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University of Dublin

Trinity College

Citizenship in Deed

A Study of the Action Project Component in Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) in Ireland 2001 -2013

Máirín Wilson

Supervisor: Dr. Carmel O'Sullivan

A thesis written in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor in Philosophy (Ph.D.)

2015

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Abstract

Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) is a mandatory subject within the Irish education system. Citizenship education forms part of the core curriculum in the three year Junior Cycle programme in Irish secondary schools. The syllabus requires students to do two Action Projects and to present one of these for assessment in the state examination in CSPE at the end of year three. This study examined the nature of those Action Projects.

A partial sequential mixed methods research model (Creswell, 2005) was used as a framework for the study. A longitudinal study generated data on the Action Projects undertaken by students between 2001 and 2013 (inclusive). A number of lenses were employed to view these Action Projects - McLaughlin's (1992) thin/thick, minimal/maximal citizenship education model and Kerr's (1999) education about, through and for citizenship. Questionnaires were used to generate data, one to access teacher perspectives and another with a focus on students. The study was further informed by data generated from interviews with the original personnel involved in the development of CSPE.

The findings suggest that Action Projects have tended to focus mainly on four of the seven CSPE core concepts, and that the types of action that students are undertaking are generally safe, conformist and easy to write about in the report submitted for the state examination. However, the study also identified that Action Projects are enabling connectivity between classrooms and wider society, particularly through contacts with various Non-Governmental Organisations. Action Projects facilitate the development of skills, and lead to raised awareness of social justice issues. In this way the aims of the CSPE syllabus are being realised, furthermore, the human rights and social responsibility framework of the subject is impacting on the nature of students' Action Projects. The study further revealed that there is almost unanimous

approval of the 60% weighting for the Action Project report in the CSPE examination. However, it was also clear from this study that students are not always given the level of decision-making control over the Action Project envisaged in the syllabus. The issue of time for taking action and writing it up was identified as particularly problematic.

In the light of proposed Junior Cycle reform this study is placed at a crossroads in Irish citizenship education and suggests a need for renewed consideration of proposed changes which would see the removal of CSPE as a mandatory, discrete, nationally assessed subject and consequently the loss of the experience of active participatory citizenship for all students.

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Dedication

For my beloved Martin.

'...schools cultivate the forces for good that are necessary to combat forces of evil, and... justice grows out of the classroom.'

[Charlotte Alter reporting on Malala Yousafazi, 17 year old winner of the Nobel Peace Prize October, 2014]

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List of Abbreviations

ACT	Association of CSPE teachers
ANCSS	American National Council of Social Studies
CCE	Civic and Citizenship Education
CEB	Curriculum and Examinations Board
CDU	Curriculum Development Unit
CDVEC	City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee
CSPE	Civic, Social and Political Education
CWAB	Course Work Assessment Booklet
DES	Department of Education and Skills (2010 – present)
DES	Department of Education and Science (1997-2010)
DoE	Department of Education (1921-1997)
EDC	Education for Democratic Citizenship
EEC	European Economic Community
ESD	Education for Sustainable Development
EU	European Union
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
HRE	Human Rights Education
ICCS	International Civic and Citizenship Study
ICT	Information Technology
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
IHRC	Irish Human Rights Commission
INCA	International Conference on Curriculum and Assessment
ISPCC	Irish Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children
JCSA	Junior Cycle School Assessment
NCCA	National Council for Curriculum and Assessment

NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
PDST	Professional Development Service for Teachers
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
RAP	Report on an Action Project
SEC	State Examinations Commission
SPHE	Social Personal and Health Education
TD	Teachta Dála
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
VEC	Vocational Educational committee (now ETB: Education Training Board)
WPHRE	World Programme for Human Rights Education

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

'Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world'.
(Nelson Mandela, quoted on the CSPE Examination paper 2013)

1.1. Citizenship Education

Citizenship education serves many purposes. It seeks to empower young people and to give them a sense of social belonging and well-being. It aims to inform them of the ways in which society works and to enable them to develop the disposition to engage in the world. There are many reasons for the urgent need for citizenship education today, not just in terms of democratic society, civil society and the common good but in terms of the individual citizen being empowered to act, participate and make a difference (Sheir, 2001; Faulks, 2006a; Annette & Mayo, 2010).

Schools face many challenges in educating young citizens and the preparation of students for active citizenship plays a central role in the modern understanding of citizenship education. The aims of citizenship education are consistent with enabling young citizen students to become active, informed and responsible citizens. The model of citizenship education in Ireland reflects this viewpoint with the inclusion of a compulsory active participatory component as a core, mandatory element of Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) in the Junior Certificate Programme. CSPE itself is defined as 'a course in active citizenship based on human rights and social responsibility' (McCarthy, 1998; Harrison, 2002).

While citizenship education classes such as CSPE are not the sole locus of learning in how to be a 'good citizen', the role of the school as the key social institution for young people to learn is unrivalled. Citizenship education permeates the learning environment, subject areas, interpersonal relationships and learning ethos of schools.

Discrete, focussed citizenship classes add value to this: CSPE is one such class. The syllabus for CSPE is based on seven core concepts taught in four domains of citizenship. It is the only common-level, assessed subject in the Irish examination system and students sit an examination in CSPE which comprises a written paper for 40% of the marks and submit a report of their Action Project for 60%.

This study targets the active, participatory citizenship element of CSPE, namely the Action Project. It seeks to identify by means of a longitudinal study what type of action young citizens in Ireland have been doing for their Junior Certificate examination and by so doing to explore the scope of the actions undertaken.

The study also includes teacher and student voices by means of a questionnaire, asking for their opinions on the benefits and challenges of doing Action Projects. Student and teacher opinion on the weighting of marks in favour of the Action Project in the CSPE State examination is also sought. Using a model of citizenship loosely centred on the McLaughlin (1992) and Kerr (1999) models of 'thick' and 'thin' citizenship education, where the 'thick' model has a more participatory, skills-based, real-world focus over the knowledge-based approaches of the 'thin' model, the study seeks to identify the role of the Action Project in CSPE in enabling students to engage in a 'thicker' form of citizenship education. Kerr's (1999) conceptual framework of education *through* and *for* citizenship is a lens through which the CSPE Action Project can be viewed, having, as they both do, a focus on action rather than on the knowledge emphasis of education *about* citizenship, commonplace in the past.

1.2. Rationale for the Study

Civic, Social and Political Education as a Junior Cycle subject was nationally assessed for the first time in the year 2000. There is a review of the Junior Cycle

and Junior Certificate examination in operation currently with plans to roll-out a new Junior Certificate School Assessment (JCSA) model in the near future. In the light of the proposed reforms, the current First Year students (in 2014) may comprise the last cohort of students likely to sit the examination.

The current Syllabus (DoE, 1996) for CSPE is heavily informed by a commitment to active citizenship within a human rights and social responsibility framework. It aims to empower students to act. The syllabus espouses active engagement by young students in order to promote civic values, civic virtues, relevant knowledge and the skills of engagement. There has been little research to determine if this aspiration has translated effectively into the Action Project. Alongside an exploration of the nature of student action, this study also investigates the views of students and teachers regarding the possible benefits and challenges of engaging in Action Projects within the Junior Certificate assessed curriculum.

There is no study that has captured the breadth and variety of the CSPE Action Projects that students have being doing. It is important that details of student active engagement are explored so as to inform the new paradigm of citizenship education pending in Ireland – and to contribute to discussions in jurisdictions where citizenship education models are under review. There is a need for information about the type of engagement that has emanated from the CSPE model of citizenship education. As CSPE will be heavily impacted by the new JCSA model, this planned 'reform' places this particular study at a crossroads in citizenship education in Ireland. The impending radical re-imagining of citizenship education dilutes and minimises the emphasis on action in the new citizenship education model.

There is a consensus that citizenship education has a role to play in enabling the participation of young people with society (Althof & Berkowitz, 2006;

Kristjansson, 2006; Lister, 2007; Audigier, 2008; Kerr, Keating & Ireland, 2009; Kennelly and Llewellyn, 2011; Ichilov, 2013). Society needs people who are informed, know the rights and the responsibilities of the citizen, are willing to support other citizens, have a world view, can express their views, know how to access information and have the capacity to act (Akhtar, 2008; DoE, 1996). This study looks at the Action Project through these lenses.

1.3. Questions Guiding the Research

The aim of this study is to primarily answer the research questions on what Junior Cycle students are doing as their Action Project in CSPE and to identify what elements of the syllabus are being addressed as evidenced in the Action Projects being submitted for examination. In turn this will facilitate an investigation of whether the designated purpose of CSPE is being met, namely, to involve students in an experience of active participatory citizenship (DoE, 1996). It is further intended to see if these experiences are representative of 'thin' or 'thick' citizenship education. It is the goal of the study to use the data generated in the second stage to explore the attitude of students and the perceptions of teachers on aspects of citizenship education.

A number of focussed questions emerge:

- What subject themes or areas exemplify the interpretation of active citizenship in Action Projects?
- In what types of action are students engaging?
- What benefits do students and teachers think are acquired by students doing Action Projects?
- What challenges are faced in doing Action Projects?
- How do teachers and students view the weighting in favour of the Action Project in the assessment of CSPE?

- Is the Action Project a 'thick' or 'thin' experience of citizenship education?

CSPE has been a core element of the Irish Junior Cycle since 1996, (Pilot Phase from 1993-1996), and students have been involved in doing Action Projects since then. The factual details of what they have actually been doing will constitute new knowledge in this area.

1.4. Situating Myself within the Research

It came as no surprise to me that when my Mum was clearing out old books from the attic, the only one of mine that she found was John Waldron's *Tomorrow's Citizen*, my old Civics textbook. I have always had a keen interest in the workings of society, fostered both at home and in school. As a politically aware teenager, who benefitted from the granting of free second level education in 1967, I was in the first cohort of students to study the subject Civics, made compulsory on the curriculum also in 1967.

In my first career I was a teacher of History and taught Civics as many History teachers of the day were required to do. As a devotee of the subject, I had always viewed civic awareness as a life-skill subject so when the opportunity came later in my teaching career to be a part of the team providing training in the new Civic, Social and Political Education subject that was to replace Civics in 1996, I took it. I became a Regional Trainer on the CSPE Support Team in 1998 and travelled around Leinster informing, motivating and attempting to up-skill teachers so that they could teach CSPE and in particular, so that they were confident to undertake Action Projects with their students.

I was a member of the team in the first ever pilot CSPE examination in 1999 and have remained involved in the assessment process ever since. I have co-authored a text-book for CSPE that includes many suggestions and examples of

Action Projects and step-by-step guidelines for students on how to complete them.

Within my current role as a Lecturer in Education working with teachers on a post graduate diploma in the area of learning support and special educational needs, I persist in the belief that studying citizenship education and learning how to participate in society is a life-skill. In my daily work I engage with the concept of inclusive education, a concept that permeates the thinking around learning disability and special educational needs. Fischman and Haas (2012) caution against idealising citizenship education, however, I believe that it has an important role to play for all of the students in facilitating inclusion in society - and in the world.

For many years I was on the management committee of the Development and Inter-Cultural Education (DICE) project which worked across the teacher education colleges in Ireland to imbue all aspects of teacher education with the values of development education and diversity. I also deliver a module in citizenship education to student teachers preparing for a career in post-primary schools. On this course I focus on the purpose of a holistic approach to citizenship education, one that seeks to empower students to reach their full potential, so that all young citizens are empowered 'to know, to care and to act' as Banks (2001) put it.

I believe in the importance of citizenship education and in the value of engaging students in Action Projects as a means of learning through active citizenship. I believe that if we want students to be active, participatory citizens then their citizenship education cannot be passive or exclusive. I am aware of the pitfalls that may exist for teachers within the Irish education system where a state examination can impact on the experience for students or where teaching for conformity can be uppermost.

Action Projects are being undertaken by students and submitted for assessment in the Junior Certificate examination but what is not known is the extent of engagement by students within the CSPE syllabus, nor is it known what benefits and challenges CSPE teachers and students perceive in the doing of Action Projects, in terms of developing active participatory skills and the disposition to act. I believe that it is important to explore this facet of CSPE as action is the core foundational pillar of the subject.

In the light of my extensive involvement in citizenship education, and a lifetime of interest in the area, I was excited to see the thousands of Action Project reports being submitted for assessment every year, I had a real sense that student engagement was happening and a curiosity to know the specific details. I was grateful when the state examinations commission allowed me access to the range of Action Projects being presented by students for assessment. The overarching question driving this study emerged at this stage, what exactly are students doing for their Action Projects, what CSPE concepts form the basis for action, and are the aims of the syllabus to foster action being realised?

My intention is that the research will address these questions.

1.5. The Study Undertaken

The definitive history of CSPE in Ireland is not yet written. The researcher undertook to establish the precise stages in the development of the subject and in particular the origin of the Action Project by interviewing key people who were involved in the process at the time. The data generated informed the history of citizenship education in the study and comments made during the interviews were used in the light of the perspectives put forward by teachers and students later in the study

This study uses both quantitative and qualitative methods. It is based on what Creswell (2013) calls a partial sequential mixed method design. CSPE was first

assessed in the year 2000, and in 2001 data was generated on the concepts on which students were basing the Action Projects that they were submitting for assessment in the Junior Certificate Examination. This information was based on the titles of Action Projects submitted and it was gathered subsequently each year until 2013 (inclusive). From 2004 until 2013 data was also generated on the types of actions that students were doing.

Informed by the literature, other instruments were used to substantiate and to develop the findings and interpretations of the quantitative research. In 2009 a questionnaire was administered to CSPE teachers who were attending a round of in-service targeted at experienced CSPE teachers. The purpose of this was to access both quantitative and qualitative data and the views of teachers based on their experience of Action Projects. Subsequently the views of a similar number of students were also sought in relation to the benefits and challenges of doing Action Projects. Both sets of respondents were also asked for their opinions regarding the weighting given to the report on the Action Project in the Junior Certificate State examination. This added to the qualitative dimension of the study.

The quantitative research phase attempts to measure the existing properties of Action Projects over the past thirteen years in an objective way. The data generated was analysed using *a priori* codes from the CSPE Syllabus (DoE, 1996) and the student 'Report on an Action Project Booklet' (SEC, 2005). The qualitative data was analysed thematically.

Citizenship education presents a very broad area of study, and this research project focusses on the Action Project component of the subject, and even within this arena there are many potential themes and perspectives. The subsidiary questions identified at the time for the purpose of this study were:

- Is there a relationship between the concept covered and the type of projects used to explore it?
- What level of student participation is indicated by the organisation of Action Projects?
- Does the examination process in CSPE shape, or even dictate, the nature and type of Action Projects being undertaken?

1.6. Lay-out of the Chapters

The study is presented over eight chapters.

Chapter 2 explores the concept of citizenship and the influences over time that have impacted the current understanding of the concept in western democracies. The framing of citizenship beyond the nation state is explored in the context of globalisation and how an increasing awareness of human rights and social responsibility is impacting on the role of the citizen.

Chapter 3 focusses on a study of the complexity of citizenship education in a changing world and highlights in particular the emphasis on active participatory citizenship as a means of empowering young citizens. It presents a rationale for citizenship education and active engagement together with prevalent pedagogies and themes.

Chapter 4 centres on citizenship education in Ireland, tracing its origin and exploring the current model in operation in the Junior Cycle today. This chapter is heavily informed by interviews with three people who were involved in the development of the subject and who have unique insights into the curriculum design and in particular the origin of the Action Project.

Chapter 5 provides a detailed explanation of the mixed methods design used to generate the research data. The research model is justified, the coding rubric and timeframe explained and the procedural stages of the analysis are detailed.

Chapter 6 presents the detailed findings of the longitudinal, quantitative study. Looking at each of the core concepts and key areas that emerged in the data, an analysis of the popularity of each of them is examined in turn, followed by a depiction of what types of actions students undertook. A commentary on the significant elements of each of these aspects of the research is presented.

Chapter 7 contains the findings from the questionnaires administered to teachers and students. There is a commentary included in this chapter on the views expressed by both sets of respondents.

Chapter 8 contains a discussion which integrates the findings from both the qualitative and quantitative research and it is at this point that the results from the different elements of study are combined and considered.

Finally, Chapter 9 concludes with the presentation of key findings, which suggest some recommendations in the area of citizenship education practices and policies. Some ideas for further research are proposed and the study is concluded.

1.7. Conclusion

The acquisition of knowledge and the assessment of factual information have even in recent times, been overly emphasised and over-valued in Irish education (Quinn, 2014; Bielenberg, 2010). While CSPE can be viewed as an innovation in Irish education, with its emphasis on action over knowledge, research is needed so that conversations on this model of educating young Irish citizens can take place with more understanding, more evidence-based commentaries and more enlightened thinking. This study aims to contribute to, and inform, such conversations.

CHAPTER 2. CITIZENSHIP

2.1. Introduction: The Concept of Citizenship

The function of citizenship education is embedded within an understanding of the concept of citizenship itself and the role of the citizen; citizenship education is inexorably linked to the civic values and the understanding of citizenship in the society wherein it occurs. Therefore before embarking on an exploration of citizenship education per se, the concept of citizenship requires some investigation.

Beginning with Aristotle's theory of citizenship as found in his *Politics*, this chapter briefly traces the evolution of the concept of citizenship through to the Middle Ages; it then examines the impact of the American and French Revolutions. The powerful influence of T.H. Marshall in the 20th century on the modern conceptualisation of citizenship is addressed. Paradigms and theories of citizenship are briefly examined, namely individual, liberal citizenship and the republican tradition of citizenship within the collective.

The link between the concept of citizenship and human rights was forged in the post Second World War period; the subsequent adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights impacted and influenced the conceptualisation of citizenship within a rights context. This framework is explored before examining citizenship in the 21st century where an erosion of national borders has been evidenced with the impact of globalisation on society. The global citizen, living in a complex, multicultural society and the emergence of the concept of cosmopolitan citizenship are considered because the way in which the role of citizen is defined in any given society inevitably impacts on the provision of citizenship education.

It is Ellis, Burcur, Rossum, Eßer, Largueéche, Sabol, Rosenbam, Szytka & Teuliéres (2010) who caution against attempts to suggest that the history of citizenship can be presented in the form of a linear procession to the modern understanding of the concept – one that is embedded by modernists in the concept of civic and, most likely, democratic society. Rather they assert that the nature of citizenship varies depending on the state and the type of society in which people live and have lived over time. The pre-modernists emphasise and 'see the complex of rights and duties which make up the concept of citizenship in terms of active participation in the polis, town, city, region, or state in whatever period of history' (Ellis et al., 2010:174).

The brief historical context of citizenship in this chapter focuses on the elements of the concept that, although historically embedded in their time, would seem to inform the present day, western world's contextualisation of citizenship and the role that western democratic society expects the citizen to play. This literature review focuses in the main on the fascination with the modern concept of citizenship since World War Two in a world where democratic systems and values are the norm.

2.2. In the Beginning...

The concept of citizenship in the western context can be traced back to the towns and city-states of ancient Greece (800BC-467BC) where it was generally applied to property owners - excluding women, slaves and the poorer members of the community. A citizen in a Greek city-state was entitled to vote, was liable to taxation and was expected to perform military service. In his seminal work *Politics* (350BC), Aristotle sets out the philosophical, political, and social origins of the concept of citizenship. At the heart of Aristotle's work was the phenomenon of the 'polis', a type of political community, the city-state; and at the centre of the state is the concept of the citizen, for 'the state is an aggregate of citizens' (*Politics* I,ii:59). He asserts that it is in the exercise of the

responsibilities of citizenship that the state comes into being (Harrington, 2005). Aristotle's political theory examines the basis of citizenship as a two-step process, firstly it is a type of human function and secondly it is concerned with the relationship between that function and the state (Harrington, 2005).

Aristotle bases his theory on three claims: first, that man is a 'political animal' (*Politics* I,ii:59) naturally drawn towards association with other men; second he claims, that the state 'exists by nature'(*Politics* I,ii:59) as a result of the human imperative to live in community; and third, that there are certain human qualities such as the ability to reason over good and evil, and justice, which he claims can only thrive in political association; the expression of this is what distinguishes man the political animal from other, non-political animals (*Politics* I,ii:60). According to Aristotle, the qualities of citizenship are in turn at the heart of the state and the origins of citizenship are found deep within human nature (Harrington, 2005).

In *Politics* III (i:168) Aristotle asks 'Who is the citizen?' – a central question both for his time and for ours. He argues that all people are naturally drawn towards developing communities and the state is the ultimate political community. All people do not become citizens of the state as described by Aristotle. His citizen is defined according to eligibility to hold the offices of the state: 'what effectively distinguishes the citizen proper from others is his participation in giving judgment and in holding office' (*Politics* III,i:169). 'Office' here refers not only to the main political and judicial posts in the state, but also includes official posts, such as serving on juries. Thus, the meaning of 'citizen' refers to those who participate fully in the state. Aristotle says that 'as soon as a man becomes entitled to participate in office, deliberative or judicial, we deem him to be a citizen of that state; and a number of such person large enough to secure a self-sufficient life, we may, by and large, call a state' (*Politics* III,i:171).

Those who are incapable of understanding the nature of justice, good and evil, and who cannot participate in the discussion and the debates that are critical in human political association, cannot be admitted to the citizen body. These non-citizens are those people who are best suited to the role of slaves. Non-citizen status was conferred on women too, whom Aristotle presents as intelligent and capable of reason, but having a tendency to allow their passions to overcome their rational powers.

Citizenship was not only a Greek phenomenon, the Romans first used citizenship as a device to distinguish the residents of the city of Rome from those peoples whose territories Rome had conquered and incorporated - hence the term 'citizen' was introduced into Britain. As the Roman Empire (27BC-467AD) continued to grow, citizenship was granted to Roman allies and then to peoples in other Roman provinces, until in 21AD when citizenship was extended to all free inhabitants of the empire; thus moving the concept beyond the notion of the city (Isin, 2009). The Roman citizen was endowed with important legal privileges within the empire. The political, military and legal relationship between citizens and Empire was the key focus in this ancient definition of the term (Loewenstein, 1973).

2.2.1. Subjects Not Citizens

The Dark Ages, between the fall of the Roman Empire and the Renaissance, marks a time of peasants and serfs with limited freedoms and those who controlled kingdoms and held the power. The focus for the ordinary person was on service to the master in time of need and in time of war. The concept of state citizenship was not much in evidence and had all but disappeared in Europe at this time. This was a time when the collective was local and the concept of nation was not a political or social force (Geary, 2002). Instead there was a system of feudal rights and duties. People were variously described as freemen, serfs, vassals, knights, lords within the feudal web.

There was a re-birth of the city state in Europe during the eleventh and twelfth centuries; with the granting of city charters came the recognition of the peaceful merchant and artisan in the medieval commune who was recognized as having rights by virtue of being recognized by the guild. Isin (2009) notes that between the twelfth and sixteenth centuries thousands of cities were founded in Europe where the residency requirement (usually a year and a day) if met, entitled the holder to a certain status – 'there was the concept of the citizen as the enfranchised inhabitant of a particular city…' (Ellis, 2006:87). In the late Middle Ages and in the Renaissance period that followed, citizenship became a guarantee of immunity for wealthy merchants and other persons of privilege from the rights and prerogatives of feudal lords. While during the days of the Greek and Roman Empires civic identity was very strong and connected to the respective Empires, during the Middle Ages it was not associated with the nation (Geary, 2002; Ellis, 2006), nor was citizenship associated any longer with the warrior - though being male and owning property were still determining factors.

In countries where there was a ruling monarchy at the time, the relationship between those governed and governing was that of ruler and subject, not citizen. In Britain for example, the term 'citizen' referred to those élite members of a borough or municipal corporation, while the word 'subject' was used to denote an individual's subordinate position in relation to the monarch. The word 'subject' is still used today in preference to 'citizen' in Britain, though by now the two terms are virtually equivalent, since the British crown no longer has political power within the British constitutional monarchy (Heater, 2006). Miller (2000:26) asserts that 'Citizenship is not a concept that has played a central role in our (British) tradition.'

Gordon and Stack (2007:121) make the point that the cartographers of the 16th century played a vital role in identifying and charting national space and in so

doing transformed the image of a nation. This in turn they argue, de-socialised local society in favour of a national territorial view. Such a view places national government in a pivotal position; the relationship between that government and the people within its territorial boundaries has come to be at the heart of what it means to be a citizen. That said, the three centuries from the 16th to the 18th centuries were marked by what was considered to be a natural inequality among people that had its origin in the religious belief that some had divine rights and others didn't (Wallerstein, 2003).

According to Griffin (2009:11), it was the age of revolutions, and the enlightenment period that preceded it, that marked 'the continued secularization of the doctrines of natural law and natural rights, following the expanding role of human reason'.

2.2.2. Revolution and Citizenship

It was in the 18th century during the American and French Revolutions that modern concepts of citizenship began to take shape. It was then that the term 'citizen' became synonymous with the possession of certain liberties in the face of the divine rights, colonial independence and the absolute powers of kings.

Looking first at the struggle to define American citizenship, right from the time of its independence, American equality was asserted. The American Declaration of Independence (1776) proclaimed that 'all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness...' History shows that what exactly was meant by American citizenship would be interpreted and re-interpreted over many decades – sometimes indeed in discriminatory fashion. For example, issues of race, gender and ethnicity were exploited by political élitism. While 'We, the people...' operated at one level to create a single community and a sense of belonging to this new world, aggressive civic racism was clearly in

evidence. Issues concerning the granting of civic rights to black people, and to the Native Americans, are central to American history and to the development of a theory of American citizenship (Smith, 1993).

