they had gained from the experience of completing Unified Studies education. (p 11)

**What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses?**

Interview transcripts were analysed around the following terms which, whilst not described as research questions, show the kinds of questions that the researchers wanted to answer:

1. Experiences of Unified Studies
2. Feelings towards Unified Studies, have these feelings changed from when the programme was completed
3. Memorable experiences of Unified Studies

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Appendix 4.1: Details of studies included in the in-depth review

| 4. Perceptions of the aims of Unified Studies teachers, what worked and what failed |
| 5. Relationships with people in the Unified Studies group |
| 6. The kinds of changes they would like to see to Unified Studies, based on their experiences |
| 7. Whether they would recommend Unified Studies to others |
| 8. How things learnt through Unified Studies have influenced their life |
| 9. The kind of credit received for the class and whether it was deserved |
| 10. Whether it was an easy class |

**Study design summary**

This is a retrospective interview and questionnaire study of graduates from the last twenty years who completed the Unified Studies programme.

The paper reports results from two studies of graduates who, during the previous 20 years, had engaged in a high school programme, Unified Studies. They were invited to give their perceptions and views through interview or questionnaire on their experiences in those programmes and what they had gained from those experiences. 106 people were interviewed (7% of all graduates) 73 people filled in the questionnaire at the reunion and 131 filled in the questionnaire when it was sent out (15% of all graduates).

**Type of study**

Evaluation: Naturally-occurring intervention

**Findings**

These findings provide evidence that a unique, experiential high-school curriculum, not specifically designed to cultivate character, may help produce outcomes such as a desirable character education environment, positive changes in students’ lives, and students’ appreciation for people and the environment, without inhibiting their academic achievement and interest in going to college. These outcomes suggest that character and a kind of moral sensibility can be learned indirectly in a high-school setting.

‘… academic subject matter possesses within it intrinsic meaning and moral lessons; thus, the practical road to character education for teens may lie in real life experiences, where the student is off and running in the excitement of discovering and considering moral issues embedded in all subjects’ (p 30).

The success of this approach depends highly on teachers who understand the value of these ideas. This approach does not preclude the use of formal character education programmes. However, 20 years of Unified Studies graduates’ perspectives suggest that teachers can creatively employ a character education programme effectively, using moral issues in most academic subjects to help students build their character. Authors discuss and evaluate their study and findings and make recommendations for further research and improved validity (pp 24-9).

They suggest character education can emerge from a curriculum involving high teacher and student involvement, such as the one described in the paper. Active participation is required: dialogue, co-operation, teamwork, practical applications, problem-solving, etc.; also, exploring the implicit moral dimensions of topics and subjects. They offer advice to teachers.

**Conclusions**

Results include 4 tables (pp 13-24). Findings grouped around four themes: interview data, questionnaire findings and quotations integrated.

1. Teachers provide a desirable character education environment.

99% of interviewees felt Unified Studies provided a unique learning environment and could remember specific days and experiences. They felt that the experience was personalised because the class was tailored to the needs and interests of individuals. They learned practical lessons in addition to theories and facts because the teachers used the real world and interdisciplinary perspectives to help them apply school experiences to their lives. All questionnaire respondents felt that Unified Studies offered a unique learning environment and the majority felt that the teachers cared about them as people, that classes were personalised and that it had a hands-on approach.

2. Unified studies change students’ lives.

Unified Studies helped changes students’ lives and helped to prepare them to be life-long learners and contributing citizens. 94% of questionnaire respondents felt that Unified Studies changed their lives. Ways in which it had done this included helping students to become better learners, helping them to be more responsible and providing them with higher self-expectation.
3. Unified studies help students develop appreciation for people and the natural environment. 97% of those interviewed mentioned that they developed a love, appreciation and respect or reverence for the people in the class and environment. Questionnaire results reflected the comments of the interviewees.
4. Unified studies provide components of a traditional academic programme. 64% of interviewees said that they went on to college and 53% felt that Unified Studies had helped them achieve this. Again, this feeling was also reflected in the questionnaire data.

‘Evidence that a unique experiential high school curriculum, not specifically designed to cultivate character, may help produce outcomes such as a desirable character education environment, positive changes in students' lives and students’ appreciation for people and their environment, without inhibiting their academic achievement and going on to college’ (p 24).