In classical times the term citizens derived from *civis [citizen]* and the concept of the *civitatis [city];* in France this was similarly evidenced in the *citoyen [citizen]* from the *cite [city]* (Turner, 1990). The link between the city, the urban and the citizen continued for many years (Isin, 2009), however the Enlightenment period - from the mid-17th to late 18th century - prior to the French Revolution, saw a revival and an expansion of the concept of citizenship. The contribution of John Locke, the great 17th century British philosopher, to the understanding of citizenship is worthy of mention. He posited the notion of rights in relation to the individual citizen. In his *Second Treatise on Civil Government* (1690) he asserted that every man has the right 'to preserve his life, liberty and estate' (Locke, 1690:387). The sentiments expressed find an echo in the American Declaration of Independence (1776) and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man (1789). These in turn inform the view of the citizen that was to emerge at the time. Locke belonged to what would become the liberal tradition.

The French Revolution is acknowledged as the watershed for the concept of citizenship (Brubaker, 1994; Wallerstein, 2003; Fischman & Haas, 2012). Wallerstein (2003:650) goes so far as to suggest that 'The great symbolic gesture of the French Revolution was the insistence that titles no longer be used, not even that of Monsieur and Madame. Everyone was to be called 'Citoyen'. Fishcman and Haas (2012:170) remark that as a consequence 'Three centuries after the French Revolution, almost all individuals in the world are citizens of a given nation-state...'.

Brubaker (1994:36) contends that 'Modern national citizenship was an invention of the French Revolution' and certainly the influence of this revolutionary

period in France cannot be underestimated. Wallerstein (2003:650) posits that 'the late eighteenth century transformed the language of equality into a cultural icon'. The period heralded a time of civil equality after the inequality of the previous era. The new civil equality established at this time included shared rights and obligations which included political rights that then became institutionalized. Furthermore, in France the new regime established a general membership status based on equality before the law. It therefore also marked the emergence of active citizens asserting their rights. The Revolution was a 'crucial moment' in the development of both citizenship and the nation-state. The difference between citizen and foreigner was defined and the link between nation and the citizen was forged (Brubaker, 1994).

Alongside other philosophers of the day, Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) had a powerful influence in shaping the development of French thinking and subsequent developments in the concept of citizenship (Gourevich, 1997). It was he who defined the citizen in terms of engaging in a social contact where the individual was free and enjoyed liberty but only 'by honouring his duties in a collaborative relationship with fellow-citizens' (Heater, 2004). This would be realized through what Rousseau (1762) called the 'General Will'. According to this theory citizens would agree on what was in the community's best interest and act accordingly. Rousseau presented a view of the citizen in a civic republic. This theory is built upon two pillars, one a community of good men who are politically active and the second pillar, a just form of government. In Rousseau's *Emile* (1792), he foresaw the need for a particular form of civic education to establish and maintain the society he envisioned.

2.2.3. The Nation-State

Isin (2009) posits that there was a significant shift in the concept of citizenship with the emergence of nation states in the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The nationalist movements of the time, when countries such as Italy

and Germany were unified, saw the utilisation of a form of cultural, religious and national patriotism to forge states and to increase the sense of belonging upon which the concepts of nationality and patriotism could be founded.

These movements underpinned the development of the concept of citizenship in the twentieth century. They inculcated in people a sense of identity based on the nation-state; they encouraged pride in the homeland; they fostered a sense of responsibility which could be drawn upon in times of war (as in the 1914-18 world war) or other turmoil (the Great Depression in the US and Europe in the 1930s when people were asked to become self-sufficient). This early form of citizenship in Europe was not based on equality, it was narrowly defined within a type of cultural hegemony; status, masculinity and property in particular endowed some people with rights and privileges not available to all (Wallenstein, 2003; Heater, 2004, Kuzio, 2001).

The concept of citizen in this study is a western, white construct: cultures in Asia, Africa, the Near, Middle and Far East have forms of citizenship too. An examination of these is beyond the scope of this thesis.

2.2.4. The Influence of T.H. Marshall

T.H. Marshall (1893-1981) was a British sociologist, philosopher and academic who in the mid-twentieth century, post-World War Two, had had a seminal influence on the modern re-conceptualisation of citizenship, best captured in his collection of essays on *Citizenship and Social Class* (1950). In this he located the development of the civil aspect of citizenship in England in the 18th century, with its focus on individual rights, such as the right to own property, to practice one's religion and equality in the eyes of the law (Bloemraad, Korteweg, Yurdakul, 200; Isin, 2009).

Marshall's typology was founded on the belief that citizenship is an evolutionary concept, that it is located within the philosophical principle of equality, 'egalité'. In his writing he defined citizenship as follows:

> Citizenship is a status bestowed on those who are full members of a community. All who possess the status are equal with respect to the rights and duties with which the status is endowed. (Marshall, 1950:186)

Disaggregated a trilogy of characteristics emerge, namely membership of a community, rights, and duties. These three inter-related dimensions (membership, rights, and duties) are synonymous with, and commonly found in most definitions of citizenship. Marshall (1950) went on to identify three elements of citizenship - the civil, the political and the social. His theory was concerned primarily with Great Britain as the country emerged from World War Two in search of peace.

The political aspect of citizenship, which Marshall regarded as the second stage in the evolution of citizenship, developed in the 19th century he asserted, with moves towards universal male suffrage and increased opportunities for participation in political power and the political process. Citizens of the time could exercise their political rights then most notably as electors.

The social aspect of citizenship is a more twentieth century construct which includes a particular focus on the rights of citizens to at least a 'modicum' of economic welfare and security (Marshall, 1950). This he argued was a prerequisite to support the full participation of citizens in their communities and in the state itself. For Marshall social citizenship was, what Adriaansens (1994:92) calls 'the crowning stage in the historical development of modern citizenship'. It was also a prominent aspect of political development in post-war Britain.

Nation-states around the world have evolved different models of citizenship in significantly different ways from Marshall's starting point. There are some who would contest Marshall's theory of citizenship, taking issue with his apparent lack of inclusion of cultural rights and group rights (Banks, 2008a), the erosion of social class divisions which he did not foresee, his seemingly passive view of the citizen, the overly male focus of his typology, his neglect of women and the family and the tie he makes between citizenship and state which does not seem to leave space for global development (Hoxsey, 2011; Delanty, 2003; Bulmer & Rees, 1996; Heater 1999; Turner & Hamilton, 1994). That said Marshall is still honoured as one of the foremost theorists of the 20th century in the conceptualisation of citizenship.

2.3. Current Definitions of Citizenship

Isin (2009) points to the need for new ways of defining citizenship. He notes that especially evident in the late twentieth century was a new focus on the citizen activist and cosmopolitan influences that were transforming nations. He identifies a focus on new sites for struggling people whose identity as 'citizen' was under threat; a struggle that varied in scale across the globe and a blurring of 'the boundaries between human rights and other rights' (Isin, 2009:368) ... 'with overlapping scales of rights and obligations' (Isin, 2009:370). This process of re-defining the concept of citizenship he argues means that it remains a concept that is in flux, embedded in and impacted by the current social and political struggles around it.

Bloemraad et al. (2008) propose the existence of a tension around citizenship between inclusion and exclusion. Isin (2009:371) writing of citizenship at the beginning of the 21st century frames it within the context of relationships and notes that

> Citizenship is a dynamic (political, legal, social and cultural but perhaps also sexual, aesthetic and ethical) institution of

> domination *and* empowerment that governs *who* citizens (insiders), subjects (strangers, outsiders) and abjects (aliens) are and *how* these actors are to govern themselves and each other in a body politic. Citizenship is not membership. It is a relation that governs the conduct of (subject) positions that constitute it.

Ross et al. (2007:239) maintain that 'citizenship itself is a contested concept'. McLaughlin (1992:217) states that 'the concept of 'citizenship' is complex and contested...'; Gordon and Stack (2007:122) assert that 'Citizenship is complex and subtle...'; Heater (1992:53) echoes this and notes that 'citizenship requires more than the acquisition of knowledge and the cultivation of understanding'. Sassen (2009:229) posits that as a concept, citizenship is 'incomplete'; McCowan (2009) asserts that 'the contested nature of citizenship' is a given, and Keating (2009:136) notes that 'there is as yet no academic consensus on its [citizenship] components, conceptual parameters or implications.' Audigier (2008:38) suggests that 'citizenship is far from having a stable and generally accepted meaning...it is a multiform concept'. Nyers (2004:203) sums it up when he says that 'Citizenship is at once the most celebrated and most problematic of political concepts'.

At the most basic level citizenship is defined by Simpson and Weiner (1989:250) in the *Oxford English Dictionary* as 'the position or status of being a citizen'; by Turner (1993:4) as 'a set of social practices which define the nature of social membership', by the *Stamford Encyclopedia* (2006) as 'A citizen is a member of a political community who enjoys the rights and assumes the duties of membership', and by Koopmans, Stratham, Guigni & Passey (2005) as 'the set of rights, duties and identities linking citizens to the nation-state'. The latter definition is predicated on the development of the modern concept of citizenship in the western world which was founded on the 19th century notion of the 'nation-state' and 'nationalism' (Dahrendorf, 1996). This is true of both

the narrow legal sense of the word which confers a legal status on the citizen and in the broader sense which confers participation rights.

2.3.1. The Dimensions of Citizenship

The refining of the definition of citizenship in the twentieth century has taken place by and large within the confines of the nation-state, more precisely among nations aspiring to the status of nation-state and impacted by two world wars where the power of cultural nationalism was at the very heart of the conflict. The emergence of nation-states was, in many ways, a hallmark of the twentieth century, though it should be noted that Gordon and Stack (2007) write of citizenship beyond the relationship between government and the governed - that rooted in community and the economic freedom to pursue a livelihood.

Turner (1993:3) identifies four key dimensions in the definition of citizenship namely:

- the content of citizenship which focuses on rights and obligations
- the type of citizenship which focuses on the concrete mechanisms that enable social and political engagement
- the conditions of citizenship which depend on the unique history of the social struggles that underpin every society
- and the arrangements of citizenship which focuses on the dissemination of rights and obligations in such a way as to allow the state to legitimately control and unite its people.

Veldhuis (1997) has further distinguished four dimensions of citizenship which he names as:

1. political and legal - which focus on rights, duties, political systems and the law

2. cultural - which arises from a common heritage and shared values expressed through language and the ability to communicate

3. social - which is concerned with the relations between people

4. economic - which is based on labour and how the market is organised.

These dimensions find an echo in the Stamford Encyclopaedia (2006, 1:1) which notes three key elements of citizenship - firstly it is a legal status, secondly citizens are political agents and thirdly citizenship refers to being a member of a political community. Nowadays the principal grounds for acquiring citizenship in most countries are birth within a certain state, descent from a parent, or marriage to a citizen from a particular jurisdiction (Lagassé, 2000). Citizenship is regarded as a privileged form of national identity. The term denotes various relations between an individual and a state: the term is used in international law parlance to identify all persons whom a state is entitled to protect.

Having acquired citizenship, what it means to be a citizen, and conceptions of citizenship, are not universally agreed. Citizenship today is still an elusive concept, it is variously defined and 'the understanding of citizenship itself is far from static' (Jeffers & O'Connor, 2008:xi). There is no universally accepted definition of citizenship, though as outlined, many definitions are presented in terms of status and identity that confer membership of a political community, usually within the context of a nation-state. Citizenship is further understood in terms of a label, one which is concerned with full membership of a community and is critically based on the notion of equality of status within that community. Implicit in definitions of citizenship is the notion or feeling of belonging, along with other citizens, to a common community as part of a human family (Osler, 2013; Crowley, 1998). Osler (2013) notes that this feeling of belonging is only one element of citizenship, having a legal and moral status with opportunities to practice and engage as a citizen, are also key to what it means to be a citizen.

Yeatman (2007:106) theorises citizenship as 'the universal or public dimension of individualism' and formulates her belief in the centrality of the individual in the social state. The very fact of being a member of the community, and therefore achieving the status of citizen, implies access to certain rights that derive from this status. Once the status of citizen has been established the individual is endowed with 'an array of rights in common with other citizens which are held in a civic bond among the members of the community' (Tambakaki, 2009:4). Audigier (2008:33) points out that

> the citizen is always a co-citizen, somebody who lives with others – in this republican tradition, belonging to the community therefore becomes the cornerstone and justification for claims of rights...

not unlike the ancient Greek and Roman ideals.

Jelin (2000:53) argues that citizenship is 'a conflictive process' that is linked to a power-struggle typified by who can say what about what are the common issues and how these issues are to be faced. Dahrendorf (1994:12) agrees, arguing that each side of the discourse uses its own definition of the term to further its cause. The 'Right' speak of active citizenship to put the focus on the duties of individual people, while the 'Left' put the focus on the community of citizens with collective welfare rights. The 'Centre' he claims uses the term as a 'vacuous' catch-all for everything else.

Citizenship has become fashionable again in the language of politics and in discourses on society in the 21st century. The concept is a gateway to both empowering people to engage in social, democratic and civil life and a means for governments to rule in apparently more effective, inclusive ways. Paradigms of citizenship have been developed to enable a discourse about this contentious and elusive concept, and the next section explores some of these.

2.3.2. Paradigms of Citizenship

Taking Marshall's typology as the foundation of modern thinking, citizenship today can be described in terms of three paradigms (Delanty, 2000; Keating, 2009):

- Individual citizenship or liberal citizenship
- Political citizenship or civic republicanism
- Communitarian citizenship or republican communitarianism.

The first of these paradigms views the citizen as an individual with certain inalienable rights. Originally this perspective focused on the protection of the person against the vagaries of the state, particularly in relation of property rights – in its modern focus it is more concerned with social rights, identity and security. Isin and Wood (1999:4) note that

> Citizenship can be described as *both* a set of practices (cultural, symbolic and economic) and a bundle of rights and duties (civil, political and social) that defines an individual's membership in a polity. [their italics]

Similarly Levinson (2011:280) notes that

> Citizenship is constituted by the meanings, rights, and obligations of membership in publics, as well as the forms of agency and modalities of participation implicated by such membership.

Some like Yeatman (2007:106) would further contend that citizenship is primarily about individualism and that 'citizenship concerns the universal or public dimension of individualism.' The liberal view of this form of citizenship has the individual rights of citizens as its focus. The citizen is king; social and political life revolves around the notion of individual rights and responsibilities at the heart of which are '...individual liberties....freedom of choice about how

to live our lives' (Kymlica, 2003:47). In tandem with such rights Kymlica (2003:47) identifies

> quintessentially liberal duties e.g the duty to be tolerant, to accept the secular nature of political power...and to exercise our individual autonomous judgement and critical reasoning when engaging in voting or public reasoning.

Sandel (1996:14) critiques Rawls' version of the individual, liberal citizen with its focus on the status of citizen rather than the practice of citizenship '...as members of this family or city or nation or people. As bearers of that history...As citizens of this republic.' He criticises extreme individualism deeming it inadequate as it hinders the development of the individual by not accommodating the role of community in forming his/her civic identity.

The second paradigm found in the literature focuses on political citizenship and locates citizenship within the context of a political community; political participation thus becomes the central element of what it means to be a citizen. This form of civic republicanism is a throw-back to the days of Ancient Rome when participation in public affairs was seen as the duty of citizens in the belief that this was the way in which liberty was assured and conserved (Pike, 2007). A citizen holds the office of citizen and therefore also holds a political position of equality. This paradigm, set within the republican view, aims to foster 'the public view that leads people to do their duties as citizens' (Dagger, 2002:146).

Finally in the third paradigm there is a view of citizenship within the collective – 'We the people...' (US Constitution, 1789). This is concerned with the nation–state, de-limited by a territorial boundary and the concept of national citizenship. The view of the national citizen is the traditional one in which being a citizen conferred on all citizens certain rights and obligations and opportunities for participation based on identity as a citizen. This view is rooted firmly in the nation-state and a national concept of civil society. It has as its

focus the development of social integration and is connected into the realist view of the state as territorially defined and state dominated. The role of the citizen is interwoven around the need for loyal citizens who will help to guarantee the security of the state. This view of citizenship is culturally based. Because it places citizenship within the confines of the state it forms the basis of what was previously identified as nationalism.

Audigier (2008:46) includes another, more feminine, dimension to modern citizenship within the collective namely that

> citizenship cannot be reduced to a catalogue of rights and duties, but entails membership of a group or groups, bringing identities into play in a very profound way. It consequently requires an ethical shift that includes a person and collective emotional dimension.

Taking the concept of community as the cornerstone of successful civic society Etzioni (1993) posits a model of communitarianism that he presents as the means of truly engaging people in this modern age. He invites a response from people, particularly in America, to the idea that 'responsibilities are anchored in community' (Etzioni, 1993:267) and are both articulated and supported within communities.

Interestingly, Habermas (1994) contests the view that citizenship is, or ever was, conceptually nation-based. He traces the origin of the current understanding of the term citizenship to the concept of free association by people in ways that are of equal benefit to all. In this sense he is returning to Aristotle's communitarian and ethical focus, rather than the more individualist focus of enlightenment philosophers such as Locke. France is a good example, here the citizen is viewed as a member of a republic and so it is important there that all French citizens perceive themselves within the fold of the nation-state, the rights of the individual citizen are less prominent than the need to maintain an order, based on 'egalité' within French society.

In America on the other hand the rights of individual citizens are sacrosanct and guaranteed within the framework of the American Constitution, tracing the protection of the individual citizen back to its Bill of Rights (1791). In countries with a constitution like France, America and others such as Ireland, there is a code or document: perhaps the Constitution itself which embodies the concept of citizenship for the people of the state. In other countries governed by monarchies, like Great Britain, there is still more of a concern with the rights and duties of subjects within the realm (Heater, 2004).

The table below brings together some of the key comparative elements of citizenship in Great Britain, America and France; these typify the variations in conceptualising citizenship.

Countries	*England*	*America*	*France*
Historical Focus	-Decline of feudal society -Industrial Revolution -Development of Welfare State Monarchy	-War of Independence -Civil War -End of slavery/ reconstruction Struggle for Civil Rights Federal (liberal) democracy	1789 Revolution Liberty, equality, fraternity Republic
Definition of Citizenship	A set of rights and duties that regulate the relationship between the individual and the state	Liberal tradition: Based on the notion of equality and political liberty which protects individual freedoms. Citizenship is a legal status	Republican Model: Having the status of belonging to the Republic in a position of égalité with other citizens
Role of the citizen	Citizen as subject with rights and responsibilities	Individual with constitutionally guaranteed rights	-A member of the collective -Direct link between the individual and the state

Figure 2-1: Comparison Between UK, USA and France

The synthesis above tells us that the concept of citizenship comes in a number of guises. Liberal citizenship with its emphasis on the individual and communitarian views of citizenship are not mutually exclusive and many societies function around models that are more of a synthesis of both. France for example, has signed up to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) guaranteeing the rights of individual citizenship. In America there is also an emphasis on individual rights guaranteed by the constitution together with an acknowledgement of the importance of community and of the citizen within

communities. Putnam, in his seminal work *Bowling Alone* (1995), notes that in recent times Americans have become 'disconnected' from community at every level of society, including the political community. This suggests that the concept of citizen has been weakened over time and consequently is one that needs advocacy and support – including support from the educational system.

Van Steenbergen (1994:46) outlines the core characteristics of the citizen as 'autonomous, loyal, capable of sound judgement and fulfils the double role of governor and governed'. For him the citizen is socially formed (not necessarily culturally formed) and supported by a community that shares a common fate, with the government playing a leadership role, reminiscent of Audigier's (2008:40) previously noted view that 'the citizen is always a co-citizen', living communally with others. Regulations regarding admission to citizenship have made the status of citizen both coveted and problematic in terms of membership conditions and competences (Van Gunsteren, 2007). Faulks (2006b:123) asserts that 'Citizenship is a political concept, defined by a package of rights and responsibilities, which expresses the form of social membership in a given political community', while Rimmerman (2010) claims that there is a 'new unconventional citizenship' and that it goes way beyond the traditional model of political participation.

Historically in western society there is an inherently hegemonic and patriarchal dominance. In its earliest guise citizenship 'is presented as a paradigm of masculine virtue' (Garratt & Piper 2010:48), dominated by 'the male, warrior property owner' (Isin, 2009:372) with an emphasis on rights and duties within the context of 'fraternity' and brotherhood (McLaughlin, 1992:217). Lister (1997) suggests that there are two separate status and practice traditions around human agency which have impacted the concept of both male and female citizenship.

McGregor (2004) identifies current issues around citizenship such as clashes around cultural difference, cherished values: power and authority, and the role of the minority and the majority in society. She too is of the opinion that citizenship still privileges male, euro-centric discourse as opposed to an emotive, affective, caring – more female, connective discourse. Her focus on citizenship in a post-feminist paradigm is the sharing of personal story – 'a practice of communication with and among others in the community rather than simply an electoral function tied to membership in a nation state...' (McGregor, 2004:102).

Feminist conceptions of citizenship are presented by Tobler (2003), Dillabough and Arnot (2000), Hahn (2003), Stone (1994), Okin, (1992) and Pateman (1992). The feminist model denounces the separation of public and private spheres (republican and liberal traditions). Okin (1992:69) asserts that these two 'are, and always have been inextricably linked' and into these two dominant models the feminist perspective on citizenship education adds an emphasis on caring and the value of caring between citizens.

Finally, there are other current paradigms like the 'economic citizen' in market based societies, 'where every citizen has the opportunity and the capacity to exercise his or her economic, social and cultural rights' (Ashoka, 2014, also Teague, 1999; White, 2003 and Bundinich, 2014) and the cosmopolitan citizen (Heater, 2002; Osler & Starkey 2003; McDonagh and Feinberg, 2003; Nussbaum 1996) in multicultural societies, (Suárez-Orozco, 2005; Schultz, 2007; Banks, 2008a; Gannon, 2008; Susen, 2010). These perspectives can trace their origins to the advent of globalisation, social, economic and political integration, and the human rights agenda which since the 1950s, have all impacted further on the evolving conception of citizenship. At the dawn of the 21st century, Turner (2001) identifies the need to go beyond Marshall's economic, political and social model of citizenship to include the global, cultural and environmental domains.

2.4. The Impact of Globalisation on Citizenship in the 21st Century

The nation-state view of citizenship has come under increasing pressure from globalisation. The trends towards globalisation, most pronounced in the late 20th century, have produced a post-national reformulation of the concept of citizenship in which the collective identity goes beyond the nation–state and political boundaries (Hanvey, 1982; Audigier, 2008; Isin, 2009; Held, 2010), leading to the formation of what Mitchell and Parker (2008) call 'the flexible citizen'. In fact Pike and Selby (1988) note that a transformation of the world is in evidence with the move from a diverse collection of countries and people to what is now a system of diverse countries and people. According to Banks (2008b) Marshall himself would seem to have forecast such a development or evolution in the concept of citizenship, though Delanty (2000:18) takes the view that Marshall's theory has 'been rendered invalid by more recent discourses and by social change'. Marshall's view of the coupling between the state and citizen as an exclusive one is challenged in the global age and 'the marriage between citizenship and nationality is broken' (Delanty, 2000:19).

Similarly Susen (2010) notes that Marshall's account of citizenship is reductionist as its teleologism does not allow for evolution in society nor does it recognize possible changes in identity and difference. Sassen (1996 & 2009) calls for a denationalisation of citizenship, one that acknowledges the changing relationships between the state, the individual and the new political actors. Nyers (2004:204) writes of nations 'going global' and the weakening of affective ties to the nation-state as a result of 'de-territorialization'. These he argues have impacted on 'thick' loyalty to the nation-state and instead have produced 'thin' affinities to the notion of world citizen.

Diogenes Laertius the Cynic in the 4th century BC (cited in Nussbaum, 1996), is credited with famously saying 'I am a citizen of the world' - so one could argue that the notion of a global citizen is not a new one. However, the new emergent

'global citizen' perspective is now underpinned by the development of global perspectives, transnational global organisations, global telecommunications systems, multi-level and supranational government. Increased mobility across nations has raised issues and problems around theories that are nationally focussed and have caused a re-think of the concept of citizenship and civic identity.

Susen (2010:261) identifies multiculturalism as a 'constitutive feature of many advanced societies' which has led to a 'cultural hybridisation' that transcends the traditional - and hence impacts frameworks of citizenship. The outcome of this is that there is a new theory of citizenship emerging, one that is attempting to encompass the multidimensional and increasingly complex concept of the citizen beyond the nation-state (Sassen, 1996 & 2009; Pike, 2008; Audigier, 2008; Kymlica, 2003; Bottery, 2003; Crowley, 1998; McLaughlin, 1992).

Furthermore the new conceptualisation of citizenship is an ever-broadening one. It seems to expand to encompass more and more of what modern times have come to value, or what are identified as social problems. Citizenship is now framed in terms of such issues as social justice, multi-cultural awareness, gender issues, participatory democracy, volunteerism, economic interdependence, an awareness of environmental responsibility and a respect for diversity - that which West (1993) and Young (2004) call 'the politics of difference.'

Falk (1998) explores the global citizen phenomenon and places it within the context of the overall unity of human kind and the fundamental universality of such values as peace, justice and sustainability. For him the global citizen is on a quest to create a better world. The global forces of financial development have ushered in the global dimension together with political alignment and an ecological imperative which is needed to support human survival. Audigier

(2008) notes how today's citizen no longer thinks in the linear fashion of nationhood but rather in a networked complex world. The notion of identity as something that is nationally located, permanent and fixed is challenged in today's global society. The concept of an interdependent, networked, global society, where events that happen in one place – for example, a bank collapse in America, an ash-cloud in Iceland, a currency crisis in Europe, a terrorist attack in America - impact across the globe and the citizen must be able to act across borders to respond to such events. Sassen (2009:231) makes a forceful point that the global and the national are no longer seen as 'mutually exclusive and in some sort of zero-sum relationship'.

As borders decline, functional and political spillover occurs and the traditional sense of national identity is being challenged. Delanty (1997) asserts that alongside the three characteristics commonly associated with citizenship (membership, rights and duties) is the additional characteristic of 'identity'. This aspect is of particular interest to the concept of the global citizen.

Heater (1990) has suggested a model of citizenship in the global age that he has termed 'nested citizenship' where national citizenship is 'nested' within different levels of citizenship. Each level, from the national to the global, endows the citizen with different rights, places different responsibilities on him/her in a range of different power structures. In 1997(:36), Heater further generated a scaled model (below) to present his view of world citizenship ranging from vague to precise:

VAGUE.....PRECISE

Member of the human race	Responsible for the condition of the planet	Individual subject to moral law	Promotion of world government

The 'vague' position is held by those who have a general view of the connectivity of all humanity, what Nussbaum (1996:4) describes as 'a person whose allegiance is to the world community of human beings' where the

concern is not with 'difference' but with 'common humanity' (Rorty, 2000); while those in the second category/position have a sense of responsibility arising from their sense of inter-connectedness. Those in the third position further accept the power and importance of law (natural and man-made) to regulate and support global interaction. Finally there is the position of those who aspire to the concept of world government, a type of cosmopolitan democracy (Nussbaum, 1996; Mitchell & Parker, 2008) that represents the interests of both the local, national and world with opportunities for citizen participation at every level.

It is notable however that the concept of the global citizen is not a universally held one: there are those who would contend that the global citizen concept is simply a contemporary vehicle used in the popular discourse of globalisation, human rights and humanitarian ethics to lay claim that there is a duty-rights relationship between all people that goes way beyond the individual, the local and the state. There would seem to be a level of truth evident in this as citizens of the developed world (including young people in school) are reminded of their responsibility to fellow citizens in less developed regions whose basic needs are great (Kristjànsson, 2006; Singer 1972). As the locus of power shifts away from national government (most notably in the European Union context), citizenship which is defined in terms of participation in, and control over political power, needs a new theory that equally shifts from the ideology of the nation state (Crowley, 1998).

Hoxsey (2011:922) notes that

> Essentially, multiculturalism, post modernity, and globalisation all represent a shift away from the grand narrative of national class cohesion of belonging to a distinct nation-state, and a classless society.

Susen (2010:261) further points to the consolidation of neo-liberalism in contemporary society challenging the concept of citizenship in a society founded on '...privatisation, de-nationalization, de-regulation, de-centralization, de-bureaucratisation and flexibilization...'.

Similarly Kennelly and Llewellyn (2011:898) criticize the neo-liberal emphasis on market values above all else and in particular note how an interpretation of citizenship based on this view alters the understanding of what makes for a 'good citizen' and what type of civic action is valued.

2.4.1. Citizen 2.0

Any discussion of citizenship in the 21st century must encompass the power of new media and how it impacts the dynamics of what it means to be a citizen consumer under its influence (Polat & Pratchett, 2014; Ferguson, 2011; Miller, 2007; Wahl-Jorgenson, 2006; Baumgartner & Morris, 2006). In the digital age of the web 2.0 which, according to Ryan and Jones (2012), is about harnessing the distributive collaborative potential of the internet, people can connect and communicate with other like-minded people regardless of territorial boundaries thus forging a new type of citizenry.

Tomlinson (1999) asserts that it is the increased connectivity, both in terms of time and space that is the very core of the global age. Globalised mass communication and the development of social media have impacted on the means available for citizens to act and to participate. These 'new media' are redefining civic space and are enabling civic engagement in new ways (Bennett, 2003; Tolbert & McNeal, 2003; Moy, Xenos & Hess, 2005; Diebert, Ratto & Boler, 2014).

New media are facilitating the development of new communities and multi-level networks. Barkat, Jaeffli and Dorsaz (2011) assert that social media empowers the citizen, making it easier for the citizen to organise and voice

challenges while also making it easier for governments to respond. Kloby and D'Agostina (2012) explore the possibilities provided by digital strategies and tools to engage the citizen, including tools that can involve the citizen in decision making and what Casey and Li (2012) call 'authentic participation.'

Global communication too has had a flattening effect on the world making it easier to know what is happening in the moment: it has empowered citizens to act in ways previously not possible. 'Netizens' have a new means of interacting, and new civil societies are connecting people in the search for things such as cosmopolitan social justice, global environmental responsibility and a political world order (Stromquist, 2002; Bennett, 2003; Axford, 2005; Kriegman, Amalric & Wood 2006; Merryfield & Drudy, 2008; Kloby & D'Agostina, 2012; Tate & Wilson, 2014). In particular young citizens are connecting through 'means and modes that may seem entirely separate from the conventional polling booth, but are nonetheless central to their development as political actors in a public sphere' (Ferguson, 2011:900).

2.5. Citizenship in Europe

Citizenship in Europe has a particular relevance to this current study as the concept of dual citizenship for Irish citizens is now a reality, at least in theory.

Developments in Europe in the early 1990s have impacted on citizenship in the European context. With the end of the Cold War, the establishment of European citizenship (Maastricht 1992), the decline of communism and the rise of eastern democracies, citizenship education is called on to address new transnational forms of what it means to be European. Monnet, co-founder of the EEC, believing that national sovereignty was outmoded, envisioned a united Europe and European citizens living, working and in community together for the better of all. This evolution marks a re-visioning of citizenship for Irish citizens and all

member states. A model of dual citizenship has emerged within the now 28 members of the European Union.

Kostakopoulou (2007:623) notes that while European citizenship under Maastricht was initially seen as 'a purely decorative and symbolic institution' with little added value, it matured as an institution driven predominantly by the European Court of Justice and European Directives that have acknowledged the rights of citizens. The people of the European Union member states who have the right to hold a European passport are *de facto* European citizens though Delanty (1997) argues that a sense of identity as Europeans is still secondary to national identity. On the other hand Kostakopoulou (2007:624-625) writing more recently asserts that in the establishment of the status of European citizenship there began

> a unique experiment for stretching social and political bonds beyond national boundaries and for creating a political community in which diverse peoples become associates in a collective experience and institutional designers.

To date European citizenship remains multi-layered and is more evidenced in the formal sense of institutionalised citizenship than in lived reality - although the badges of citizenship in Europe are available....passport, flag, the right to vote in elections, free movement and common currency (Held, 1993; Kostakopoulou, 2007). The European intention is one of dual citizenship. It is accepted that the location of civic identity remains strongest within the individual boundaries of each member nation: then there is an over-arching super-national level of European citizenship - with rights and responsibilities for citizens at both levels.

Delanty (1997) points to a European citizenship that is very different to its national counterpart, built on a platform of rights and duties to the new cultural collective that includes free movement, the right to stand for election, to vote

and to participate within the Union. To his four-element typology of citizenship (Conservative, Participatory, Communitarian and Rights Models) he added a fifth new model: post-national citizenship. He posits that going beyond the nation as a point of reference and 'the space where citizenship is actualised' (Delanty, 1997:297) is possible, though he notes that 'the core components of citizenship namely rights, duties: participation and identity have become disjointed (Delanty, 1997:292). Kostakopoulou (2007) posits that this new form of transnational European citizenship and the old national citizenship institutions are interdependent - and both forms are impacting on the evolution of the other towards the development of a better, less layered, less hierarchical model, of citizenship.

2.6. Citizenship and Human Rights

Human rights are basic ethical rights which people enjoy by virtue of being human (Griffin, 2009; Delanty, 1997 & 2000). In the Middle Ages there was no real distinction between human rights and citizenship rights (Griffin, 2009:9). In the late eighteenth century, in the American *Declaration of Independence* (1776), the *Bill of Rights* (1791) and the French *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen* (1789), there is no ostensible difference between the concept of 'human being' and being a citizen, although the term *les droits des hommes* was first used at this time.

Equality is the common and unifying term in both concepts of citizenship and human rights; a renewed emphasis on human rights has been evident from the end of World War Two and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) that followed. The concept of 'the rights of man' has been replaced by doctrines concerning human rights. This phase is regarded as the Second Generation of Human Rights - the First Generation was concerned with classical liberty rights such as freedom of expression, the right to assemble, freedom to worship, as described by philosophers in the 17th and 18th centuries, though first mentioned

in the Middle Ages (Vasak, 1977; Griffen, 2009). In Second Generation of theories on human rights, the rhetoric of rights endorses the rights of individuals to a basic standard of living (welfare rights) and development. These rights are identified and supported by a range of declarations, conventions, treaties and international laws.

In these modern times the concern is with Third Generation rights (Griffin, 2009). These focus on collective rights, cultural rights, the right to development and other group rights (such as the rights of women, ethnic/religious minorities, gay/lesbian/transgendered people). Interwoven into current theories and debates on the concept of human rights is the concept of citizenship. While the former are accepted as universal the latter remain less focused and defined. The right to a name and a nationality are included within the articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) which has been adopted by over 160 countries yet citizenship itself remains a complex, multiform concept (McLaughlin, 1992; Audigier, 2008). Institutions and frameworks such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the European Convention of Human Rights (1950), the African Charter (1990), the Bangkok Declaration (1993), international treaties and laws, reinforce a commitment to human rights but have not yet agreed to a universal understanding of citizenship.

None-the-less these two political concepts, citizenship and human rights, are particularly interwoven in western democracies and have been institutionalised by them; in respect of this study, the value placed on human rights has informed the content of citizenship education (see Chapter 3) and citizenship education in Ireland (see Chapter 4). In effect, the rhetoric of human rights and the acknowledgement of their universality, while contested by some cultural relativists (Freeman, 2002 for example), have provided political, social, moral and philosophical norms for today, even in the face of the reality that we live in a multi-layered, pluralist, diverse, globalised world.

2.7. The Role of the Citizen

It follows that with the reframing of the concept of citizenship comes a similar reframing of the role of the citizen. The view of this role is not static and is prescribed by the nature of the society in which a citizen lives. The various social, economic, political and cultural imperatives which govern the way in which societies operate impact in turn, on how these societies define the role of a citizen within that society. Furthermore the historical development of different states has served to determine the nature of the conceptualisation of the role of the citizen (Turner 1993; Edwards & Gaventa, 2013).

Veugelers (2007) in research undertaken with Dutch parents, teachers and students identifies three types of citizen:

- the adaptive citizen who values self-discipline, obedience and social awareness and for whom autonomy and critical thinking takes second place;
- the individualistic citizen who values autonomy over social awareness;
- the critical – democratic citizen who values autonomy and social awareness but not discipline.

The role of the citizen incorporates all three of these dispositions and according to Veugelers (2007) support the norms of Dutch society. This is a key point, that although we may find over-lapping definitions of citizenship, shared values and beliefs regarding the role of the citizen, individual societies determine in large part how the role of the citizen is framed: ultimately it is defined locally.

That said the call to active citizenship is a common feature of modern understanding of what it means to truly be a citizen (Brannan et al., 2006, Burton, Goodlad, & Croft, 2004; Bottery, 2003; QCA, 1998; Council of Europe, 2002). It is not enough for a citizen to be a passive member of a political

community: the role of the citizen involves action in the form of contribution to the social and political fora. Evidence of this is found in such bodies as the Irish Taskforce on Citizenship (2007) which frames the role of the citizen within a culture of volunteerism; or calls by the Irish President Michael D. Higgins (2011), British Prime Minister David Cameron (2011) and the American President Barack Obama (2013) for more engagement by citizens in the life of the community and the state or the establishment of such projects as the Active Citizens for Europe Programme and the Irish Taskforce on Active Citizenship. Organisations like the Crime and Disorder Partnerships (CDRP), Primary Care Trusts (PCTs) in Great Britain are examples of attempts common in many jurisdictions to involve citizens at community/local levels in the development of services (Brannen, John, & Stoker, 2006). Indeed I would argue that a good example of this is the advent of community service as punishment for crime. This supports a view of the role of the citizen within the community that is tied to the understanding of the responsible citizen taking responsibility for his/her crime.

The status of members within a society demands a level of civility within the community; therefore the citizen is endowed with certain rights and responsibilities. Key among the latter is participation which, according to Brannan et al. (2006:995), 'is an essential ingredient of the practice of citizenship rather than a bolt-on optional extra'. Participation is presented as the means for the individual to pursue his/her interests, a means too for the collective public interests to be served.

The notion of social capital as popularised by Putnam (2000) as a kind of social glue that serves to bind people together and empowers them to co-operate more effectively for the good of society is supported by informed citizens capable of active engagement in projects that benefit both themselves and

society. Gamarnikov and Green (2000:97) when writing about social capital note that

> Its attractiveness lies in its appeal to common-sense ideas about the good society of responsible and decent individuals, families and communities, of social cohesion and security, and of the democratic engagement of the citizenry in the communities of civic society and in local and national polities.

Through participation the citizen develops understanding of policy and society while it also facilitates the expression of the individual's cultural, social and political identity (Enslin, 2001; Keating & Kerr, 2013). Furthermore Fukuyama (1995), Gamarnikov and Green (2000), Putnam (2000) and Coleman (1988) all point to the fact that a society with a strong social capital base can reap rewards in the fields of education, health, employment, prosperity and - produce a society where partnerships and agreements between government and citizens are forged.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004:351) have identified three kinds of citizen:

1. the 'Personally responsible citizen' who for example 'contributes food to a food drive';
2. the 'Participatory citizen' who 'Helps to organizes a food drive';
3. the 'Justice-oriented citizen' who 'Explores why people are hungry and acts to solve the root causes.'

They argue that the vision of the citizen embodied in the above models are not cumulative and in terms of education impact on curriculum design and educational goals. Enslin (2001:2) suggests that there are five aspects to citizenship within a democracy- **membership** of a territorial unit – individual **identity** as an individual and as a member of the collective –a set of **values** rooted in a commitment to the common good – a degree of **participation** in the

polity –a level of **knowledge and understanding** that enables critical analysis leading to appropriate responses [her emphasis]. Enslin (2001) and others (see also Crick & Lister, 1978; QCA, 1998; Crick, 2002; Gamarnikov & Green, (2000); Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) acknowledge that citizenship education has a role in the development of the citizen in society and the creation of a particular model of citizenry.

Once again referencing Aristotle, citizenship is presented as nothing less than the greatest fulfilment of human potential in terms of the 'good life'. The essence of this according to Harrington (2005) lies in active participation. The citizen is not merely an inhabitant of the state, not simply a member of a politically privileged class; s/he is the essence of the state's ability to achieve the greatest measure of happiness and virtue as a community. For this, the citizen must have the leisure to devote herself/himself to the educative cultural pursuits which facilitate her/his understanding of virtue. For this reason, Aristotle is clear that 'the citizens must not live in mechanical or commercial life. Such a life is not noble, and it militates against virtue' (*Politics* VII,ix:415).

2.8. Citizenship Education

Citizenship, and what it means to be a citizen, is fundamental to understanding approaches to citizenship education in different countries. The way in which the concept of citizenship is construed impacts on the model of citizenship education adopted.

The development of citizenship education itself as a subject in education systems is indicative of an awareness of the need to inform, up-skill and perhaps to train and prepare young people for citizenship. The various syllabi and programmes that have been included within the curricula of educational systems are testament to the perceived need to provide education in the role of citizen. Individual countries have devised their own responses to this need and

the European Union itself through a number of programmes have fostered the development and education of European citizens, who are aware of the rights and duties that are bestowed upon the citizens of Europe.

From the outset Aristotle was writing about the citizen in terms of participation, albeit limited in terms of the general population. Over time the concept has changed and certainly since Marshall's time, the role of the citizen in relation to the state and society is perceived as one of full participation. It implies that the citizen must develop qualities such as judgement, loyalty, autonomy and both the freedom and ability to act (van Steenbergen, 1994). Citizens have rights and citizens have duties. There is a view that these must go beyond personal private interests to serve the general interests and general good of society. Such interests include social awareness, respect for others and other points of view (Veugelers, 2007).

There is a political dimension to citizenship and citizenship education. Fischman and Haas (2012:176) have pointed out that 'Coupling the notions of citizenship and education was a by-product of the early processes of institutionalisation of nation-states as 'democracies'... scholars and politicians understood the need to develop new models of relationship between individual subjectivities, emerging novel actors and the state' (see also Hogan, 2009; Wallerstein, 2003). The outcome of this is a 'two-fold political-pedagogical relationship' (Fischman & Haas, 2012). Etzoini (1993) asserts that education and especially citizenship education, plays a major role in the development of individual character and communal responsibility, as such education is of relevance to all in the community - it is the seedbed of a moral education that forms a cornerstone in the development of civic values and is of central concern to this study.

2.9. Conclusion

Although much is written on the concept of citizenship, Dwyer (2010:3) points out that 'the language of citizenship is used in a multitude of contexts....and in so many different ways, that a universally agreed definition is virtually impossible.' At the same time the relationship between the citizen and the state and the relationship between citizen and citizen have been written and re-written by philosophers, historians, sociologists, educationalists and political scientists throughout time.

This chapter has explored some of the history and complexities in relation to understandings of the concept of citizenship from early times through to the 21st century. The lack of a universally accepted definition of the concept has meant that educational systems have developed particular, individual, responses based on their own current understanding of the concept. Citizenship education in Ireland and citizenship education in Asian countries for example, will look very different because the citizen is constructed within cultural concepts of what it is to be a citizen.

Having identified the critical role that schooling plays in the process of developing both individual and collective narratives of citizenship, the following chapter examines citizenship education as a response to the challenge of teaching citizenship in the 21st century.

CHAPTER 3. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

3.1. Introduction

This research study has as its focus the modern concern with citizenship education. Moving on from the exploration of what it means to be a citizen and the role of the citizen today, this chapter comprehensively examines the current concept of citizenship education and presents an overview of the complex range of perspectives on its nature, purpose and structure. Modern society turns more and more to its education system to meet a range of diverse needs identified as critical for the good of society and for the development of the individual. By its very nature, education cannot be divorced from the wider society in which it occurs and as such is an educational response to identified needs in diverse societies with individual histories, values and traditions. Fundamentally, the shifting definitions of citizenship education as a response to social change have impacted on how this subject is conceptualised, how and what is taught and how it is assessed.

The broad canvas presented in this chapter provides an essential backdrop to citizenship education and the conceptualisation of CSPE in particular. The key themes identified in this literature review will become the lens through which the results of this research study will be viewed.

A central focus of this chapter addresses the concept of active participatory citizenship identified as the goal of citizenship education, fostered in many education systems and epitomised in the Irish education system in the form of the Action Project. The emphasis on active learning and active participatory citizenship poses a range of challenges to both teachers - whose teacher education may not have equipped them for such approaches - and to educational systems where active engagement outside of the classroom is not commonplace. Finally the chapter examines the literature and the issues around

the evaluation and assessment of citizenship education within an examinations and assessment framework.

It is important to note that citizenship education is discussed with a specialised language with words such as rights, responsibilities, duty, civil society, participation, active citizenship, values, knowledge, diversity, pluralism, democratic citizenship, globalisation, culture, community, critical discourse – all words that are broad, general, somewhat fuzzy and open to over-simplification.

3.2. International Models of Citizenship Education

The current interest in citizenship education has resulted in its inclusion in the curriculum in many countries. It is to be found under different subject titles in different countries (Ainley, Schulz & Friedman, 2013), for example, as

- 'History, Social Structure and Civic Education' (Austria);
- 'Citizenship Studies' (England);
- 'Local and Global Citizenship' (Northern Ireland);
- 'Social Studies' (Scotland, Denmark, Malta, Russian Federation);
- 'Personal and Social Education (PSE) (Wales);
- 'Citizenship and Constitution' (Italy);
- 'Civic Studies' (Estonia);
- 'Man and Society' (Netherlands);
- 'Citizenship Education and Ethics', 'Civic Culture' (Slovenia);
- 'Ethics and the Study of Man', 'Social Studies' (Hungary);
- 'Citizenship and Democracy' (Turkey).

Aspects of citizenship education are also found within curricula in History, Geography, Ethics, Religion, Environmental Studies and Science. Furthermore, Ainley et al. (2013) posit that the philosophy that underpins education systems includes in many ways the values inherent in citizenship education.

In 2009 an International Civic and Citizenship Study (ICCS) (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010) was conducted in 38 countries by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). It found that in 18 of the participating countries civic and citizenship education (CCE) is a specific, compulsory subject at lower secondary level and a further 2 countries have it as a compulsory subject at primary school level.

In 2013 the IEA further published an *Encyclopedia* (Ainley et al., 2013) of the various approaches to civic and citizenship education in the 38 education systems represented in the earlier study. They outline the model of citizenship education in 26 European, five Asian, six Latin American countries and in Australia. For the purposes of this study information has been extracted from this recent publication specifically identifying the countries where citizenship education is compulsory, whether it is a discrete subject or one that is taught within a cross-curricular model or integrated into other subjects, and whether it is assessed (Table 3.1).

The table overleaf (Table 3.1) provides overview data and gives a general picture of citizenship education across the education systems identified.

Table 3.1: A Synthesis of Citizenship Education Around the World (IEA, 2013)

Note * indicates a positive response

Country	Compulsory	Specific subject	Cross curricular themes	Integrated in subjects	Assessed formally	Assessed in school
Austria			*	*		
Belgium (Flemish)			*	*		Yes
Bulgaria			*	*	Yes	Yes
Chile			*	*	Yes	Yes
Chinese Taipei	Yes	*	*		Yes	Yes
Colombia	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	Yes
Cyprus			*	*		
Czech Republic	Yes	*	*	*		No answer given
Denmark			*	*		
Dominican Republic	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	Yes
England	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	Yes
Estonia	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	
Finland			*	*	Yes	
Greece				*	Yes	Yes
Guatemala			*	*		
Hong Kong SAR			*			Yes
Indonesia	Yes	*			Yes	Yes
Ireland	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	Yes
Italy			*	*	Yes	
Korea Republic of	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	Yes
Latvia		*	*	*	Yes	Yes
Liechtenstein				*	Yes	
Lithuania	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	Yes
Luxembourg					Yes	
Malta	Yes		*	*	Yes	Yes
Mexico	Yes		*	*	Yes	Yes
Netherlands				*		Yes
New Zealand			*	*	Yes	
Norway				*	Yes	
Paraguay	Yes	*		*	Yes	
Poland	Yes	*			Yes	Yes
Russian Federation	Yes	*	*		Yes	Yes
Slovak Republic	Yes	*			Yes	Yes
Slovenia	Yes	*		*	Yes	
Spain	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	
Sweden			*	*	Yes	Yes
Switzerland	Yes	*	*	*	Yes	
Thailand				*	Yes	Yes

If a comparison is made between Ireland and England in the table for example, it might appear that they have the same model. This is not the case, for example assessment in England is available as an option for students at the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) level and at Advanced (A) level and students have the opportunity to study citizenship education at the upper Secondary Level. In Ireland citizenship education is a compulsory subject for all students in the Lower secondary, and is also a compulsory subject for assessment at this level but is not available as a subject option at upper secondary level.

It should be noted that the original data was collected for a specific purpose - to provide a context for the 2009 ICCS (Ainley et al., 2013) study into citizenship education where the researchers gathered data from over 140,000 students in 5,300 schools across 38 countries. The information in Table 3.1 does not separate out the data for primary, lower and upper secondary education, nor does it identify the type of formal assessment undertaken; data is not included to identify whether citizenship education is compulsory for all students, at all levels in the relevant education system nor does it identify at what stage/age the assessment occurs.

In line with other educationalists (see Kymlicka, 2008; Bell, 1995; Osler & Starkey, 2005; Cosgrove, Gilleece & Sheil, 2011; Ainley et al., 2013) it is also widely acknowledged in the above studies that citizenship education is not confined to what is specified in any one curricular subject rather it is integrated into general school life, home and social experiences.

The international contemporary view is fundamentally focussed on the concern that the citizens of the future will have the skills needed for active participatory citizenship and so ultimately in many jurisdictions current citizenship education seeks to have a 'thick', active, participatory focus. These constructs

are explored more fully in Section 3.4.. Kerr et al. (2009:15) further notes that the forms of citizenship education currently in schools are evolving ones and it is still early days, 'still a nascent area' in terms of 'policy, practice and research.' As a result, citizenship education is impacted by education reform initiatives and political change in the society where it is taught.

3.3. The Purpose of Citizenship Education

This section explores the 'why' of teaching citizenship education. Citizenship education takes place in many locations within society, within families, within neighbourhoods, within faith communities, within interpersonal relationships and within schools. However, as a key social institution, school offers a particular and unique opportunity for citizenship education and in this respect it is indispensable (Kymlicka, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 2005; Bell, 1995). In fact Rowe (1995:46) points out that the link between society and its education system is 'organic and nowhere more critical than in the case of citizenship education.' He notes there are tensions created by putting citizenship education on the curriculum, tensions created by moderating principles and values with institutional practices, and positioning the individual against collective views and responsibility towards the common good.

Kymlicka (2008:134) asserts that 'schools have an unavoidable role' in the education of citizens and, while accepting that there are other socializing agencies, schooling in citizenship according to Brown and Fairbrass (2009) has the task of equipping young citizens with the knowledge and skills to enable them to 'be vigilant', 'do something' and to 'speak up'. The Carnegie Corporation (2003:12) also endorse the role of the school (in the US) as being 'best equipped' to provide citizenship education and as 'the only institution with the capacity and mandate to reach virtually every young person in the country.'

While the meaning of citizenship education has evolved over time and has itself been influenced by social development and cultural change, there has been a resurgence of interest in citizenship education in the late 20th century amongst politicians and educators alike (see Alexander, 2001; Osler & Starkey, 2005; Kerr, 2005; Lawy & Biesta, 2006; Ross, Munn & Brown, 2007; Kymlicka, 2008).

This interest is based on a range of concerns including:

- a need to foster a sense of belonging and a shared membership of society that supports a sense of social unity and community cohesion in the face of the exclusion of some of the population;
- a concern over the future of democracy and the ability of students to act politically;
- a concern over the decline in civil society and the need for civic renewal;
- a commitment to a human rights and children's rights agenda;
- a concern over the erosion of the moral and social fabric of society- in some countries evidenced in a rise in violent crime and delinquency;
- a growing consciousness of the need for sustainable development and increased environmental awareness;
- a belief that young people are not equipped to fulfil their civic duties;
- the demands of living in a multi-cultural, diverse, globalised world with its impact on the nature of identity and belonging;
- a desire to engage young people in a more participative experience of what it means to be a citizen;

- political apathy and the apparent democratic deficits visible in Western democracy, in particular in the federal experiences of European and American government;
- a desire to develop character together with a set of moral and civic values;
- a need to teach life-skills;
- a belief in the importance of preparing young people to engage in on-going moral argument;
- a desire to enable young people to understand new forms of participation made possible by developments in ICT and social media;
- a belief in the need to convince young people that they do have the power to impact on the world in which they live (see also McGinn, 1996; Prokhovnick, 1998; IDEA, 1995; Ross et al., 2007; McLauglin, 2000; Enslin, 2001; Leicester, Modgil & Modgil, 1999 & 2000; Dahlgren, 2007; Carnegie Corporation of New York and CIRCLE, 2003; Pattie et al, 2004; Arthur, 2005; Ichilov, 2005; Althof & Berkowitz, 2006; Nelson & Kerr, 2006; Sassen, 2009; Bennett, 2003; Council of Europe, 2004; Hedtke, Zimenkova & Hippe, 2007; Lister, 2007; Audigier, 2008; Kymlicka, 2008; Osler, 2008; Kerr, Keating & Ireland, 2009; Brown & Fairbrass, 2009; United Nations, 2010; Harrison & Wilson, 2011; Kennelly and Llewellyn, 2011; Fischman & Haas, 2012; IEA, 2013).

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Putnam (2000) has expounded on the decline in social capital as the world has industrialised and modernised and he has pointed to the need to re-connect individuals in society with the communities in which they live. There has been a particular focus on young people and their disengagement which has led to initiatives to try to connect them to engage

more in society. Citizenship education is at the heart of these initiatives however, meeting these social needs is a very big ask of a subject which, as is evident from the Table 3.1, is not even a specific subject in many jurisdictions and which the literature suggests is given lip-service but often not status, or priority, in the curriculum.

It is agreed (Lockyer, Crick & Annette, 2003; Davies, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Kymlicka, 2008) that there is a good fit between citizenship education and education for such as democratic citizenship, for human rights education, education for sustainable development, multi-cultural education and a range of other adjectival-educations, dispositions and knowledge that the 21st century citizen should possess (Kerr, 2005; Fiedler, Gill, O'Neill & Pérez, 2008).

What it means to be a 'good' and effective citizen is at the root of the purpose of citizenship education. In America the National Council for Social Studies (ANCSS, 2013) describes the competent and responsible citizens as sharing four common traits:

> Informed and thoughtful. They have a grasp and an appreciation of history and the fundamental processes of American democracy, an understanding and awareness of public and community issues, an ability to obtain information when needed, a capacity to think critically, and a willingness to enter into dialogue with others about different points of view and to understand diverse perspectives. They are tolerant of ambiguity and resist simplistic answers to complex questions.
>
> Participate in their communities. They belong to and contribute to groups in civil society...; work together to overcome problems; and pursue an array of cultural, social, political, and religious interests and beliefs.

Act politically. They have the skills, knowledge, and commitment needed to accomplish public purposes...and voting.

Moral and civic virtues. They are concerned for the rights and welfare of others, socially responsible, willing to listen to alternative perspectives, confident in their capacity to make a difference, and ready to contribute personally to civic and political action. They strike a reasonable balance between their own interests and the common good. They recognize the importance of and practice civic duties such as voting and respecting the rule of law.

They also note that character education is critical to the development of both academic potential and civic virtue.

While other systems have also developed philosophies on citizenship education, the core purposes are in line with those listed above where a new liberal paradigm of citizenship education is tempered by the inclusion of the civic republican tradition of communal responsibility and active participation by informed individual citizens in society.

Arthur (2005) argues that citizenship education is closely linked to, and intimately connected with, the concepts of moral and values education. He asserts that 'The quality of political life in a democracy is largely influenced by the quality and character of its people...' (Arthur, 2005:247). Although Arthur (2005) acknowledges the lack of theory around what constitutes character education and the fact that the virtues taught may be only the minimal common values in society, he none-the-less supports a citizenship education that teaches students how to live respectfully amongst other people. Althof and Berkowitz (2006:513) note that there is an overlap in the dispositions and motives of civic and character education - 'social justice, honesty, personal and social responsibility, equality etc.'

In the USA for example, there has been recognition of the link between character education and civic engagement in the renaming of the Department of Character Education Technical Assistance Centre (CETAC) to the Character Education and Civic Engagement Technical Assistance Centre (USA Dept. of Education). Furthermore Boston (2005:31) has claimed that

> the acquisition of civic character – the knowledge, skills, virtues and commitment necessary for engaged and responsible citizenship – is the central goal for excellence in education.

Similar to Doyle (1997), Arthur (2005) supports student-focussed education that helps to form character through students being given opportunities to learn co-operatively, to learn through experiences and to think critically.

3.3.1. The Thinking Citizen

Teaching critical thinking skills and enabling discourse, debate and critical reflection on issues that matter to citizens is identified as the cornerstone of transformative citizenship education practice. DaJaeghere & Tudball (2007) has called for the type of critical citizenship education that will also produce citizens who are both informed and capable of engaging in discourse around the issues in the society in which they live. Johnson and Morris (2010), Althof and Berkowitz (2006), McLaughlin (1992), Osler & Starkey (1999), all stress the importance to society of citizens capable of thinking critically and taking action. Kymlicka (2008:137) suggests that 'schools must teach children how to engage in the kind of critical reasoning and moral perspective that defines public reasonableness.' He asserts that other sources of engagement such as the family or associations in civil society or the market cannot teach this.

However, Brown and Fairbrass (2009) make the point that there is a tension at the heart of citizenship education and similarly Ofsted (2006:5) noted that 'There is plenty to argue about in citizenship'. They make the point that if students learn to think critically about the world in which they live, if they

develop awareness of injustice and inequality, and acquire the skills to participate, they will know how to challenge authority and to act, to protest, to campaign and to lobby. Set against this is society's desire for 'good' citizens who are compliant, law-abiding, respect authority, vote, volunteer and recycle. The challenge for educators and educational systems is to find a balance - if possible, a type of middle ground between these two approaches to the subject.

Citizenship education has the power to help students to understand the world in the twenty-first century and in particular to understand the concept of society and change (Niemi & Junn, 1998; Starkey, 1995). But Fischman and Hass (2012) posit that the relationship between citizenship and education is always conflictive and elusive.

Polarised perspectives exist in relation to citizenship education and what constitutes authentic citizenship education: should it have a focus on the state or on the global/cosmopolitan? (Knight, Abowitz & Harnish, 2006; Osler, 2008; Appiah, 2006); be multidimensional? (Cogan & Derricot 2012); concentrate on learning democracy or human rights and social responsibility? (Biesta, 2007); include real or pseudo civic participation experiences? (Anderson, 1998); be active or passive? (Wallerstein, 2003); emphasise individual responsibility or justice based models? (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004; Juanes, García & Pérez-Manjarrez, (2013); be 'thick', with a focus on critical engagement in a shared democratic culture or 'thin' with a focus on social morality and compliance.

McLoughlin notes that both minimalist and maximalist interpretations of education for citizenship are controversial. He explains the importance of 'the thin conception of the good, free citizen - and Dieltiens (2005) has written in its defence – while noting the importance of the maximalist view where the citizen has a broader view of his/her loyalties, power and responsibilities. The literature suggests that the contemporary paradigm of effective citizenship

education comes in the thicker form where citizens learn through citizenship education for citizenship in the future. This has led to an emphasis more on the practice of citizenship fostered through active learning pedagogies and opportunities to participate in activities based in the real world (Niemi & Junn, 1998; Starkey, 1995; Kerr, 1999; Ahrari, Otman, Samhah & D'Silva, 2014). According to these scholars, this is the model espoused by many modern democracies, including Ireland, and I believe highlight the importance of critical discourse underpinning action around participatory citizenship.

This lens, thick and thin citizenship education is a useful one and is now explored more fully.

3.4. Thick and Thin Citizenship Education

McLaughlin (1992:218) posits 'minimal' and 'maximal' conceptions of citizenship in a democracy where 'minimal' is epitomised in passive respect for the rule of law - at the basic level of what Bennett (2003:6/7) calls the 'dutiful citizen' - and 'maximal' which is concurrent with widespread participation in democratic activity – at what Bennett (2003:6/7) calls the 'Self Actualizing Citizen' (Fig.3:1).



Figure 3-1: Thick and Thin Citizenship: Based on McLaughlin (1992) and Bennett (2003)

Citizenship education in these polar opposite positions is minimal when it is concerned with unreflective socialisation, is chiefly focussed on the provision of legal and constitutional information and 'the development of virtues of local and immediate focus (such as those relating to voluntary activity and basic social morality)...' (McLaughlin, 1992:237). Maximal citizenship education is concerned with 'critical reflection and understanding', with a concern to ameliorate social disadvantage' and deep political learning leading to the development of the 'virtues and dispositions of the democratic citizen' (McLaughlin, 1992:219).

Similarly Kerr (1999:12) at the International Conference on Curriculum and Assessment (INCA) agreed that citizenship education can be viewed on a continuum from 'minimal (thin, exclusive, elitist, civics education, formal, content led, knowledge based, didactic transmission, easier to achieve and measure in practice)' to 'maximal (thick, inclusive, activist, citizenship

education, participative process led, values based, interactive interpretation, more difficult to achieve and measure in practice).'

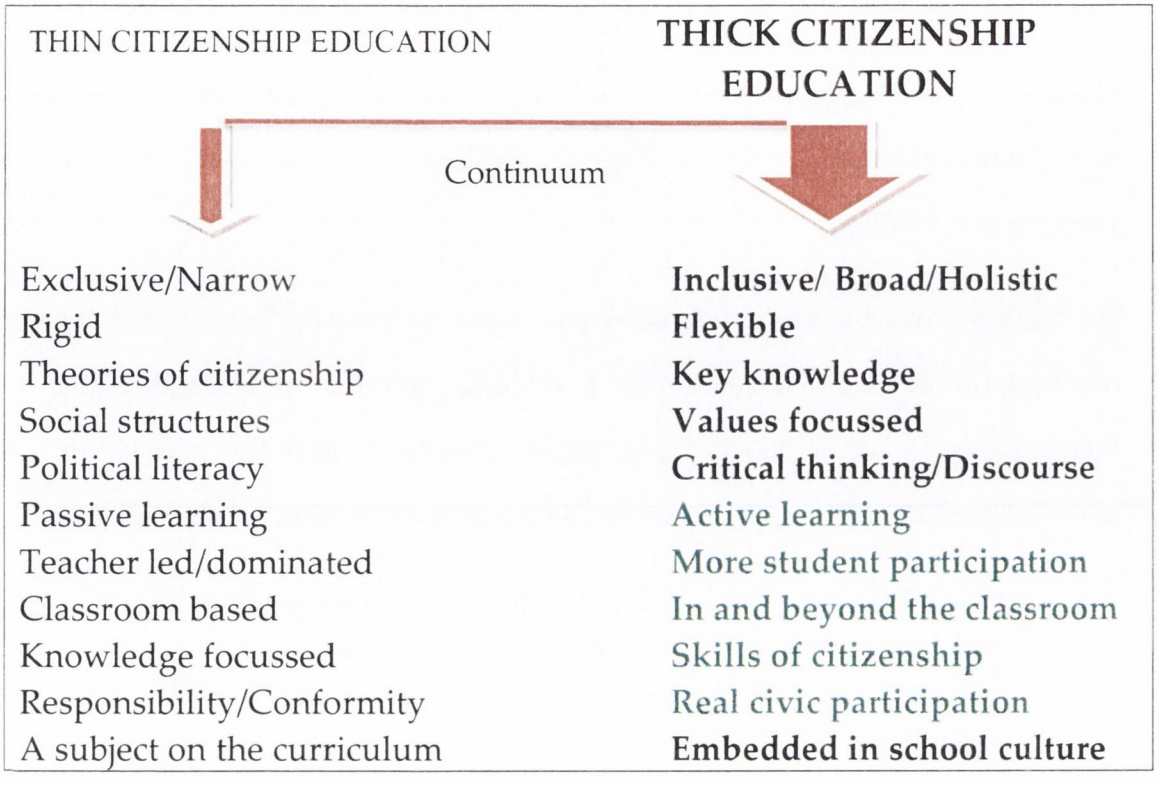


Figure 3-2: Thick and Thin Citizenship Education.
(The headings in green are the focus of this study. **This figure is an adaptation of McLaughlin (1992) and Kerr (1999).**

In parallel with this polarised model, Kerr (1999) suggests that the goals and objectives of citizenship education provide three useful strands for exploring it. He suggests that these strands are education *about* citizenship, education *through* citizenship, education *for* citizenship. It should be noted that Lister (1984) presented a similar framework '*about*' and '*for*' human rights education, '*in*' human rights schools; elements of Lister's thinking are to be found in Kerr's later model.

3.4.1. About, Through, For

Education *about* citizenship is minimal and 'thin'. It is focussed on an 'understanding of national history and the structures and processes of government and political life' (Kerr, 1999). Education *through* citizenship sees

students participate in active learning and 'active participative experiences' which serve to reinforce the knowledge component. Finally education *for* citizenship combines the other two to provide a type of citizenship education

based on 'knowledge and understanding, skills and aptitudes, values and dispositions' that equip students for life as active participatory, responsible adults (Kerr, 1999:13).

The traditionalist view of citizenship education typified by Butts (1980) below was built on the idea of acquiring the knowledge about what citizenship means: this required a focus on studying about citizenship and the acquisition of knowledge. Butts (1980:122) stated that citizenship education was about

> the fundamental values of the political community, a realistic and scholarly knowledge of the working of political institutions and processes, and the skills of political behaviour required for effective participation in a democracy.

The more progressive, modern view of citizenship education combines the knowledge base and the emphasis on effective participation, evidenced in Butts' definition, with a more broad understanding of what constitutes the effective citizen. Participatory citizenship has moved beyond the mere act of voting and the need for political knowledge. In the year 2000, citizenship education was on the curriculum in all of the then European Union countries, in the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa (Crick 2000b).

A broad view of citizenship education has emerged, fittingly articulated in the *Citizenship Order* (QCA, 1999) where the British DfEE states that

> citizenship [education] gives pupils the knowledge, skills and understanding to play an effective role in society at local, national and international levels. It helps them to become informed, thoughtful and responsible citizens who are aware of their duties and rights. It promotes their spiritual, moral and

> cultural development, making them more self-confident and responsible both in and beyond the classroom...

The theorization of citizenship here is located within the notion of education in the now and encompasses education about and though and for citizenship within the context of societal developments and personal fulfilment.

The Ministere de l'Education Nationale (1998:3) in France presents a rationale for civic education as education '....for human rights and citizenship, through the acquisition of the principles and the values which underpin and organise democracy and the Republic, through knowledge of institutions and laws, through an understanding of the rules of social and political life' (cited in Osler & Starkey, 2000:97). His citizenship education model is concerned with political literacy and social empowerment, knowledge about and for the future. Included in this literacy is the ability to critically evaluate information and make decisions. Once again the focus is on the (re-)engagement and empowering of young people in the political life of society. Crick and Lister (1978:37) define a politically literate person as one who

> would possess, among other things, a knowledge of the concepts minimally necessary to construct simple conceptual frameworks... [drawn] from everyday life- yet employed more systematically and precisely than is usual. Thus citizenship education includes on an understanding of how society works and the inequalities that are contained within it.

Brown and Fairbrass (2009:3) assert that

> The purpose of Citizenship Education is ultimately to contribute to the continuance and development of just and democratic societies, with vibrant and active engagement of citizens as individuals and through various forms of civil society organisations.

Kerr, Keating & Ireland (2009:5) note that in response to the changing nature of the relationship between the state and the people, citizenship education has

been identified as playing a 'crucial role' in providing 'the opportunity to pupils to develop the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to become active and engaged throughout their lives in the many communities to which they belong (school, local, national, regional, European, global):...'. That very changing nature of society leads Audigier (2008) to note that both citizenship and citizenship education are 'radically changing fields' – encompassing education about, through and for citizenship - and therein lies the challenge for educators.

I believe that the (re-)conceptualisation of citizenship education in the 21st century is still a work in progress and its brief is expanding. Therefore it is an important conduit to the young citizen whose responsibility it will be to carry society forward. However, I also believe that the breadth of citizenship education and how this is transformed into a discrete subject on a timetable does not carry a distinct and singular focus and its purpose is impacted by how it is defined in different educational systems.

3.5. Towards a Definition of Citizenship Education

It is widely acknowledged that citizenship education happens in and across many locations in society of which the school is only one (QCA, 1998; Niemi & Junn, 1998; Wenger, 2009). Papastephanou (2008:53) notes that ultimately 'Citizenship is a discipline of the here and now' – wherever that happens to be.

A course - or a textbook - is not the totality of citizenship education for any student, however as Wenger (2009:8) posits 'it [citizenship] can be fostered' leaving those in charge of organising the teaching and learning of citizenship with the task of providing legitimate learning experiences.

There is not universal definition of citizenship education. Traditionally it was defined by the nation-state and the needs of individual societies: education of the citizen was one of the key instruments in the formation of nation states. In

relation to the provision of national education for all children, Massimo d'Azeglio the Italian political leader (in Hobsbawm, 1992:44) is quoted as saying 'We have made Italy, now we must make Italians'. The same might be said of citizenship education today in relation to the formation and subsequent enlargement of the European Union and the establishment of European citizenship in 1993 - that citizenship education is the means of 'making Europeans.' While accepting a European dimension in the school curriculum, Williams (1996) cautions against an 'indoctrinatory intent' in citizenship education or attempts to engineer any one particular type of citizen (see also Hladnik, 1995).

When back in 1950 Marshall theorised citizenship as 'a status bestowed on those who are full members of a community' (18) with members possessing full rights - meaning each member is equal in relation to rights and duties, he went on to acknowledge education itself as 'a genuine right of citizenship' and he stated that the 'aim of education during childhood is to shape the future adult' (25). In effect his was a belief in education for citizenship in the future.

Rami et al. (2006) assert that throughout history children have always participated in society - in the home, the school, the work-place and in times of war and conflict. Regarding the status of children, Marshall (1950:25) believed that 'children, by definition, cannot be citizens' and positioned them as 'citizens-in-the-making' - with education providing the training for their future role. Rami et al. (2006) note that the participation of children has sometimes been voluntary and at other times their participation has been forced, manipulated and exploited. Verhellen (2000a:16) takes a different view, he rejects the positioning of children as 'not-yets', he sees them as citizens in the here-and-now rather than in the position often ascribed to them of '*not-yet-being*' [his italics] or positioned as future performers in a yet-to-be created splendid Enlightened society' (Verhellen, 2004a:93). Similarly, Osler and

Starkey (2005:43) state that 'children are citizens, rather than citizens-in-waiting' with a valuable and unique perspective on citizenship, participation and inclusion.

Faulks' (1998) view of citizenship education arises from his tripartite definition of citizenship founded on three main criteria: a legal definition about rights and responsibilities, a philosophical definition concerned with a just society and a socio-political definition with an emphasis on the status of the citizen as a member of a particular society. These, he argues, are what define citizenship education and they inform the context and the design of education *for* citizenship. The Crick Report (QCA, 1998) which was the seminal report in shaping citizenship education in Britain also argues that there are three strands running through citizenship education namely, social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy.

In the past citizenship education was often embedded within the study of history - where national patriotism was encouraged; it was also to be found in religious education where values such as tolerance and respect for human dignity were fostered (Jackson, 2003). However Jackson (2003:68) makes the point that

> The combined forces of secularization, plurality and globalisation have made this association of Christian, moral and civic education no longer sustainable for public education.

Hargreaves (1994) notes that in a pluralist or secular society, religion does not provide the cohesion needed to develop awareness of what it means to be a citizen, he points to the need for a new form of 'social cement' in the form of citizenship education.

Rowe (1995) asserts too that citizenship education is an agent of cultural transmission. In the case of America, Banks (2008a) has identified what he terms as 'assimilationist citizenship education' - where school is the place that

the multi-ethnic races of the world, who have found themselves in the New World, are taught to be 'Americans'. The notion of love and service to one's local state and national community and civic membership of a political community is essential for the development of America. These views in turn have led to a focus in citizenship education on political literacy and the importance of a central, shared body of political knowledge which under-pins good citizenship. The importance of a unified American identity was alluded to in November 2008, when the then newly elected President Barack Obama said in his victory speech 'out of many, we are one' echoing the sentiment to be found on the coins in America '*e pluribus unum*'.

Banks (2008a:129) challenges the liberal assimilationists and believes in the transformative properties of effective citizenship education where students are helped to acquire knowledge, skills and values that are needed by the citizen to function within their cultural community, the nation-state and in the global community. He stresses the importance of students developing the knowledge, attitudes and skills that will empower them to function in a global society (2008a). According to Banks (2008a:129)

> conceptions of citizenship and citizenship education around the world face challenges from a number of historical, political, social and cultural developments.

His argument is for the inclusion of cultural rights for citizens from a range of diverse backgrounds in America; he argues that all students need to acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes to function effectively in their own community, in their nation-state, and in the global context. He asserts that citizenship in today's world requires that students are educated to understand the need to work for equality and social justice in all parts of the world.

Clearly national boundaries have become more porous than Marshall foresaw and this point is evident in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)

which acknowledges the universal rights of all citizens beyond territorial borders (Tyson & Choon Park, 2008; Banks, 2008b; Osler & Starkey, 2005).

Callan (1991) focuses on the 'public' virtues that form part of a citizenship education and which exert both a centripetal (unifying) force and a centrifugal (diversifying) force on the specific society where it is taught. Such citizenship education he argues treads a tightrope between indoctrination and monism and falling short of establishing a baseline commitment to a set of public virtues that enable students to identify and develop a sense of belonging. According to this view the key challenge for educators is identifying, naming and promoting these values so as not to contribute to further segregation and disintegration in society: a society that is changing and rapidly developing.

3.5.1. Models of Citizenship Education

Precisely because progress and change over time has impacted on citizenship education, curricula now not only address the tripartite elements of citizenship (civic, political, social), what Banks (2008a) calls 'mainstream knowledge' which reinforce the status quo, they also frame citizenship education within the contexts of civic identity, rights and responsibilities, globalisation and nationalism, equality and cultural awareness.

It is a tempting to think that citizenship education models can homogenise and package the subject, but this would be to over-simplify what is a very complex concept. However, Rowe (1995) suggests a range models as a means of framing different approaches to citizenship education:

- *the Consensus Model* where controversy is avoided and 'safe' areas of political structures were dominant;
- *the Parental Model* where home provides the values and parents choose schools that complement their viewpoint;

- *the Patriotic Model* which fosters love of country and loyalty as the bedrock of citizenship education. Rowe (1995) argues that while acknowledging the danger of generating intolerance of others, to some extent the Patriotic model is always present in citizenship education as it is the basis of civic cohesion;
- *the Religious Model* now somewhat outmoded in multicultural mainly secular societies where the responsibility for passing on citizenship values are no longer left to religious authorities, although there may be an equivalent message in terms of values from both religious and secular sources;
- *the School Ethos Model* where the school models 'good citizenship and pro-social behaviour: in order for this model to be effective the power relationships and decision-making processes in a school have to be open to all;
- *the Value Conflict Model* which encourages students to develop 'predetermined moral and political values' which allow them to respond to conflicts and issues within acquired loyalties and understanding.

Interestingly none of these models include as a learning objective the real participation of students in the social issues of the day. All are predicated on a citizenship education that is conformist.

Rowe (1995:54) further adds to his description of models of citizenship education with the acknowledgement of the challenges involved in delivering it which are compounded by the fact that 'in many countries [it] continues to remain optional, fragmented, poorly resources and largely taught by non-specialists.'

While the role of school ethos has long been acknowledged as a key factor in educating young people for citizenship, (see Hess & Torney, 1967; Entwistle,

1971; Carnegie Corporation, 2003), much has been written on the patriotic model of citizenship education and importance or otherwise of teaching about what it means to be a citizen of any given nation - or not. The tension and challenges arise around the pluralistic nature of modern society and the concept of nationhood in what Keating (2009) calls post-national citizenship education. Claims are made that an individual's nationality is part of the development of personal identity (Miller, 1995; Tamir, 1993) while Carrington and Shortt (2000) claim that in every society education has a role to play in maintaining the dominant culture and emphasising national identity. Archard (1999) in response to Galston (1991) and Callan (1997) makes the point that 'it is moot how malleable national identities are' and further argues that there is no need to teach patriotism, in fact it is risky. He comes down on the side of the argument that citizens need to be taught how to think critically and make informed choices. Archard (1999) questions whether or not we should be teaching patriotism while Williams (1995) sees possible benefits in the development of national sentiment in civic education and the development of national communities where shared values can accommodate diversity, are pluralistic in nature and support social cohesion.

Audigier (2008:32) notes that the framing of citizenship education as a subject on school curricula has moved from civic instruction model to a civic education model and in turn this has become an education *for* citizenship model. I would argue that this view reflects a shift away from the transmission of knowledge to a view of the citizen as co-citizen, participating in society with other citizens.

In this light, this study explores the Irish model of citizenship education (detailed in Chapter 4) in which active participation by students with real-world issues is a critical element of the subject.

3.6. Active Citizenship Education

In simple terms active citizenship education, active learning and participative projects based on aspects of engagement with society have as their focus the application of knowledge and skills meaningfully in the real world: the modern concern is less with the concept of citizenship as status and more with the question of citizenship as practice (Potter, 2002; Isin, 2009; Fischman & Haas, 2012; Birdwell, Scott & Horley, 2013). It is active participation that brings the dimensions of active citizenship together: the European Commission (1998:12) noted

> ...the teaching of citizenship is not enough — it is the learning of citizenship which is essential. This must comprise not only the development of intercultural understanding (the affective level), but also the acquisition of operational competence (the cognitive level) — and both are best gained through practice and experience (the pragmatic level).

Traditionally citizenship education provided only limited experiences: ones that were passive and thin, where the aim was conformity to the status quo and obedience to the state from responsible citizens, producing what Ross (2008) calls 'democratic sheep'. Brown (2005: 43) notes too that neoliberal views of the citizen can reduce the role to 'an unprecedented degree of political passivity and complacency' while Leighton (2004:169) makes the point that citizenship education 'is offered within a framework of established order, to encourage more participation in the system rather than to question it.' Dewey (1959:15) claimed that 'all genuine education comes about through experience'; he proffered a view of democracy as a way of life.

Similarly in the United Kingdom the Crick Report (QCA, 1998:64) notes that within the formal education system students need to learn 'about how to make themselves effective in public life' by acquiring the skills and understanding needed for engagement and action. Banks (2001:9) notes that 'To help students

acquire reflective and clarified cultural, national, and global identification, citizenship education must teach them to know, to care and to act.'

Thus the modern prevailing view sees citizenship education as a means of educating citizens in the twenty-first century for active participation in a democratic and global society (see also Newmann, 1975; Hébert 1997, 2009; Irish Human Rights Commission (IHRC), 2011; Higgins, 1992; Davies, Gregory & Riley, 1999; Merryfield & Drudy, 2008; Pykett, 2010; Ahrari et al., 2014). Farr Darling (2002:229) notes that 'how to participate in various public spheres characterized by diverse perspectives and understandings...' is at the heart of citizenship education.

This view is situated within a broader perspective on education itself where the first requirement is identified by Wenger (1998:271) as 'opportunities for engagement'. Wenger (1998) asserts that education 'is transformative' and he provides a philosophical basis for participation as a means of transformation. He claims that engagement contributes both to the shaping of personal identity and social identity with the involvement of learners in practices that attempt to ensure that learning is not 'self-contained' within the four walls of school. He says that

> One problem of the traditional classroom format is that it is both too disconnected from the world and too uniform to support meaningful forms of identification. (Wenger, 1998:269)

Citizenship education is positioned as a social process that can foster co-operative human engagement, growing out of both the liberal and communitarian views of what it means to be a citizen.

Furthermore for Wenger (1998:271) it is essential that the architecture of learning is concerned with such issues as 'places of engagement, materials and experiences with which to build an image of themselves [learners] and ways of having an effect on the world and making their actions matter' (Wenger,

1998:271). In his essay on *'Learning Citizenship'* (2009) Wenger argues that the challenge of how we manage participation in and across learning spaces and the ways in which the engagement in those learning spaces occurs, the relationships between the multiple social learning spaces and the ways in which we access opportunities to open up new communities of practice – is what learning citizenship is about.

Godfrey Baldacchino (2000:212), author of a school text-book in Malta goes so far as to say 'Involvement is part of the rights and duties of citizenship', while Wenger (1998) saw such engagement as participation in a 'community of practice' which goes beyond the subject being explored to the development of both a personal and social identity. Wenger (2009:8) further asserts that 'Learning citizenship is situated right at the crossroads between social learning spaces and trajectories of identity'. Identity is cited by Isin and Woods (1999) as one of the central themes of citizenship and alongside is a concern with rights connected to the values, skills and knowledge that are prerequisites to being an informed active citizen with the capacity to practice and engage as a citizen (Osler, 2008).

The value of students learning through citizenship - that is through active engagement - through community action in particular and through what is also called 'service learning' has been lauded by Birdwell et al. (2013) (see also Patterson, Doppen & Misco, 2012; Brown, 2011; Ross, 2008; Kennedy, 2006; Harkavy, 2006; Boyle-Baise, Brown, Hsu, Jones, Prakash, Rausch, Vitols & Wahlquist, 2006; Kaye, 2001; Annette, 2000; Lindsley and Rayment, 2004). These writers have written specifically on active citizenship beyond the classroom and about the idea of 'learning in deed' (Fiske, 2002). Service learning which involves students getting involved in community projects (or initiating them) as part of course work is embedded within a number of university and school courses in the US where students can achieve credits for engaging and

reporting on such activities. This practice is also spreading beyond the USA to European universities, including into Ireland.

Birdwell et al. (2013) advocate a type of service learning that is embedded within education as opposed to the traditional learning approach. They further contend that a view of citizenship education that incorporates life-long 'service learning' would be the best model.

Kristjànsson (2006:279) points out that the aim of learning in citizenship education is 'to cultivate generosity and other virtues...to develop their sense of altruism' as part of character education while benefitting the community where the engagement occurs and overall improving the atmosphere in the school, the level of student achievement and self-esteem'. He warns against the risk involved in service learning where acts of generosity and engagement simply become acts of charity to the 'under-privileged'. He believes that generosity is both a political concept and a personal one and should form part of the civil education of young people (Kristjànsson, 2006).

The Scottish Executive Minister for Education Peter Peacock (cited in Maitles 2001:24) asserted that what is needed in society today is a strong education system, one that can build

> ...a compassionate society, an innovative society, one that is considerate, self-respecting, healthy, morally strong, that respects other people's cultures...

and he went on to say in particular that society needs young people who have a strong desire to participate. Davies (1991) points to the fact the 'good citizen' was once seen as the model citizen who could be moulded and shaped through education and socialisation. Now the call for active citizens is a call to go beyond a sanitized view of the good citizen which was in many ways idealised and thin, to the current view with its focus on the practice of citizenship.

Crick (QCA, 1998: Para 1.5) in his Report on *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools* said of citizenship education in the United Kingdom:

> We aim at no less than a change in the political culture of this country both nationally and locally; for people to think of themselves as active citizens, willing, able and equipped to have an influence on public life and with the critical capacities to weigh evidence before speaking and acting; to build on and to extend radically to young people the best in existing traditions of community involvement and public service, and to make them individually confident in finding new forms of involvement and acting among themselves.

The Crick Report (QCA, 1998) argues that it is not enough to teach children about how to be effective citizens, they need experience and practice in expressing their views, in decision-making, in conflict resolution, in how they can make a difference. The Report has its central theme the idea of participation. Kiwan (2007) notes that community involvement provides a very broad base upon which to develop social or political responses and awareness. Participation and democracy, in a democracy, for democracy are closely bound in the modern discussions on education for participation (Birdwell et al., 2013; Kiwan, 2007).

To this end there has been a huge interest in the whole area of citizenship education in Europe. Various projects, programmes and initiatives have taken place and continue to take place from 'Poland to Estonia, from Norway to Greece. They include revitalised approaches to traditional civics education, the introduction of new teaching approaches, the addition of new curricular content and the reformulation of some traditional subjects…' (Ross, 2000a:89).

The aim of engaging young people at a level which recognises both their rights and their contribution has been at the core of studies, research and writings (see Arnstein, 1969; Hepburn, 1984; Kneip, 1986; Hart, 1992; Fogleman, 1991; John &

Osborn, 1992; Naylor & Cowie, 1999; Amedeo et al., 2002; Oesterreich, 2002; Osler, 2000; Reddy & Ratna, 2002; Flecknoe, 2002; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2003; Holden, 2004, Jans, 2004; Shevlin & Rose, 2008, Birdwell et al., 2013). The IEA have conducted three large-scale studies on civic and citizenship education: in 1971 with nine participant countries, in 1999 with 28 countries, and in 2009 with 38 countries. These studies have attempted to initiate debate on citizenship education and educational reform in the area.

Much has been written about school and student action within local, national and even international communities. Success stories are the subject of articles and books; by and large these chart various interventions, projects and case studies, phenomenological and ethnographic research where the extent of the learning, both short and long-term, is varied (see Carnegie Corporation of New York and CIRCLE, 2003; Carrington & Short, 2000; Davies et al., 2009; IEA, 2013).

Hess and Torney (1967) researched over 120,000 pupils in US Schools around their political attitudes and beliefs: they found that schools had a powerful role in the development of political awareness and understanding. Hedtke et al. writing in 2007 acknowledge that citizenship education in Europe is a well-studied field particularly in the light of the range of national and international overviews, comparative surveys and studies that have been undertaken. Such studies focus not only on civic knowledge but on the engagement of young citizens with society as part of their education experience.

Hedtke and Zimenkove (2013), Kerr, Sturman and Friedman (2011), Waghid (2005), Kim, Parks & Beckerman, (1996) and Perry (1992) are among the wide range of authors who believe in the efficacy of active participation by students both inside and outside of the classroom. They acknowledge that active citizens are more likely to emerge from such experiences as part of their education. In

fact the desire to empower children - those under the age of 18 - to take responsibility, and to act responsibly in society, has been identified and supported as the key to the health of future democratic society.

'Participation' is the buzz word in citizenship education (Hedike & Zimenkova, 2013; Keating & Kerr 2013; Johnson & Morris, 2010; Brannen et al., 2006; Nugent, 2006). Taking the publication of the Convention of the Rights of the Child in 1989 (UN, 1989) as the catalyst, the issue of children's right to participate in society has attracted increased attention from scholars and researchers (Verhellen, 2004b; Banks, 2001; Reddy & Ratna, 2002; Cockburn 2005; Uprichard, 2007; James, 2011; Birdwell et al., 2013).

However, Kennelly and Llewellyn (2011) ask the key question concerning what type of action schools make available. The intention is to provide students with authentic and real experiences of engagement and not simulations or role plays around social issues. I believe that this could be a risky business. Furthermore, Crick and Porter (1978) argue that '....if we want citizens, we have to tolerate some of the unpredictable inconveniences of action and participation.' The intention is commendable; the reality of the experience would seem to vary from one jurisdiction to another.

McCowan (2008) points to the difficulty in transposing the aim of enabling participation with real civic action. The transposition in the curriculum of the concept of active engagement has become learning about action, skills and behaviours (Kerr, Keating & Ireland, 2009). Too often, as Hill, Davis, Prout and Tisdall (2004) note, children are seen as 'actors' rather than 'respondents' fitting into society in ways that are chosen for them. I would argue that despite all the reservations voiced by these educationalists that the best model of citizenship education has as its core the student as an active citizen.

Back in 1992, Hart suggested that active engagement by children in society could be experienced by them at different levels.

3.6.1. Levels of Participation

In 1992 Roger Hart's seminal work *Children's Participation: From Tokenism to Citizenship* was published. In this he presented his ladder of participation as a starting point for thinking about the involvement of children in society. This model was based on Arnstein's ladder of participation which was first proposed in 1969. It focussed on citizens and how their level of participation was directly determined by the level of power that they had to determine outcomes. In this sense Arnstein (1969) argued that there had to be a re-distribution of power or participation remained an empty process, frustrating for those who were at the bottom of the ladder (McKoy & Vincent, 2007).

Hart (1992) re-designed this ladder as a tool to address participation and young people. His ladder is predicated on an 'adultist' view that compares levels of adult control over decision-making with degrees of participation for young people. On the first three rungs, adults remain tightly in control and this results in what Hart identifies as three levels of non-participation, namely 'Manipulation', 'Decoration' and 'Tokenism' (Hart, 1992:8). At these levels young people are only token participants playing marginal roles.

The next three rungs of the ladder represent increased roles for young people where more adult-led work, in partnership with the young, is the basis for participation. These three levels he names as:

- Assigned but informed;
- Consulted and informed;
- Adult initiated shared decisions with children (Hart 1992:12).

Arnstein's original Ladder of Participation (1969)

Hart's Ladder of Participation (1992)

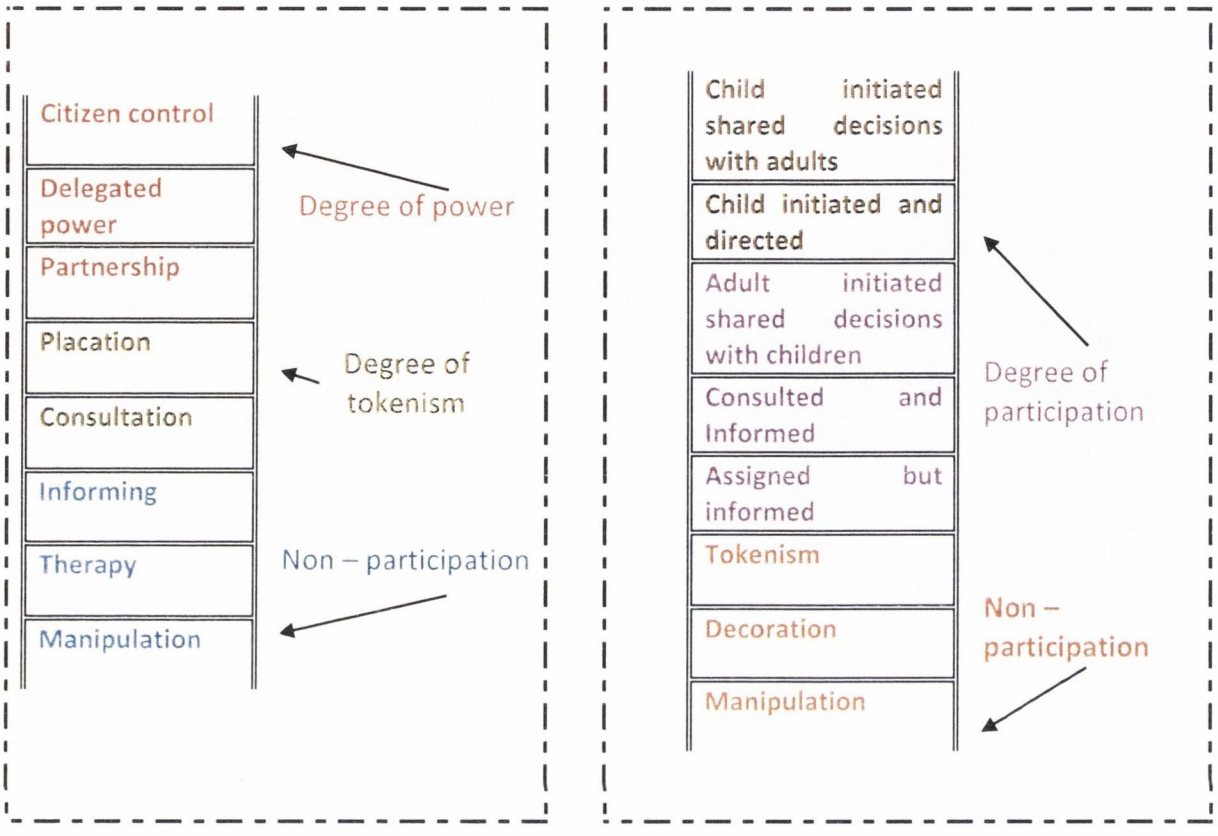


Figure 3-3: Arnstein's (1969) and Hart's (1992) Ladders of Participation

Hart (1992) places a high value on the level of participation represented by these three rungs believing in the power and value of 'adult initiated shared decisions with young people'. He asserts that this level of participation has great potential and value.

The top two rungs of the ladder represent young people as the initiators of participatory action. Hart has named them as

- Child initiated and directed
- Child initiated and shared decisions with adults (Hart 1992:14).

These are the pinnacle of youth participation but Hart argues that these top two rungs are not absolutely necessary for valid participation to occur; the top five rungs of the ladder all support levels of valid participation. Later when Hart

(2008:19) revisited his ladder metaphor he noted that what had been designed as a jumping-off point for reflection on children's participation was being used for a purpose for which it was not intended namely as a 'comprehensive tool for measuring their work.

Kara (2007) argues that the battle to convince people of the legitimacy of involving young people has been won but that the question of the quality of that involvement is the next real challenge. He points to the issues of design, resources and skills as key determinants of the quality of engagement when young people are involved in taking responsible action.

What these scholars are arguing is that participation in and of itself is not enough. For it to be authentic it needs a level of ownership by the young people/students, and opportunities for them to initiate practices and at least a shared control over the decision-making processes. This within the context of an assessed curriculum is surely the challenge for curriculum designers, schools, teachers and assessment models.

3.7. On the Other Hand

Like most of the language around citizenship education, the concept of participation itself comes under scrutiny and is 'highly contested' and 'ill-defined theoretically' according to Barber (2009) and Parker (1996). Hallet (1987), Meagher (1993), Barry, Davies and Williamson (1997), Freeman and Veerman (1992) question the concept of youth participation in particular. Kirby, Lanon, Cronin and Sinclair (2003) assert that youth participation is a flawed concept while both Matthews (2001) and Bessant (2004) warn that the voices of young people can be manipulated under the pretence of participation. Parker (2005:350) notes that making decisions and taking action without a foundational knowledge and theoretical base and deliberative experience is 'no cause for celebration.'

Treseder (1997) posits a pragmatic view of youth participation in which he acknowledges that adult engagement is inevitable. The focus in the debate is with the levels of engagement and consultation between young people and adults in the process of taking action. Even Aristotle in his early wisdom contained in *Nichomeachean Ethics* (cited in Kristjànsson, 2006) points out that a tutor is required in order for the moral learning from experience to occur.

The need for adults to 'stay in control' and a fear of what might happen if adults hand over power to young people has been investigated by Barber and Naulty (2005). They have identified that there are 'great efforts (sometimes overt, sometimes manipulative, paternalistic, and hidden) to accept young people only if they mimic responsible adult values and behaviour' (Barber & Naulty, 2005:36). They specify a number of factors that impact what we call youth participation, factors such as the adolescent's need to develop his/her own identity, to challenge the status quo, and have the space to work through this adolescent phase in their lives. They claim to have drawn on Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (1978) where social interaction between learners and more capable peers and adult guidance enable the development of student potential. They have identified this as the engagement zone where a complex process occurs that is both top-down with pressure from adults (in control) and bottom-up from young people ready to take risks (Barber, 2009). Barber (2005) argues that context is the key component and that young people who are taking action are involved in a process somewhere on the spectrum from active to passive.

Coffey (2004) has different reservations about young people being involved in active citizenship projects; his view is imbued with concern regarding the manipulation of young people to contribute to the economy rather than learning more about the innovative and democratic aspects of what being a citizen means. Like Lister, Smith, Middleton & Cox (2005) he is concerned with

the link between active citizen and responsible citizen to the detriment of an understanding of the rights of the citizen.

McLaughlin (1992) writing in the early days of the revival of interest in citizenship education places little or no emphasis on participation. He sees the issue of teaching students how to critically question and acquire understanding of the common values of a liberal pluralist democracy as the dominant features of effective citizenship education.

3.8. Citizenship Education - Content and Skills

This entire section focuses on the 'what' of citizenship education and the challenges of deciding what constitutes the content of a course in citizenship education. There are identifiable patterns in the literature regarding the strands or common constituent parts of what makes up citizenship education. Maitles (2009), similar to Marshall (1950), attempts to deconstruct citizenship education into component strands. For Marshall those components were 'civic citizenship, political citizenship and social citizenship', while Maitles (2009:49) identifies 'three distinct strands: political literacy, community involvement and values.' The inclusion of community involvement as an aspect of citizenship education has become more commonplace as the importance of the active citizen has been recognised, and an 'active citizen strategy' supported by the state in jurisdictions such as England and Ireland has been endorsed (QCA, 1998; DoE, 1996; Kearns, 1991; Taskforce for Active Citizenship, 2007; European for Citizens Programme, 2007-14)

Lynch (1992) identified what he called 'levels' in the teaching of citizenship, namely local citizenship, national citizenship and inter-national citizenship. He further outlined four domains of citizenship education, the social, cultural, environmental and economic. Osler and Starkey (2004) call for holistic approaches that involve both the affective and cognitive domains. Osler (1995:4)

sees modern citizenship education having as its focus 'an inclusive rather than exclusive understanding of national identity and citizenship.' Davies et al., (2009:37) assert that 'It is possible to develop the citizenship curriculum so that it actively engages young people and gives them real opportunities'.

In America where citizenship education is part of Social Studies, the National Council of Social Studies (NCSS) (2001) identified that effective citizenship is an important aspect of education in general and it should ensure that:

1. Civic knowledge, skills and values are taught specifically;
2. The school culture and classroom demonstrate key citizenship values;
3. Citizenship is integrated across the curriculum;
4. There are real opportunities for students to engage in decision-making in the school;
5. There are opportunities for learning and participation that goes beyond the classroom;
6. Students are taught about the founding documents of the nation, the traditions and people who shaped the nation and the civic and political institutions of the federal states.

In his general statement on the key elements of citizenship education programme Ross (2008) identifies values such as upholding human rights, focussing on ideas of social responsibility and obligation towards others, developing an understanding of certain legal values and the concept of freedom and the values of tolerance and empathy towards others. The skills he names are skills of enquiry, communication, the ability to persuade and an understanding of group dynamics. Finally in terms of key knowledge he points

to an understanding of politics in society, the role of the law, the environment and a basic knowledge of the economic working of the world.

The following strands or themes have been identified (Audigier, 2008; Osler & Starkey, 2010; Fieldler et al., 2008; Banks, 2004) as having a place in citizenship education programmes. They will be used as lenses for analysing the data generated in this study:

- Human Rights Education (HRE)
- Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC)
- Education for European Citizenship
- Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)
- Educating the Global Citizen (including intercultural education)

While each of these themes attract a significant volume of literature in their own right (see Scutari, 1995; Torres, 1998; Tan, 2004; Hedtke et al., 2007; Merryfield & Drudy, 2008; Gannon, 2008; Fergusson, 2011), they are also to be found in overlapping and intersecting contexts in general literature on citizenship education (see van Steenbergen, 1994; Osler & Vincent, 2002; Dower & Williams, 2002; Banks, 2004; Arthur & Davies, 2008; Arthurs & Cremin, 2012). The Council of Europe (since 1997) and the European Commission (since 2001) for example have been engaged in the development of structures and campaigns to support the teaching of Education for Democratic citizenship and Active European Citizenship. Audigier (2008:55) highlights the importance of all these themes and notes that 'Human rights, culture and democratic culture do not spread like influenza...All this needs to be taught...'.

Citizenship education also attempts to provide the skills of participation and a set of dispositions (Ward & O'Shea, 2002) which are labelled as attitudes or

values in some of the literature (Kristjànsson, 2006). These values underpin the content areas above and include tolerance, compassion, social justice, interdependence, respect for diversity, responsibility and an understanding of racism, xenophobia, discrimination and inequality.

I believe that for the model of citizenship education being explored in this study the importance of such values/dispositions must underpin the skills of participation. In fact, these values add depth and critical meaning to the act of participatory citizenship.

The following sub-sections explore some of the key themes commonly found in citizenship education.

3.8.1. Human Rights Education

Lynch (1992:4) identified that citizenship education 'should address the cognitive, affective and action–oriented objectives in two international dimensions, human rights and social responsibilities'. Similarly a UNESCO/UNICEF Report (2002) found that

> Civic education programmes have become an increasingly important means to education citizens about their rights and responsibilities...beyond 'patriotic' models of citizenship...It has therefore become the norm for modern civic education programmes to have a strong human rights values base, to make specific reference to children's rights and address issues related to diversity and the rights of minorities within society. (Smith, Fountain, McLean, 2002:16)

A World Programme for Human Rights Education (WPHRE) was established by the United Nations in 2004 and its aim was 'to advance the implementation of human rights education programmes' (IHRC 2011:30). This programme is overseen by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), and in the Action Plan produced with UNESCO (OHCHR & UNESCO, 2006:1) it proclaimed that

> A comprehensive education in human rights not only provides knowledge about human rights and the mechanisms that protect them, but also imparts the skills needed to promote, defend and apply human rights in daily life. Human rights education fosters the attitudes and behaviours needed to uphold human rights for all members of society.

The principle at the heart of human rights and citizenship education is embodied in this statement. It positions human rights education - and children's rights education - as the foundation of citizenship education. Arising from such a principle, children naturally learn what it means to be a member of the human family and the implications of such membership in terms of both rights and responsibilities.

While citizenship education 'is as old as the existence of public education systems themselves,' (McCowan, 2008:153), the modern model of citizenship education has become the catalyst for opening up the whole area of human rights and responsibilities to a new generation. Whereas in the past loyalty and pride in the nation-state were the basis of citizenship education, the current focus is more on democratic participation, global citizenship and an understanding of the rights and responsibilities of the citizen. The espousing of Human Rights Education is indicative of the awareness and drive to embed the concept of citizenship itself within a human rights agenda.

Citizenship education has become the perfect vehicle for exploring this concept and in particular in creating awareness around the denial of rights, an issue which is core to the work of many NGOs. As citizenship education encompasses education about children's rights, it has also allowed governments to meet commitments made through international conventions. These commitments include providing children with access to information and acknowledge that children have the right to know their rights. Citizenship education provides a useful medium to address controversial rights issues such

as racism, discrimination, inequality, intolerance and bias. Human Rights education is the foundation of citizenship education and underpins education for cosmopolitan citizenship in the modern world (Osler 2013). The fact that Human Rights are enshrined in law in such documents as the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights,* the *European Convention of Human Rights,* the *Convention of the Rights of the Child* and other Declarations and Charters provides frameworks for the learning about (in)equality, (in)justice and rights (Fiedler et al., 2008).

While referring to the benefits of active participation by students in their community Perry (1992) noted that the whole process of clarifying their rights and responsibilities facilitated students to form a personal framework of citizenship. The issue of obligation, duty and responsibility is also addressed. Human Rights education also provides a means of exploring the issue of responsibility and the counterbalance of rights. Marshall (1950) addressed the issue of rights and duties and the need to balance these and his influence is evident in Jenson's (1997:628) claim that 'To be a citizen means to enjoy certain rights and obligations guaranteed by the State'.

3.8.1.1. Rights versus Responsibilities

In its new National Curriculum, the QCA (2007) in England included as one of its three core aims that it should enable all young people to become

> responsible citizens who make a positive contribution to society. Citizenship education is unrivalled as a means of teaching young citizens of the range of responsibilities that the 'good citizen' performs in society from voting and doing jury service to volunteering and caring for the environment.

There is a school of thought however that sees the emphasis on such responsibilities as part of a neo-liberal agenda, one in which the citizen is being groomed for individual success in a global economy (Rose, 1999; Mitchell, 2003; Sears, 2003; Brown, 2005; Bottery, 2005; Hébert, 2009; Kennelly & Llewellyn,

2011). In particular Giroux (2002) and Bottery (2005) warn that in such a consumer driven society the concepts of public good and of political agency are forced to take a back seat.

Lawson (2001) notes that the balance between rights and responsibilities is pivotal in debates about citizenship education. Osler and Starkey (2010) would further argue that in principle if children learn about human rights, acquire knowledge and understanding of human rights - and their importance, then the need to defend them will naturally follow and children will see develop a sense of responsibility that such an understanding brings. In effect they argue that responsibility only makes sense in terms of an understanding of vital importance of universal human rights.

Kennelly and Llewellyn (2011:903) carried out a discourse analysis on the Canadian citizenship education curricula and discovered evidence of the neo-liberal agenda there. They found that the coupling of terms such as responsible, ethical, dutiful, informed with citizenship outweighed the emphasis on active citizenship. They found that compliant behaviour was encouraged while activism, activists or protest were positioned as inappropriate and such action is almost always tempered by adjectives that emphasize the importance of responsibility and rationality (Kennelly & Llewellyn, 2011). They found that the most prominent discursive pattern in the curriculum documents reviewed was 'the relationship established between the 'citizen' and 'responsibility'' (Kennelly & Llewellyn, 2011:906).

3.8.2. Education for Democratic Citizenship

The issue of responsibility is carried forward into the focus on education for democratic citizenship and the concept of the responsible citizen in a democracy society. Niemi & Junn (1998) note that political enfranchisement is a birthright of citizens in a democracy, and Strijbos (2002) makes the point that

information is a critical component of citizenship in a democracy. Fischman and Hass (2012:176) assert that

> Coupling the notion of citizenship and education was a by-product of the early processes of institutionalization of nation-states as 'democracies' as scholars and politicians understood the need to develop new models of relationship between individual subjectivities, emerging novel collective actors, and the state.

It is thus accepted that citizens in a democracy should understand the political system in which they have a role in electing representatives, should be informed of the options they have in legitimising good government and should know the many ways available to engage in civil society. Citizenship education focuses on the relationship between the individual and the state and emphasises the political structures that enable citizens to engage; it aims at developing political literacy and promotes the political activities like voting and volunteerism.

In an article in *The Guardian* entitled 'Launching the Active Citizen' Patten (1988) wrote 'I produce, I consume therefore I have a moral duty to care and provide.' Kearns (1991:21) claims that active citizenship straddles the interface between social and political structures. Niemi & Junn (1998) identify a politically knowledgeable citizenry as the goal of citizenship education. They argue that citizens should have a minimum understanding of the political system in which they express preferences and elect representatives (see also Callan, 2004; Farrelly, 2004). Similar to some of the heavy-weight educational theorists, namely Dewey (1916), Locke (1690), and J.S. Mills (1861) they attribute a causal relationship between formal education and good citizens, while acknowledging as many others do that other informal educational settings have a role to play to providing different perspectives on the world (Merryfield, 1998; Kerr, 2000; Niens & McIlrath, 2010; Kymlicka, 2008; Alexander, 2001).

Brown and Fairbrass (2009:3) state that Citizenship Education is education about democracy but more importantly it is education for democracy. In the 1970s Crick and Porter (1978:7) argued that the education system should be looking towards fostering

> ....a person who has a fair knowledge of what are the issues of contemporary politics, is equipped to be of some influence, whether in school, factory, voluntary body, or party and can understand and respect, while not sharing, the values of others.

Maes (2005) says of education for democratic citizenship that it is indicative of the drive to modernise and broaden the curriculum and provides an extension of the educational experience for young people. Kymlicka (2008:129) goes further and asserts that

> the health and stability of modern democracy depends not only on the justice of its basic structure but on the attitudes and qualities of its citizens... their desire to participate in the political process in order to promote the public good and hold political authorities accountable.

He further claims that the importance of a public-spirited citizenry with a sense of justice and tolerance who are capable of respecting the rights of others while moderating their own claims are essential for democracy to flourish (Kymlicka, 2008:130). Papastephanou (2008:54) makes the point that political education is linked to a society's view of the role of education in general, on the power of education to bring about change and she notes that

> what is at stake is the positioning of citizenship education between the Is and the Ought: in other words, what should citizenship education aim to achieve?

Fischman and Haas (2012) also note that creating a particular identity – that of the citizen - is concerned with the development of the 'desired' and socially acceptable relationships of governance between individual citizens and the nation-state. Awareness of political principles, the rights and responsibilities of

the individual, the power and the responsibilities of the collective and the importance of what Niemi & Junn (1998) identify as the ability of all citizens to participate with equal levels of effectiveness underpins the teaching of democratic citizenship education. The outcome should lead to students developing a sense of identity as citizens in their society (Kymlicka, 2008). Johnson (1987) makes the point that politics presents as a very well defined field of study, however focussing on more than political theory and institutions, education for democratic citizenship exposes students to political issues and topical political problems.

In 1997 the Council of Europe announced its Education For Democratic Citizenship (EDC) project which called on leaders, decision-makers and persons on the ground to treat EDC as a priority in educational policies. It identified the need to support practitioners with the necessary tools including appropriate conditions, methods, examples, case studies, resources, exchanges and networks. Birezea (2000) expressed the need to identify the language, skills, learning experiences and the partnerships that would foster EDC and he emphasised the importance of providing education for teachers in this work (see also Kennedy, 2005; Follesdal, 2008; Power, 2007; Hedtke et al., 2007).

Mokre, Puntscher & Riekmann (2007) have examined the research into the many EU Framework Projects that are based on EDC. They chart progress and present a range of models of good practice projects undertaken in sites of democratic citizenship. Audigier (2008) notes that the range of sites identified have all provided evidence of democracy in action – partnerships, projects, local activities, intercultural committees, peace building work, training/teaching projects, many of which are underpinned by a human rights focus.

The fact that many schools are themselves not democratic institutions is a point not lost in the literature (Jeffers, 2014a; Niens & McIlrath, 2010; Ross, 2008;

Gearon, 2003). This paradox is addressed primarily in the establishment of school councils and ways of encouraging student voice and participation. This initiative however does not address issues concerning the role of staff in autocratic school regimes, and what Ross (2008) calls pseudo-democratic practices - but that issue, while significant, is beyond the scope of the present study.

3.8.3. Global Citizens

Globalisation is a major revolution of our time. In light of this changing world in which we live, Torres (1998) refers to the current process of educational reform and the re-shaping of educational principles and practices. She identifies the central issues at the heart of this reform as democracy, citizenship and multiculturalism. Her comments are typical of others who also recognise that the concept of citizenship education must include such issues as democratic citizenship, an understanding of human rights, cultural diversity, social responsibility and global citizenship. Martin (2008:9) notes that

> Today's world is a world characterised by globalisation and developing awareness about being a member of a global community is to be found in the modern understanding of what constitutes citizenship education - in a way that was not always evident in earlier definitions where nationalism and patriotism were uppermost.

The understanding and awareness of the global citizen and what Knight Abowitz and Harnish (2006) call 'the trans-national citizen' is acknowledged as having a key role in effective citizenship education. The contemporary debate around globalisation, internationalisation and cosmopolitanism has impacted on education, in particular on the framework of citizenship education in societies that are becoming less focussed on nationhood and are more diverse (Kerr, 1999; Davies, Evans & Reid, 2005, Osler, 2011).

Banks (2008a) stresses the importance of developing an understanding of both the cultural national and global identifications that are all part of the human experience. He is not alone in this view; the need for a new understanding of citizenship education - one that goes beyond the local, to focus on the national and international aspects of the global society is a commonly held view (see Pike & Selby, 1988; Stromquist, 2002; McGregor, 2004; Banks, 2004; Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006; Fiedler, Gill, O'Neill & Pérez, 2008; Brooks & Holford, 2009), while Parker (1996) points out that citizenship is now concerned with a critical juncture of democracy and diversity in modern society.

To this end engaging students in analysis, reflection, and action for local and global citizenship and participation and supporting young people in both understanding and engaging to transform the social, cultural, political, environmental and economic structures which affect their lives and others at personal, community, national and international level is identified as a goal of global/development education (www.ideaonline.ie). The concept of Global education was espoused by the Centre for Global Education at the University of Bloomington in Indiana USA where Becker (1979) proposed a view of the world that is interactive and inter-dependent and called for education to address this by facilitating understanding of our complex multicultural world (Scutari, 1995) including the notion of a globalised civil society.

Global citizenship emanates from an understanding of the concept of the individual as a citizen and a member of the human family (Osler, 2013). Becoming a global citizen involves developing awareness of one's own identity, which may not be a singular identity. What it means to belong as a citizen in one's own community/ies informs an understanding of the interconnectedness of the world and how a link exists between action and consequences that can be applied on a global scale (Fiedler et al. 2008).

A number of writers (Osler & Starkey, 2004; Piper & Garratt, 2004; Olssen, 2004; Faulks, 2006; Kymlica, 1995; Young, 1989) have pointed out that too often ethnic diversity is perceived as a problem within society and that citizenship education could be the force to enable understanding and celebrate the richness of diverse cultures. Kymlicka (2008) believes that citizenship education needs to enable students to develop tolerance and the ability to work together with others who are different to themselves, while Merryfield & Drudy (2008) stress the importance for students of understanding how global culture impacts on students' own and others' interpretations of events.

Fergusson (2011) however is critical of the celebration of difference without some exploration of the underlying history of the inequality and the way in which inequality remains a feature of modern society. Drawing on the work of Bannerji (2000) and Sharma (2006) and focussing on multiculturalism in citizenship education in Canada, Fergusson (2011:144) makes the point that

> ...while differences in food, dress, sporting and other cultural traditions are promoted, respected, celebrated the arguably more transient *material* of differences (around income, employment, education and housing for instance) slip – or are pushed below the radar.

Merryfield & Drudy (2008:87-8) further identify four competences that are vital to global education:

1. Students need to study the outcomes of globalization.

2. Students need to develop intercultural competence.

3. Students need to acquire critical thinking skills .... To evaluate conflicting information, 'to investigate knowledge, construct information and use it to influence policy and address global issues.'

4. Similar to Case (1993), the final competence Merryfield (2008:88) suggests is that 'students need to develop an openminded-ness, anticipation of complexity, and a resistance to stereotyping'.

Tan (2004), Osler & Starkey (2005) and Enslin (2008) have focussed on Kant's (1795) modern concept of the 'cosmopolitan citizen' who has a single moral identity as a member of the human family (Osler, 2013). They have expounded the value of citizenship education as a means of developing in such a citizen an awareness and identity in a globalised world. According to Enslin (2001) a citizen forms an identity as a member of a collective, with a sense of membership of a community, usually based on a territorially defined political space with a particular set of values, where there are opportunities for a degree of participation. The cosmopolitan citizen is aware of living within a human family with human rights in a global society with multiple identities and a transnational democratic order that ultimately acknowledges citizens and cultures beyond the state.

3.8.4. Education for Sustainable Development

Environmental education is seen as another core aspect of global citizenship, global awareness and global responsibility (Christoff, 1996; Barry, 2000; Griggs & Christie, 2006). It is a strand of citizenship education in its own right and a relatively new dimension within the concept of citizenship born of concern about greenhouse gases, acid rain, melting polar ice-caps, holes in the ozone layer, and the vulnerability of planet earth in the face of 'progress'. This relatively recent heightened awareness of threats to the global environment has influenced the perspective on what constitutes a good, responsible citizen. Environmental concerns have led to the UN declaring 2005-2014 as the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development.

UNESCO (2001) proposes that ultimately the goal of education for sustainable development is to empower people, to provide them with a perspective and the ability that enables them to live in sustainable societies. Education for sustainable development is connected to the idea of responsible citizenship, it has as its focus not just the state of the environment today as Huckle (2008:343) notes but

> In addition to caring for the present and future generations of people, we should value and care for the rest of nature by recognising its ecological, scientific, aesthetic, and spiritual value alongside its economic value and acknowledging its right to exist.

In effect it is an extension of the concept of rights and responsibility with a focus on the planet. Issues of poverty and economics are included in the study of environment and there is an enmeshing of these intricate concepts into the whole fabric of citizenship education (Curtain, 2003). Dobson (2003) connects global education with post-cosmopolitan, feminine, citizen-to-citizen responsibility rather than the traditional, nationally based, masculine, citizen-to-state model. Importance is placed on educating the green citizen about the stewardship role s/he has, about her/his ecological footprint and about the political agency that the citizen has as an individual, a member of a community, state and global citizen.

A Native American proverb encapsulates the guiding principle:

> Treat the Earth well: it was not given to you by your parents, it was loaned to you by your children. We do not inherit the Earth from our ancestors; we borrow it from our children. (The United Association of Higaonon, 2012)

Similarly, environmental education is founded on the idea of the environment not being the property of individuals but rather the provider of basic human needs (Bell, 2005). It is the focus of what Huckle (2008) calls environmental or

ecological citizenship or what Bell (2004:348) termed green citizenship. He notes that 'education is the primary agent of transformation towards sustainable development since it can foster the required values, behaviour, and lifestyles.' While such education is to be found in subjects other than citizenship education, none-the-less as Lynch (1992) and Gilbert (1996) note the ecological domain is germane to the study of governance that goes from the local to global citizenship.

The content of education for sustainability focuses on values such as responsibility, intergenerational justice, a spirit of compromise and provides experiences that focus on such themes as 'ethical consumerism' -consumer choices and possible sustainable options (e.g. Fair-trade), waste management, endangered species, animal rights, planning, laws and taxes that regulate trade and environment (see Lynch, 1992; Huckle, 2008; Merryfield, 1998; Harrison & Wilson, 2011; Barrett & Richardson, 2010). These themes have resonance in the European dimension found in current models of citizenship education in EU countries.

3.8.5. Educating European Citizens

Bell (1995:2) notes that developing a 'European dimension in education' theme in member states has received considerable focus and funding from a variety of European bodies, researchers and projects. He addresses the trans-national dimension of European citizenship and the need for 'Re-education for European Citizenship' as a vital means of addressing the European dimension that is founded on the many political changes that have taken place in recent times (Bell, 1995:15).

Keating (2009) notes that many of the initiatives launched by Europe are a means of connecting with informed citizens and by so doing strengthen European integration. Similarly Flouris (1995:104) makes the point that beneath

education for European citizenship lies the belief that this is the way for education to contribute 'to the realization of the economic, political and cultural integration of Europe'. This is the focus too of Hedtke et al. (2007) who address the issue of citizenship education in what they refer to as the 'transformational' countries recently acceded to the European Union.

The focus of such an education involves the application of citizenship values in a European context and espouse multi-cultural pedagogies, around key themes such as helping students to develop an understanding of the contradictory messages in society and politics in particular, of current events including controversial issues, the development of tolerance of diversity and an understanding of human rights (Flouris, 1995; Council of Europe, 1992; Kerr, Sturman & Friedman, 2011). Furthermore the Report of the Council of Europe in 1992 noted the rise of xenophobia in Europe and called on educators to address this. Starkey (1995) notes that Europe issues declarations to guide its citizens and to enshrine its principles but it is education systems that have a central role to play in enabling young people to understand, accept and live by these principles. A focus on acceptance has passive, conformist connotations at variance with other more dynamic views of citizenship education.

In reality there is a tension at the centre of European citizenship education, the binary of education for national citizenship and education for global citizenship is impacted by the notion of European citizenship (Osler, 2011) and there are two polar opposite positions that co-exist within the European Union: one glorifies the individual citizen and his/her rights to act locally and the other locates power in a transnational body that ultimately makes the big collective decisions that require the validation, conformity and loyalty of its citizens. While I was crossing the border from Turkey to Greece on a recent vacation, in order to combat the long queue of new arrivals, the border guards opened a special booth for EU citizens entering the country, a young women in her 20s

asked aloud, 'I'm from the UK, am I in the EU?', I believe that this could have been any young person of an EU country and is just illustrative of gap to be bridged in terms of the understanding of EU citizenship and identity.

The development of an EU identity in the face of strong national identities among member states is in part the task for citizenship educators. While 'national governments try to keep 'their' citizenship in line with national models of democracy, citizenship and society', (Hedtke et al., 2007:7) there is a tendency towards convergence evidenced in European acceptance of the Council of Europe's education policy framework provided by Education for Democratic Citizenship or the approval of the EU's Active Citizenship programme (Hedtke et al., 2007).

Educating young Europeans in what it means to be a citizen of Europe is a big task and one in which schools carry only some of the responsibility- with politicians, media and other agencies such as home and society in general being responsible also. However if the European project is to succeed then developing that sense of European identity becomes the main challenge. Knowledge about the complex political systems that make Europe's political system work, the rights and responsibilities of European citizens, the values of intercultural respect for difference, for human dignity, tolerance, social harmony, social justice, and developing a sense of belonging that will lessen the democratic deficit identified first by David Marquand in 1979 when speaking of European democracy (Eurydice, 2005; Council of Europe, 2002; Bell, 1995; Commission of the European Communities, 1993). Starkey (1995) makes the point that it is teachers, not governments, who will transform European rights into reality and places at least some of the educational responsibility on teachers.

European large scale projects have focussed on a number of aspects of citizenship education including student exchange programmes, such as

ERASMUS, TEMPUS, LINGUA, Teacher exchange programmes such as EURYDICE, and later SOCRATES, conferences on such topics as teaching Human and Children's Rights, on education for Democratic Citizenship in Europe, on Active Citizenship and study visits by key educational stakeholders to sites of democratic and European Citizenship. The European Parliament Information Centres in each European capital has produced a range of resource material, information booklets targeted at particular age-groups, worksheets, posters, educational packs and other material to support teaching about Europe and what it means to be a European citizen. Oomen-Welke (1995:130) asserts that 'Citizenship values and the European dimension can be taught with textbooks and instruction...', although teaching values with such a thin approach is questionable, he does suggest that this needs to be supplemented by projects, even in primary school, to develop understanding and cooperation not only in Europe but around the globe.

However, I strongly believe that such an approach to citizenship education will not fully engage students with the European project. Active engagement with Europe is critical to the development of a European citizenry and a sense of belonging. This can best be fostered with a more active approach where in addition to textbooks, posters and the like, the student is required to think about, and engage with some form of active citizenship, such as available in Action Projects that are the focus of this study.

3.9. Pedagogical Approaches

Having explored the 'What' of citizenship education, the strands and content of the curriculum, the key skills that are fundamental to effective citizenship and the dispositions that must be fostered and taught to students as part of the educational experience. Considerable attention is also given to the 'How' aspect of teaching citizenship education and the pedagogical approaches that best suit educational objectives: there is a significant volume of literature on the teaching

of citizenship education and on developing responsible, informed, active citizens.

Breslin & Dufour (2006), Wales (2004), Gearon (2002) and Arthur & Wright (2001), have focussed particularly on the role of the secondary school in this respect while authors such as Holden & Clough (2002, 1998), Thorpe (2005) and Davies (2005) have taken a broader approach to the subject. Breslin (2004) proposes that the development of citizenship education as a 'real' subject is an acknowledgement of the duty of schools to contribute to the creation of active adult citizens. Lawson (2001) looks at the re-emergence of citizenship education as an important part of today's curriculum and focuses on the links between the active citizen, inclusive society and the role of the school.

Nieni & Junn (1998) suggest too that teaching style and teacher knowledge/interest might be an element in the success or otherwise of students in tests of civic knowledge. Research into this phenomenon is thin on the ground: the results from early studies carried out by Torney, Oppenheim & Farnen (1975) and Ravitch & Finn (1987) proved inconclusive. Back in 1980 Ehman found that the classroom climate created at the intersection of teacher behaviour and the curriculum impacted on the political socialisation of students. This impact arose from the *how* of teaching, and this element was more important than *who* was teaching, or *what* was being taught [his itialics] (Ehman, 1980).

Other research includes small scale studies of the participation of young people in some form of democratic institution or experiment (Angell, 1998) or in a community based participatory project (Hudson 2006). Nelson and Kerr, 2006 also undertook research in the practice of citizenship in the in the International Conference on Curriculum and Assessment (INCA) countries and this highlights both the diversity and similarity to be found in the responses of these

countries to the challenge of providing citizenship education for its children. The recent international study conducted by ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2011) was into learning about democracy where the focus was on learning outcomes and knowledge of the EU.

Citizenship education is now a subject on all European curricula as either a discrete subject with its own slot on the timetable or with a syllabus where it is explicitly integrated in a cross-curricular model.

Haste (2004) asserts that there are two dominant pedagogical strategies used in teaching citizenship education: the knowledge model where information is king, and the praxis model where the practical and theoretical knowledge, together with the motivation to use them, are acquired through active engagement with meaningful tasks.

The knowledge-only type courses, often termed Civic Education are less evident today; modern citizenship education courses in the main focus on a combination of knowledge/information, key concepts, skill development and in particular on acquiring the disposition to engage. The importance of engaging students in awareness raising activities, providing learning experiences that encourage discussion, teach the skills for critical, worthwhile discussion and questioning, foster a sense of belonging and teach skills of active engagement are central to citizenship education (Brown & Fairbrass 2009). Lynch as early as 1989 identified that a citizenship education syllabus had to celebrate difference while acknowledging human common bonds; had to focus on active and skills based learning together with key knowledge; had to teach students how to develop the capacity for critical reflection and had to be monitored through assessment and evaluation. Similarly Althof & Berkowitz (2006:502) note that 'learning by way of praxis, experience and deliberative discourse...' is not new having '... been promoted (at least) since Dewey...'. They further assert that the

recent focus on communitarianism has impacted citizenship education in the form of an emphasis on service in the name of the community and the common good.

Using real world, current, critical issues that focus on topics of concern to young people, using authentic, relevant trigger material from current events, employing active learning methods that are interactive and a range of team-work activities are advocated in the teaching of Citizenship Education (see Ireland, Kerr, Lopes & Nelson with Cleaver, 2006; Brown and Fairbrass, 2009; Murphy & Ryan, 2009; Harrison & Wilson, 2011). Johnston (1987) noted that choosing issues to study with students can sometimes be problematic, controversial and difficult for teachers, especially in the presence of an open-ended syllabus. Ehman (1980) explored the impact on students of classroom attributes such as the setting, the teachers, textbooks used, media employed, pedagogical approaches and programmes in the political socialisation process. In his study he found that in the US, the school had the greatest impact on the acquisition of political knowledge and it impacted to a lesser extent on political attitudes and participation.

A number of versions of the learning pyramid have been devised to illustrate how various teaching methodologies impact on learning. Notably according to the learning pyramid (Fig 3.4) students remember best the learning that they 'use immediately', or as the original version of the pyramid produced in 1954 by the Institute for Behavioural Science put it - 'doing the real thing'. Active learning in citizenship education is situated towards the base of the pyramid where group discussion, practice of learning, engagement with others and using learning and skills in the real-world context are fostered.

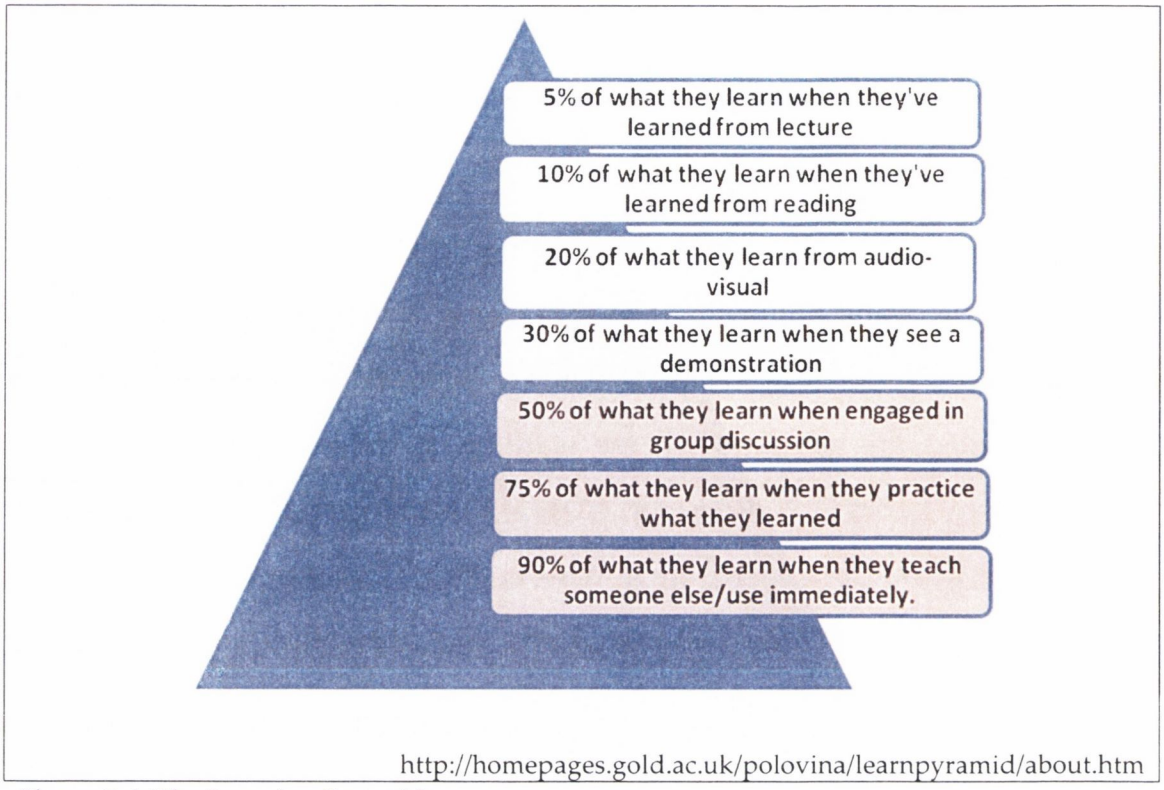


Figure 3-4: The Learning Pyramid

The focus on active learning in citizenship education is commonplace, as is the emphasis on skills acquisition. The skills most highlighted are those for critical discussion and active participation. In the case of the latter the application of these skills is usually not specified as a compulsory component within curricula but rather appears in the literature in the form of case studies (mentioned above) - around often once-off engagement in a local, national or international issue. The Irish model of citizenship education has embedded active participation in the syllabus to ensure the experience of engagement is part of the learning for students.

Puka (1999:131) identified six teaching methods that support character education and they have much in common with the methods advocated for teaching citizenship education, namely instruction/knowledge around basic values and virtues, establishing appropriate behaviour and responses to situations, examination of scenarios with moral messages, modelling and

exploring role-models, providing opportunities for students to practice their learning in the real world beyond the classroom.

Specifically in terms of citizenship education, Brown & Fairbrass (2009) identity participation as a means of exploring 'Citizenship Beyond the Classroom' and while they draw on Hart's (1992) ladder of participation, they attempt to help teachers to organise experiences for their students. The focus on the Student Council is evident in their model of engagement: however, because of its nature this means that only those students on the council will experience participation in taking action.

It is clear from the literature that as the facilitator and organiser of learning, the role of the teacher is critical. The way in which s/he approaches the task, presents the learning, influences attitudes, brings prejudices to bear perhaps, can impact positively or negatively on the learning experience for students.

3.10. Teacher Perceptions of Citizenship Education

Based on research undertaken back in 1973, Lightfoot asserted that a teacher's own political and social ideology was noteworthy, and the way in which s/he constructed the learning environment could either 'encourage or discourage cognitive reasoning and elaborative thinking on the part of children' (210) in short, the perception of the teacher matters. Similarly Merryfield & Drudy (1998) found in relation to teaching students about globalisation, that a teacher's knowledge, values, beliefs and experiences are a major contributor to the instructional decisions made - and hence to the scope and type of learning available to students.

Leighton's (2004) research into teacher attitudes to citizenship education in the early stages of its roll-out in England revealed that none of the teacher participants were opposed in principle to citizenship education. While some teachers expressed concern about the already overburdened timetable and

expressed a lack of confidence to deliver appropriate content for their students, none-the-less they were positive about the subject. They expressed the views that citizenship education was helping to produce a more rounded, holistic student experience of school outside exam processes, and was enabling students to have a more complete understanding of society while facilitating the acquisition of skills beneficial to students and citizens of the future.

When Davies et al. (2009:33) asked teachers about the participative action of students in a citizenship education project they expressed confidence that there was value in the real engagement of their students with issues and with the wider community. Holden (2004) however found in her study that teachers expressed a lack of confidence in teaching about political and controversial issues especially if there was a risk that it might bring them into conflict with a student's home.

Oliver and Shaver (1966) noted that there are many challenges for teachers in teaching citizenship; they point to the need for teachers to have skills in dealing with controversial issues, to both teach and manage critical discussion, to engage in dialogue, develop strategies to facilitate learning, to motivate students and to empower students with the skills needed for engagement with society. Where a syllabus is wide open and little guidance/training is available this task becomes all the more daunting. An additional responsibility for teachers is the issue of assessment, both the formative and the summative. Society, and students and parents in particular, have expectations of teachers when it comes to terminal examinations. The issue of assessment in citizenship brings a specific set of challenges.

3.11. Outcomes and Assessment of Citizenship Education

There is a danger of over-simplification of the concept of citizenship education by suggesting that what is actually a very complex concept, falls neatly into a

series of sub-categories (Bailey, 2000). To take these sub-categories and then devise an assessment structure around them presents a totally new challenge. When it comes to assessing the success of citizenship education as a subject, rather than as a life-competency, serious issues have to be addressed.

Acknowledging the complexity of pupil assessment in general, the Eurydice Report on Citizenship Education in Europe (2005:60) specifically stated that

> Assessing pupil attainment in citizenship education and evaluating school provision for it seem to be two of the main challenges for the future...While assessing knowledge of theoretical issues related to citizenship education may be relatively easy, measuring achievement as regards its other two 'non-theoretical' aims – the adoption of positive civic attitudes and values, and active participation or, in other words, the actual behaviour of pupils – is likely to be much harder.

Similarly Ross (2008) points out that the more active aspects of citizenship education namely values, attitudes and skills are difficult to measure, knowledge on the other hand can be efficiently and accurately measured. Teachers in Leighton's study (2004:175) held mixed views on examining citizenship, he notes

> For some staff, examinations are necessary to legitimize the subject. There are also several staff who see 'both sides'. It seems that it is perceived as 'easier' to keep to the examination philosophy than to develop an attitude supporting the importance of learning/understanding 'because it is useful' to the individual *and* their neighbours *and* society at large.

Ladson Billings (2005) questions the authenticity of assessments in citizenship education that use standardised tests or grade letters to measure student learning. Clearly attitudes to formal assessment of citizenship education vary. Brown and Fairbrass (2009:119) note that

> We are, after all, citizens by right, not by examination. We have a right to participate, to vote, to express an opinion and so

> much more, irrespective of whether or not we pass an examination in some subject called Citizenship.

Breslin (2006:323) also comes down against formally examining citizenship education: he sees it as a 'contentious issue' and says that '...the very process of 'assessing' citizenship seems to transfer it from a process to a status, from an activity to a grade. In short, assessing citizenship seems to go against the grain of what active, effective citizenship is.'

Similarly the use of summative assessment which is traditionally competitive and hierarchical is seen by Kerr et al. (2009) as not suitable for the education of citizens where equality is fundamental. Ross (2008:492) makes the further point too that 'The exigencies of contemporary society mean that we cannot afford a single 'failed citizen' and that all must succeed'. This perspective places a further onus on those designing assessment models.

On the other hand there is recognition that the status of a subject is enhanced when it is examined within official examinations framework. A study of citizenship education and its assessment in eight CIDREE (*Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe)* countries was undertaken as a collaboration with National Federation of Educational Research (NFER) from 2005-2008 and it came down in 'overwhelming' favour of the assessment of citizenship education, though it noted that there were a wide range of formal and informal practices employed by the participating countries to do this. The authors of the Report, Kerr et al., (2009) noted that assessing citizenship education was easier where the learning was delivered in discrete blocks rather than in a cross-curricular fashion. Biesta (2009) also noted that finding suitable means for monitoring and evaluating (which include forms of pupil assessment) was a challenge.

In the ICCS study previously mentioned (see Table 3.1) it was revealed that in the participant countries where citizenship education is compulsory, it is also

formally assessed (except for the Czech Republic who did not provide information on assessment). Of the 26 European countries that participated in the study (not necessarily members of the EU and highlighted in red in Table 3.1), 12 have citizenship education as a compulsory subject at some level in their system and Austria is the only European country where there is no assessment of citizenship although Zandonella (2013:37) notes that at Grade 6 and 8 in the Austrian system student performance in 'history, social studies and civic education' is assessed.

Kerr et al. (2009) makes the important point that the value of our assessment practices can ultimately be judged only in relation to educational goals and the stated purposes of assessment. It is precisely this premise that is problematic when applied to citizenship education (see also Boyle, 2013). If we accept that citizenship education in its modern form is not so much about the acquisition of knowledge as it is with the practice of citizenship, then assessing the success or otherwise of programmes of learning is challenging. A terminal written examination tends to focus, at worst, on knowledge (the 'thin' aspect of citizenship education) and at best in engaging students in scenarios, real or fictional which require students to provide evidence of an understanding of active citizenship responses, skills and behaviours. In such an examination there is the risk of there being a mis-match between the goals of the syllabus and the intended outcome of developing active citizens. How to assess if the aims of action-based citizenship education have been achieved is both challenging and controversial.

The assessment of citizenship education by the state at a national level is addressed in a number of jurisdictions by means of published indicators that may, or may not, be utilised by teachers to assess student progress in the subject. These are not at all like the Irish system of formal assessment within the core of the Junior Certificate examination which is mandatory for all students.

To date I have not located a similar model to the Irish one though since starting this study Britain has introduced Citizenship as an optional full course within the GCSE framework and it was publicly examined for the first time at this level in 2011 (Brown & Fairbrass, 2009). The option of taking a short GCSE course in Citizenship Studies was introduced in 2003 with an examination paper very closely aligned to the Irish model (Brown and Fairbrass, 2009).

Most Citizenship studies courses in England are still assessed informally. Ofsted (2003) noted in relation to the British Education system that 'assessment is currently a weak aspect of Citizenship'. While Brown and Fairbrass (2009) accept that assessment is a vital part of the educational process they acknowledge that it is a 'problematic area'. They suggest peer assessment, self-reflection, portfolio work, teacher feedback, mapping targets to student outcomes in terms of knowledge and skills acquisition and opportunities for other stakeholders involved in case study engagements to contribute to assessment of student learning.

It is therefore true to say that evidence of the success of citizenship education is still measured by a commitment to a political community and active participation in activities that serve the common-good. It is seen in pro-government behaviour such as voting and involvement in political parties and engagement in civil society activities. I believe that of themselves these, though important at a basic level, are somewhat thin, quantitative measures of citizenship education programmes.

3.12. The Citizenship Education Placebo Conspiracy

Having explored in detail many facets of citizenship education with a focus primarily the rationale for it and on its importance, it is worth noting that there are counter arguments and other theorists who question the value and the intention of citizenship education. Not all are on the side of citizenship

education. Some like Gillborn (2006) make the point that citizenship education is a vehicle that masks a more neo-liberal agenda. Citizenship education in his opinion is a subject whose sole focus is political literacy and he believes that it only superficially addresses issues of curriculum change, democratic citizenship and diversity. He says 'in practice citizenship education operates as a form of placebo; an activity that gives the appearance of addressing the issues' (Gillborn, 2006:2).

As presented in previous sections, the literature acknowledges that it is through citizenship education that some of the ills in society might be tackled head-on. Racism, vandalism, youth violence, intolerance, xenophobia and discrimination are identified as undermining democracy in pluralist societies and so are targeted as areas that citizenship education might combat (Carter & Osler, 2000). In this sense citizenship becomes a Trojan horse with seemingly one purpose but which in reality has a lot more going on inside.

Hahn (1999) is sceptical of the value of explicit teaching in the area of citizenship and puts forward the theory that citizenship is 'caught, not taught'. He queries the merit of having it on a curriculum at all. Other critics (Bottery, 2003) see the opportunities for indoctrination that the subject provides and interestingly, the introduction of the subject in both Great Britain and Ireland was subject to accusations of political manipulation for political gain. Lawton (2000:11) notes as editor of *Citizenship Education in Context* that the change of government in 1979 prevented citizenship education coming on stream in the British education system as at the time 'most Conservatives were suspicious of political education'. Hyland (1993) also charts the political fortunes, the changes of government in Ireland and the re-shuffles that were to impact on the development of CSPE. For example, a commitment to a new citizenship education course led in 1987 to the development of a new curriculum which,

following a re-shuffle and a change of government, never saw the light of day: a totally new syllabus was devised under a new administration in 1996.

McCollum (2000:74-75) identifies some challenges which she believes citizenship educators are facing, namely that 'there is no coherent basis for citizenship education.....there is a major gap between policy and practice .....there is a need to rethink citizenship education'. She poses the question 'Whose citizenship'? and sees the lack of a coherent answer to this question as a serious flaw in the current practices around citizenship education. For example, education for democratic citizenship runs into problems immediately as democratic citizenship itself is a difficult concept to define and democracy means different things in different democracies (Ross, 2000b). Davies (1999:128) asserts that democracy itself is not a single definable entity that can be taught but rather is a broad set of political processes and structures founded on justice, prosperity and peace that are diverse and contested.

Schools are powerful socializing institutions in relation to the education of citizen however, Maitles (2009) makes the point that the discussions currently happening in the area of citizenship education have in fact led to a general focus on the entire nature of education and exactly what our education system is aiming to develop in young people. He argues that it is bigger than the question of citizenship education.

Bottery (2003) takes yet another view – he argues that the different political ideologies of the ruling party and dominant culture manipulate citizenship education to their own end in order to realise their own vision of society. He states that the concept of 'duty', for example has no place in radical market place discourse, further he questions the New Modernisers who see the concepts of rights and duties as both being essential to the creation of a healthy society (Bottery, 2003). The focus on duties and responsibility is further

challenged by Howe and Covell (2010) who question the laying of guilt on the young by overburdening them with a sense of responsibility.

Bottery (2003) points to the resurgence of character education to meet the challenge of responsible citizenship. While not actually going so far as to call it conspiracy, Bottery (2003:119) warns of a citizenship education that diminishes it to the reproduction of 'a compliant workforce' that has limited human potential and political freedom, and he goes on to say that if citizenship is to be perceived in the realm of consumer goods in a global society, then citizenship education is at risk of being reduced to teaching students how to buy the best brand available on the global market.

3.13. Conclusion

The many views on citizenship, and the role of the citizen, have led to a range of different interpretations of the objectives of citizenship education and the conceptual framework for teaching the subject; these in turn have impacted on the development of syllabi and the models of delivery advocated.

In relation to the traditional approach to teaching citizenship, Australian researcher Bennett (2003:21) argues that, 'The lesson seems clear: teacher-centred pedagogy may succeed in imparting abstract knowledge of the sort that can be tested, but,... they do not help young citizens to translate that knowledge into later civic practice.' The Council of Europe (2002) has identified as an urgent task for education today that through active learning and engagement with society students will be facilitated in developing a sense of belonging, to over-come the indifference or apathy that militate against an inclusive, healthy society.

A shift in thinking has been called for. This chapter sought to provide an understanding of the move towards a post-national view of citizenship education that has broadened its goals and outcomes. The Chapter has

addressed how curricula have attempted to translate these new goals into practice. The proviso is that many aspects of policy development, curricular content, valid outcomes, teaching methodologies and assessment techniques are still being explored. Data, as evidence of what constitutes effective approaches and outcomes to citizenship education are still being collected; this study hopes to contribute to that bank of evidence.

The following chapter looks specifically at the discussion that has taken place in Ireland in relation to citizenship education and to the unique Irish response that has been made in the form of Civic, Social and Political Education.

CHAPTER 4. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN IRELAND

4.1. Introduction

This chapter examines citizenship education in Ireland and traces its development as a discrete subject in the Irish education system – a subject which appeared on the Irish curriculum only 17 years after the official declaration of the Irish Republic was made in 1949. Ireland is still a relatively young independent republic; it is interesting that the Irish/Gaelic word for citizenship *saoránacht* translates within the context of the word 'free' (*saor*).

In 1966 'Civics' – the precursor of Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE)- was introduced into the core curriculum for second level schools in Ireland and has remained there to this present day. The development of CSPE is tracked in this chapter and it is presented with a particular focus on the Action Project component of the subject. Both the spirit and the reality of active citizenship are embedded at the heart of CSPE when students engage in participatory experiences of what it means to be a citizen. In the literature on citizenship education, the vital importance of developing the skills needed to participate are identified as critical in the education and empowerment of the young citizen. The Action Project is the focus of this study.

There is no official history that documents the process which culminated in the development of the Civic, Social and Political Education course as it exists today. In the course of my research I discovered that three people were key to its development, notably John Hammond who was the Education Officer in the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) in the 1990s, Stephen McCarthy who was the first National Co-ordinator of CSPE, and Colm Regan who was the head of Education in Trócaire at the time. Interviews with John, Stephen and Colm have informed this chapter.

4.2. Historical Background

Prior to the introduction of Civics as a subject in the Irish Education system in 1966, civic virtue and values were embedded within the Religious Education curriculum; patriotism was fostered through the inclusion of Irish language learning and History. At that time Ireland was largely a mono-cultural society in terms of ethnicity, language, religion and identity (McCarthy, 1998; Williams, 1995). There has been a radical change in this: the Irish Celtic Tiger years of growth and prosperity, the influx of many economic migrants and refugees, the changing nature of social communication, supra-national engagement and the evolution of the media, together with the decline in religious devotion, transformed all that.

Citizenship education in the form of Civics did not appear on the Irish school curriculum for second level schools until 1966. Hyland (1993) notes that it was regarded as a sensitive subject in Irish education and right at the foundation of the state in 1922 a submission by the Roman Catholic Church to the first National Programme Conference emphasised that it would not favour such a subject on the curriculum. The Church argued that the syllabus for religious education itself incorporated all the values of good citizenship. It is indicative of the close relationship between the Roman Catholic Church and State at that time that Civics was not introduced then or indeed for the next 40 years (McCarthy, 2002; Rami & Lalor, 2006). McCarthy (2002:1) notes that education policy during this time, like 'Irish social, political and economic policy was conservative, nationalist, protectionist in nature'.

In 1966 Ireland marked the 50th anniversary of the 1916 Easter Rising and amidst the revitalised nationalist fervour of *'Mise Eire'*, [i.e. *I am Ireland*], the Minister for Education Donncha O'Malley raised the school leaving age from fourteen to fifteen, introduced free second level education and established Civics as a core, mandatory subject on the post-primary curriculum. In the

many revisions of post-primary education since then, citizenship education has maintained its core, mandatory position on the curriculum. This position was sustained by subsequent Ministers for Education until the re-conceptualisation in 2011 of the Junior Cycle programme where it is proposed that citizenship education will become an optional Short Course and citizenship education itself will be incorporated into some of the over-arching learning outcomes for the new Junior Cycle. In its proposed new format CSPE will also cease to be assessed as part of the state examination system.

4.2.1. Civics

Initially in 1966, the syllabus for Civics had a strong focus on 'training for citizenship' (Hyland, 1993). *The Rules and Programme for Teachers* (1966:25) while focussing on social and civic virtue also stated that 'Civics will have as a prime object the teaching of the young citizen to recognise and obey lawful authority.' The original syllabus is information heavy with twenty content areas to be covered over the then three year Intermediate Education cycle for 12 to 15 year old students.

The *Notes on the Teaching of Civics* (1967:1) take a different tone and under the heading of 'Purpose and Method' state that

> ...citizenship is not simply a matter of knowing about social and political institutions. It is also the willingness and the skill to participate actively and creatively in community affairs. The function of the civics teacher, therefore, is not merely to teach facts but also to foster civic virtue. Virtue implies action: so the teaching method we use must essentially be an active one. We must try to give our pupils, in their final years of compulsory schooling, some direct experience of the principal civic activities that we hope they will engage in during their adult life. We want them to become people who are well-informed and who keep themselves so, who are able to think clearly and constructively about social and political matters and who are ready at all times to serve the common good.

On first reading the emphasis might seem to have been placed on the importance of action and civic activities, but in reality the subject was based on the development of the well-informed people mentioned in the extract.

In his introduction to the widely used Civics text-book of the day, *Tomorrow's Citizen,* author John Waldron (1966:1) stated that

> Civics has as its purpose the training and education of young people to take their place as good citizens in local, national and international communities. Many institutions complement each other in the formation of tomorrows citizen, among them are the home, the school and the church.

Waldron (1966:1) states his aim as providing 'guidance in understanding our own and other political and social institutions...' and he hopes that students will not be required to learn by heart any of the contents. Interestingly, he suggests a number of student projects and activities at the end of each chapter and notes the importance of 'participation – research, interviews, surveys etc. - [so] that young people become prepared for and accustomed to an adult world.'

The introduction of the subject was supported by regional courses and national seminars: the Institute of Public Administration published a civics magazine, *The Young Citizen,* as a resource for teachers and students. The programme however failed 'to establish itself within the curriculum in any meaningful way' (McCarthy, 1998:85) and 'was a dying subject' (Hammond & McCarthy, 1996). Although part of the core curriculum, as a single forty minute, non-assessed subject, it went on to take up a very low status position in schools and suffered from 'a serious lack of teaching and learning resources...' (Clarke & Killeavy, 2000:179) and was ignored in many schools (Hammond & McCarthy, 1996). Furthermore over time it became obvious that in fact the one period a week allocated to Civics was being usurped by other subjects and was given over to additional history/geography/extra maths/study-periods/drugs education (Hammond & Looney, 2000).

In 1984 the Minister for Education Gemma Hussey, announced her intention to set up a new subject for second level schools, 'Social and Political Studies' and the Curriculum and Examinations Board (CEB) set up a syllabus committee. First a cabinet re-shuffle and then an election in 1987 delayed work on the subject and there was also considerable opposition from the Family Solidarity Movement who objected to Hussey's proposed new approach to Civics: they viewed it as an erosion of religious education and a shift to secularism. Gleeson (2008:76) notes that it provided 'a rare example of a curriculum issue being aired at election time.'

In 1987 the CEB issued a *Report on Social, Political and Environmental Education,* and in its review of Civics at the time it noted that the subject 'is often haphazard in its implementation and, lacking a terminal "official" examination, is often looked on as less important than other subjects' (CEB, 1987:11). This report went on to suggest that Civics should be 'part of the national assessment system and equal in status to other subjects in the curricular area.' Hammond (Interview, 2010) stressed 'the seminal importance' of this Report although he noted it was 'rejected by the Department of Education and the Minister at the time, Paddy Cooney.'

However, the review of Civics contained in that CEB Report (1987) was to impact upon the process of review at the time, and the introduction of the new Junior Certificate Programme in 1989. This new Junior Cycle model was designed to replace the old Intermediate Certificate course which had been in existence in one form or another since 1932.

One of the stated aims of the Junior Certificate programme (still current) is to prepare the young person for the responsibilities of citizenship in the national context and in the context of the wider European and global communities (NCCA, 1993) and 'to prepare students for active participatory citizenship'

(DoE 1995:4). Within this context Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) was developed.

4.2.2. Civic, Social and Political Education

Hammond (Interview, 2010) notes of the early 1990s that

> There was the emerging awareness at the time of the lack of civic ethic within Irish society... this was a time when [religious] exposures were beginning to gather pace... You had a strong sense of an increasingly secular society that needed signposts that would guide it. There was a lot more discussion at the time - and a sense that the education system bore a definite responsibility in relation to providing the benchmarks ...Also [there was] a strong sense of young people and their alienation and lack of engagement with political structures at local and national level. ...
>
> There were noises too about there being an educational commitment to this area on the curriculum - there was a welling up of interest. The critical one was that there was a political reception for it too because it coincided with the coming into power of a Labour Minister [for Education] Niamh Bhreathnach... who very quickly warmed to the subject and is associated with it.

Similarly Regan (Interview, 2010) noted that there were a number of strands that impacted upon the development of CSPE:

> Then there was the opening up of Ireland - the new Ireland. What did it mean to be a citizen in this new Ireland?
>
> The other back drop was the national question and the whole issue of violent republicanism in Northern Ireland... and concern that young people weren't being taught civic responsibility.
>
> A second strand was the context of reviewing syllabi and curricula. There was an on-going process, a climate of curriculum revival and a climate of curriculum review. But now suddenly there was this notion that the running of the education system was not the same as developing curriculum, this had led to the setting up of the CEB. Then there were

> 'maverick' units like the CDU and the CDVEC led by Antain [Trant] were always involved in curriculum development.
>
> The CDU was experimenting - as was Shannon- with other curricula. This was another ripple in the river that eventually became CSPE. Some of these were involved in experimenting with themes and ideas that you see later coming through in CSPE, for example, in the Humanities programme in Shannon there was a theme on world hunger and we were producing materials around that.'

A *Feasibility Study* (1992) was issued by the NCCA which set out a draft syllabus for a First Year Course and addressed issues that might arise around the implementation, status and assessment of CSPE. Within this context in 1993, and with John Hammond as the Education Officer with the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) – (which had replaced the CEB), the Department of Education was looking to the new millennium. A booklet entitled *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Towards the New Century* (NCCA, 1993) was produced. It identified the issue of Civic, Social and Political Education especially at Junior Cycle and a discussion paper was subsequently issued prior to the development of the final curriculum for CSPE. This discussion paper judged the original Civics syllabus as having contained '...much of merit but its content, with the passage of time, has become outdated and has not been developed to keep pace with a changing world, a changing concept of citizenship and the changing needs of schools in this area of education' (NCCA, 1993:9). The previous year, 1992, the Department of Education had issued a Green Paper *Education for a Changing World* which had gone so far as to say that '[The] experience with Civics has not been a successful one, and the topic has not always received the attention it deserves' (DoE, 1992:96). Hammond (Interview, 2010) notes 'it was an area that a lot of people believed was not functioning properly, being usurped and merged into other areas by academic subjects.' Regan (Interview, 2010) also commented on the reasons why a revision of citizenship education was needed:

> The demise of the Civics curriculum was certainly one [reason]. The reality was that in too many schools Civics was not being taught; those class slots were being used to support the most important subjects likes Irish Maths, English. There was considerable dissatisfaction with that and in particular Jack Henderson the Senior Inspector in the Department of Education with responsibility for Civics was not happy with that.

The failures of the old Civics course were itemised in the discussion paper (NCCA, 1993) and served to inform the design, implementation process and assessment approach to the subject that would replace it, namely Civic, Social and Political Education. The primary failure of Civics was noted as its 'lack of status in schools' which was attributed to the fact that it was a non-examination subject and it was given the smallest timetable allocation of all subjects (NCCA, 1993:16). When the NCCA (1997) published *The Development and Work of the CSPE Pilot Project 1993-1996,* once again it was noted that 'by the early 1990s it was clear that Civics was a dying subject (NCCA, 1997:1).

Notably too, there were no trained Civics teachers in the system; neither a degree in Sociology nor Politics was recognised for the purpose of teacher registration (NCCA 1993; Hammond & Looney, 2000; Gleeson, 2008) and there was no continuity between the junior and senior cycle in terms of citizenship education.

The discussion paper (NCCA, 1993) and indeed all official literature concerning Civics and CSPE acknowledge the fact that citizenship education permeates the curriculum and the whole school ethos. When the issue of whether to continue to include CSPE as a core mandatory subject in the new Junior Certificate Programme arose in the 1990s, a decision was made that it should remain a discrete, compulsory subject on the curriculum (NCCA, 1993).

Early on it was decided to separate out Social, Personal and Health Education – the other big area of political interest for Minister Breathnach – from Civic,

Social and Political Education; the former subject stressed issues of personal development and health related issues (Hammond & Looney, 2000:11) while the latter focussed on 'active participatory citizenship in local, national and international life producing students who can explore, examine and analyse....based on human rights and social responsibilities.' Hammond (Interview, 2010) notes that

> One of the big decisions we made at the time in the NCCA decided that SPHE and CSPE would not be merged into one area. We thought that if it was one subject then the social and personal would get all the attention.

Mc Carthy's recollection (Interview, 2014) was similar

> The one thing we didn't want was that it [CSPE] didn't cross the SPHE divide. We were very anxious that the themes we chose did not go into the personal relationship, touchy-feely stuff. In picking the themes for the exemplars we wanted that the exemplars were distinctly 'citizenship'. They [the exemplars] distinguished between CSPE and SPHE.

The discussion paper provided a blue-print for the development of CSPE and it was phased into the Junior Cycle in the mid-1990s – first within a Pilot Project (1993-1996) and then by means of a national launch.

Hammond (Interview, 2010) noted that this model of implementation was novel at the time and contributed hugely to the embedding of the subject within the system. He remarked:

> We went for a very different model of implementation with the use of the Pilot... One of the big advantages of a pilot is that you have the committee working on one channel and a Pilot team on the other: they inform each other. I had a team working on the Pilot they were a tremendous source of ideas for the course and how the syllabus worked.

4.2.3. Other Factors that Impacted on the Development of the Subject

New winds of change were blowing in Ireland and in the early 1990s, these had specific educational consequences; economic prosperity together with social and political change had a profound effect on the development of curriculum and educational policy (McCarthy, 2002).

There were other factors too including

- Changing economic circumstances - where Ireland became the Celtic Tiger economy and one of the fastest growing economies in the world.
- Changing political practices – The concept of European citizen was situated within the shifting political thinking of the time (Ward & O'Shea, 2002). Although Ireland was a member of the EEC from 1973, it was only with the enlargement of the European Union, with new political and legal practices, new currency and new Treaties that 'europeanisation' became more of a reality in Ireland.
- Changing demographic patterns - where Ireland was shifting from its mono-cultural, insular population to a society experiencing multicultural awakening with the influx of many foreign workers and new-comers.
- Changing role of the Roman Catholic Church in the lives of the people – Ireland was developing a secular culture. Whereas Ireland in the past had been hugely influenced by the values of the Roman Catholic Church, the end of the 20th century witnessed a decline in church practice together with a fall-off in the credibility of the church as scandals around abuse of children unfolded.
- Social Partnership agreement was first established in 1987 and was to form the basis of strong internal consensus seen as the cornerstone of development and growth. The second such Social Partnership agreement

endorsed the development of a course in Civic, Social and Political Education at post primary level (McCarthy, 2002).

- The developments in communication, the internet, satellite and broadband technology exposed the Irish people and perhaps young Irish people in particular, to a global view of the world, to different attitudes and to different opportunities from those available to previous generations (Hammond interview, 2010; McCarthy interview, 2014).

It is agreed that a re-conception of national identity was the result of all of these changes (Hammond & Looney 2000). Alongside this, Ireland having adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1955 ratified the Convention of the Rights of the Child in 1992. There was evidence of a growing awareness of the need for human rights and development education within Irish education (Hammond & Looney, 2000). Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) were active in leading campaigns to raise awareness of the role of the citizen in relation to human rights, abuses of those rights, issues of inequality and deprivation, and the responsibility of citizens in relation to these. Similarly other bodies such as ENFO (Environmental Information Organisation) were working to make Irish people more environmentally aware and to promote sustainable development.

Things started to come together. Politically at the time there was a growing awareness of the importance of empowering each generation of citizens with the skills, the knowledge, the attitudes and that disposition to engage as active citizens (Kerr, McCarthy & Smith, 2002). The notion of bridging what Marquand (1979) called 'the democratic deficit' and engaging citizens actively in civil society was seen as a desirable thing. Economically the climate was right for investment in education. Europe through structural funds, from the European Commission and the Council of Europe were willing to invest in

Ireland and in other EU countries. Specifically they sought to foster the development of citizenship education, education for democratic and global citizenship, exchange programmes and thematic conferences that addressed citizenship education themes.

Hammond (Interview, 2010) noted

> My recollection is that it was a very positive time in terms of both social and political life...there was a sense of Ireland opening out. It was expansive in that sense, part of that expansiveness related to the European engagement and part was related to increasing globalisation and technological innovation. It wasn't an option any more, you had to either opt into the world or not: you had to treat the world as a whole.

In 1996 the implementation of CSPE was supported through Department of Education and European Social funding (Harrison, 1998) to establish a National Co-ordinator and six Regional Trainers on secondments (loaned in effect from their schools to the programme), and a team of Assistant Trainers who were released for a number of days (and substitution cover provided) to deliver in-service training that focused on the curriculum, pedagogies and assessment of CSPE to school staff, Principals, CSPE teachers and CSPE subject co-ordinators. Funding was also made available at this time for local in-service which schools could apply for and which was administered from the Education Centre based in Dublin West.

The availability of funds also made possible the production of an Exemplar Teaching pack (DoE, 1996), largely based on the work of the Pilot group 1993-1996. In effect this pack provided the CSPE teacher with the material necessary for teaching the subject, together with lesson plans and *Guidelines for Schools* (1996) particularly in the new areas of Action Projects and assessment, areas which receive considerable attention in the literature as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. Finally funding was provided to part-fund a number of university-based

Diploma Courses in 1997 and 1998 (NUI Maynooth, NUI Cork and Trinity College Dublin) to allow teachers to up-skill and re-train in the area of citizenship education.

It was not all plain sailing however as McCarthy (Interview, 2014) noted:

> There was huge resistance from management...huge resistance in relation to time being allocated to CSPE within the curriculum. A lot of Principals just found it difficult to find a period - where would they take it from - for CSPE on the timetable?

And teachers too had to adjust:

> The fact that it was open to any and every teacher you would have had an expectation that by opening it and not making it a specialist area that it would have achieved more but in fact people were so set in their subjects and couldn't come out of them, and resented having to come out of them, and resented having to think differently - or in an educational way - outside their subject....[it] was hugely frustrating (McCarthy, 2014)

Hammond (Interview, 2010) noted that

> What you always have to be conscious of in curriculum development is that when it comes to implementation, the difficulties really kick in -and the first set of difficulties that inevitably arise in an Irish context arise around resources...it [CSPE] didn't have enough support, it didn't have enough people on the ground to assist with its implementation as a result it was less intensively and properly supported than you would have liked...a particular stumbling point included the non-existence of a teaching cohort.

Below is an overview of the implementation of CSPE in the 1990s from pilot phase to full national roll out and examination. The final date locates the current study within the timeframe.

Table 4.1: Timeline of the Implementation of CSPE

1992/3	A feasibility study with 17 schools organised in three clusters took place and a report issued. This study included the teaching of a draft first year syllabus (Jan to May), meetings with principals and teachers, in-service and meetings with the NCCA Education Officer (NCCA, 1993)
1993 – 1996	A more extensive pilot phase was put in place. Initially 57 schools but rising to 138 schools were involved in developing the CSPE course, identifying and testing active learning methodologies, testing modes of assessment and in-service and developing resource material for use in schools. A momentum was created during this three year period and what Hammond and Looney (2001:179) call 'a readiness among students, teachers, schools and the education system in general for the advent of the course.
1996 / 1997	CSPE became a core, mandatory, assessed subject within the Junior Certificate programme.
1999	The schools who took up the option of starting CSPE in 1996 were able to submit students for examination in CSPE in June 1999.
2000	The first national CSPE assessment took place in June as part of the Junior Certificate examinations process.

This longitudinal research study began in 2001.

In 1997, the then Minister for Education Micheál Martin noted that 'CSPE represents a move away from the old idea of the civics class', which he noted was 'a token and inconvenient add-on'. He claimed that 'Helping pupils to develop personally and in their interaction with the wider community is the core business of education…'and concluded by asserting that 'I believe that it is

... active citizenship which will define the success or failure of our country in the future.'

CSPE was reclaiming the civic space on the Irish post-primary curriculum; carving out a new model, based on active participatory citizenship, was the preferred focus of the course designers and the Minister for Education and Skills at the time. This emphasis was very much in keeping with that found in the literature in Chapter 3 regarding the need for citizenship education to have a focus on action.

4.2.4. The Role of Trócaire

Trócaire, an Irish non-governmental organisation that works in overseas development and has a strong commitment to development and Human Rights education, had an important role to play in the re-conceptualisation of citizenship education (Killeavey, 1999; Barry, 2008). Its commitment to development education found expression in many campaigns and programmes. Back in the early 1990s it funded a Human Rights Project based in the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU). This project called for a subject that would focus on citizenship issues and 'is considered to be one of the cornerstones of what ultimately became CSPE' (Barry, 2008: 45).

Trócaire also part-funded the work of John Hammond as the Education Officer with responsibility for developing what became CSPE. Hammond (Interview, 2010) notes

> Trócaire wanted to adopt a more systematic approach and were interested in embedding Development Education in the curriculum. They asked me to work on it. The first main output of this work was [the publication] *'The Global Curriculum'* (1991). The next stage we identified within this process was that it wasn't enough for the totality of the approach to human rights education and development education, what we increasingly saw was a need for citizenship education - it wasn't enough to fill the gaps and to do a polyfilla job ...

> Even while I worked with Trócaire I was generating ideas about a course. At the same time while I was working on that, the NCCA began activating its own approach and I took on the job of Education Officer. The agreement with Trócaire was that I worked some days with Trócaire and some with the NCCA.
>
> It [CSPE] happened officially in the NCCA but very much the foundations were laid by the work done in Trócaire. The job I had was to generate the discussion paper. Because it was felt that the spec which had been developed by the CEB in 1987 had been rejected, I don't think that the NCCA wanted to produce another draft syllabus until they had more information on what the new subject might look like.

McCarthy (2014) notes that

> There were 3 of us working around the promotion of civic, social and political education through Trócaire - that was Colm Regan, John Hammond and myself. Colm was the head of Education in Trócaire, John had been appointed to work on the Trócaire project in the CDU. ...My role was the development of resources in relation to Development Education. The discussion paper produced, one of only two submissions on citizenship education at the time and became in effect the blueprint for the syllabus.

So all three of these men played seminal roles in the development of CSPE and the aims of Trócaire similarly informed the content of what would become the CSPE Syllabus.

Regan (Interview, 2010) also highlighted the key role played by:

> the non- state actors in education - in our case Trócaire...in terms of its commitment to development education. We started out doing a review of the Junior Cycle curriculum from the point of view of Development Education.

He added that:

> The key person is John [Hammond]: he had the capacity, the ability. He had the vision, the time, the nouse: he came out of curriculum development ....he was methodical, systematic –

> you can see that in the *Global Curriculum*- he was able to foster and nurture the model. He had input from a whole range of people and his wages were paid by the CDU supported by Trócaire. He had access then to people who would inform his thinking...

McCarthy endorsed the view that John Hammond, as the NCCA Education Officer was the central figure in the development of CSPE. In interview McCarthy (2014) also referred to the Catholic Church and noted that

> The Catholic Church had a prominent role to play either in preventing or assisting in the development of civics. I remember Colm [Regan] going specifically to Cardinal O'Fiaichs (Trócaire being the Bishop's development agency as well) - informing him that we were about to go on this route and would he as the Cardinal and the church have any objection to it. He was fully supportive of it –obviously. This marks a significant shift in the church's thinking: and was all tied up too I think with the issue of Northern Ireland which was also in the background at the time.

The locus of decision making around the new subject was clearly the NCCA together with the DES, but the influence of Trócaire and development education was also strongly present. CSPE enabled Trócaire to access schools, build alliances with CSPE teachers, to develop deeper understanding of its work and to foster an understanding of development education 'beyond the traditional responses to an NGO or a charity, that of fundraising' (Barry, 2008:44).

4.3. The Design of the Civic, Social and Political Education Course

In 1993 Ireland was one of the 171 states who signed up to the Vienna Declaration (1993: para 33) where a commitment 'to ensure that education is aimed at strengthening the respect of human rights and fundamental freedoms' was made. This Declaration (1993: para 79) called on States 'to include human rights, humanitarian law, democracy and the rule of law as subjects in the curricula of all learning institutions... and to provide training for such.'

Hammond, McCarthy and Regan (Interviews, 2010 & 2014) all confirmed that when it came to putting a syllabus together much of the draft work was done by them working out of the CDU where Gary Granville was then Director, in conjunction with the appointed Inspector from the Department of Education, Jack Henderson, the CSPE Course Committee and refined by members of the Pilot Working Group. Jack Henderson was followed by Michael Darmody as the DES Inspector and McCarthy (interview, 2014) noted 'we were fortunate with him as he was great at the time for the action end of CSPE'.

Each subject on the Irish Education system has a Course Committee which meets under the leadership of the relevant NCCA Education Officer, in this case John Hammond. Hammond (Interview, 2010) spoke of the role of the CSPE Course Committee in terms of the development of the subject. He notes

> The Course committee was always there. I was the education officer within the NCCA for it so I was responsible for the text, the ideas and the assessment ideas. I worked closely with Gary Granville at the time...both of us set the agenda for the Course Committee. In the area of CSPE the course committee was less directly responsible for the syllabus than other areas. They certainly were involved in every stage but they were less influential than other subjects - this has to do with the old vexed question [of] the absence of a teaching cohort in relation to citizenship education. I was in a very powerful position regarding the Course Committee. I had the time to do the reading and they were dependent on the Education Officer.

Although McCarthy (Interview, 2014) notes

> It was also interesting that the people who ended up on the course committee were a fascinating mix of conservatives, ultra conservatives and liberals ; it reflected the structure of where people came from to the NCCA course committee, within that group there were some polar opposite points of view - and to my perception of where it should be going.

Regarding the syllabus that was eventually developed, Hammond (Interview 2010) noting:

> Essentially, and in just trying to establish a reasonably philosophical basis and conceptual basis for the syllabus, we were very conscious of developing a course in citizenship. We grounded the syllabus in fairly big ideas...avoiding at all costs the original approach of literally listing things in civic life, like they needed to know what Bord Iascaigh Mhara did....?

McCarthy (Interview, 2014) further stated:

> We wanted active citizenship and we genuinely wanted kids engaging with issues and not just something that came out of a textbook to be regurgitated.

Regan (Interview, 2010) also spoke of the emphasis on 'big ideas' in the selection of course concepts, he noted:

> There was the notion of grand ideas, the big ideas. Justice, stewardship - they were big ideas. People were saying thirteen year olds? and we were saying "why not?" and these big ideas also allowed for flexibility in learning.

Below is a model which compares the two different syllabi in terms of concepts espoused for citizenship education in the original 1966 Civics Syllabus and the current 1996 Syllabus for CSPE.

Table 4.2: Comparison Between the Different Citizenship Education Syllabi

Original Civics Syllabus 1966 (DoE, 1966)	1996 Current Syllabus (DES, 1996)
1. The individual, the family, the local community, the state, the nation. 2. The Rights and Responsibilities of the individual, the family and the State. The Constitution. Religion and the State 3. Local organisations, spiritual, cultural and social. e.g. Muinitr na Tíre, The Red Cross, etc.. 4. Systems of government. 5 Our System of Government. 6. The Functioning of government 7. Law enforcement and the forces of law 8. The duties and responsibilities of the citizen 9. Local government 10. Finance and taxation 11. The Educational System. 12. The Irish Language movement 13. Nationality and Patriotism 14. Social Welfare 15. Land Tenure 16. Industrial Relations 17. The Co-operative Movement 18. Semi-State Bodies 19. Ireland abroad 20. Our international activities and commitments	Human Dignity Rights & Responsibilities Law Stewardship Interdependence Development Democracy

There is clear evidence of similar and overlapping thinking in both syllabi. However it is also evident that these syllabi reflect the thinking and the mores of their day. The reference to family and to religion is not nearly as evident in the 1996 syllabi, although within the 1996 syllabus the family is acknowledged as a fundamental unit within the community domain.

The Irish language movement is only presented as a topic in the 1966 syllabus. Conversely the issue of environmental responsibility, sustainable living and sustainable development is not identified anywhere in the 1966 syllabus. The focus on rights and responsibilities, on political democracy is apparent in both.

Lee (1998) comments that the family, the church and the school as the traditional conduits of values became less and less powerful over time while the media and teachers became the new surrogates, bearing the responsibility for interpreting and passing on social, cultural, political values. The transfer of responsibility, particularly away from religious control is evident too in the shifting emphasis in the citizenship education syllabus over time.

The 1996 syllabus for CSPE- which is current at the time of writing - aims to provide the student with a concentrated and dedicated focus on all aspects of citizenship education, with a particular emphasis on active participatory citizenship (Harrison, 2002; McCarthy, 1998; DoE, 1996). It further aims to give students a sense of belonging which encourages action and the skills needed to take action. Two key documents inform the syllabus and underpin the CSPE course, they are the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CSPE Support Service, 1998).

The four domains of CSPE (The Individual Citizen, The Community, The Nation State and The Wider World) were envisioned and determined at the Feasibility Study stage (NCCA, 1993) in the development of the subject. They were presented as ever-widening areas, inter-connected, and with the individual citizen nested at the centre (see Fig 4.1). These four domains formed the context of the current 1966 CSPE syllabus.

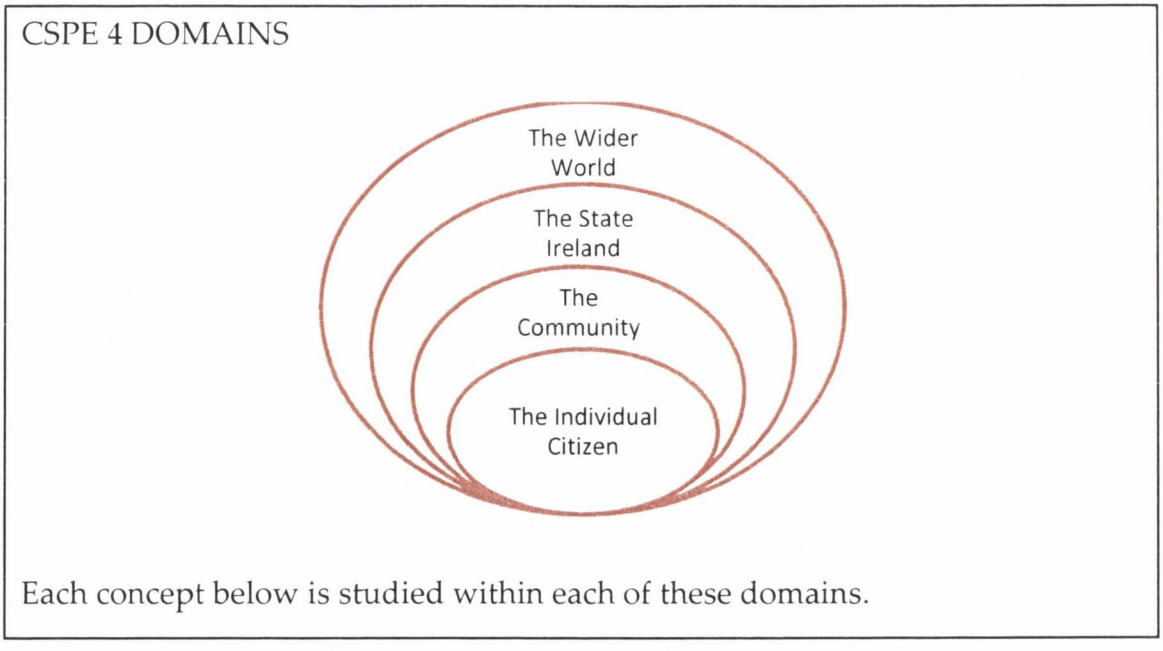


Figure 4-1: CSPE Domains of Citizenship as Identified in the Current Syllabus (1996).

CSPE was not content-based as the old Civics course had been: the new course was concept based. During the pilot phase seven concepts (Fig.4.2) were identified as core to CSPE and the syllabus was developed around them within the context of the four domains.

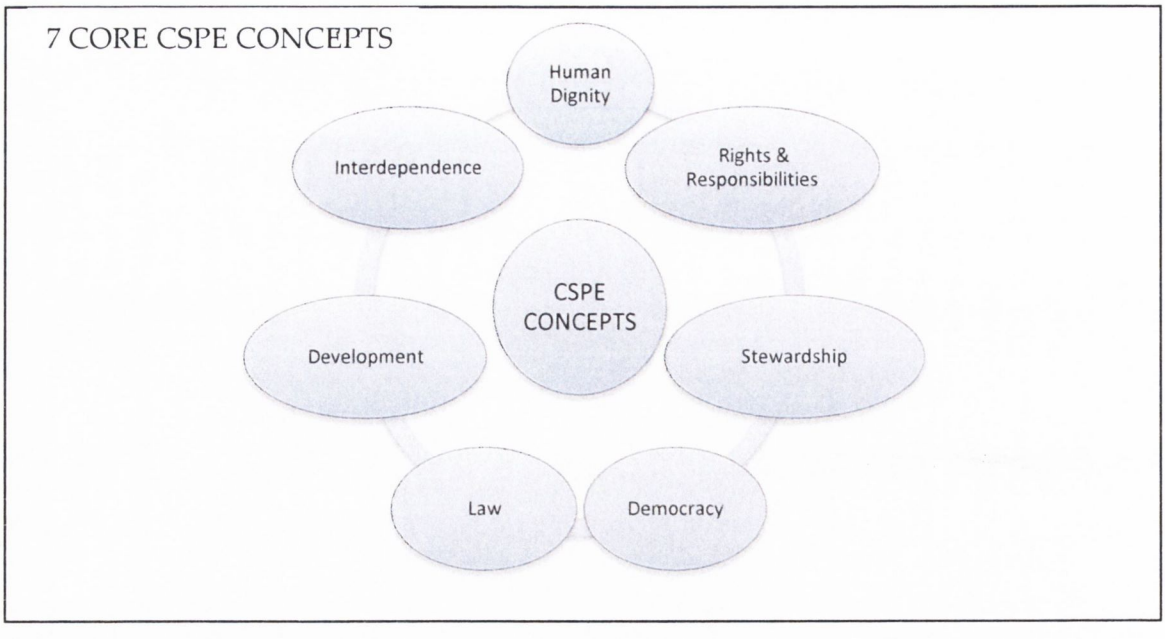


Figure 4-2: CSPE Core Concepts as Identified in the Current Syllabus (1996).

There was no prescribed order established for the teaching of each concept in the syllabus although the concepts of human dignity, human rights and social responsibility underpin the whole course (Harrison, Waddell & Wilson, 1998).

In the interview with John Hammond (2010) he emphasised the importance of development education in informing some of the thinking of the day especially concerning issues of social justice, poverty, and discrimination. He commented that change in Irish society had led to a broader view of the world. Similarly McCarthy (Interview, 2014) remembered a time following the Feasibility Study in 1992-1993 and noted:

> I remember the three of us sitting down at one stage and discussing and arguing out the concepts - what would be the core concepts of civic, social, and political education. And coming up with what was basically the syllabus. We were all coming from Dev. Ed. – and remember at that time we were talking about liberation theology, basic Christian communities, catholic social teaching, rerum novarum. These specifically were hugely influential.
>
> Democracy and law were taken as a given and if you look at Catholic social teaching in practice you are looking at true democracy in action. John [Hammond] had done a kind of literature review we could see other domain models like that old Waldron textbook and the 'domains' model fitted in with the development education notion of 'from the Local to the Global'.

The concepts do not function in isolation but rather form an interconnected network of topics and themes. Each concept has a bank of key knowledge or learning, an emphasis on active learning, using active methodologies and the notion that in order to develop active citizens learning must not be a passive experience: 'a capacity to gain access to information and structures relating to society and the ability and confidence to take part in democratic society' are stressed (DoE., 1996; Harrison 1998; McCarthy, 2002).

In line with the emphasis on active citizenship in the Irish CSPE curriculum, a significant addition to the 1996 Syllabus was the requirement that over the course of the three years of the Junior Cycle students must undertake two Action Projects in CSPE and must submit one of these for assessment in the Junior Certificate State examination.

4.4. The Action Project

An Action Project is where students are actively involved in developing an issue or topic which has arisen in class beyond the usual limit of textbooks and course materials (McCarthy, 1998). Arising from the stated aims in the Syllabus (DoE, 1996:7) that CSPE aims to 'prepare students for active participatory citizenship' and to 'encourage and develop the practical skills which enable pupils to engage in active, participatory social interaction', it says that

> An Action project is one where the pupils are actively involved in developing an issue or topic which has arisen in class. . . Action projects encourage active and co-operative learning...At best they should arise from the interest of students in a particular issue that is related to one of the course units.... (DoE, 1996:5)

Newmann (1975), Hobson & Zack (1993), Perry (1992), Kim et al., (1996) and Hoskins and Kerr (2012), have written specifically about participatory learning experiences as effective in developing good, active and European citizens (see chapter 3). While referring to the value of service learning in the US, they see the value of action projects as a means of supplementing a curriculum in a way that enables students to become more informed on particular issues and perhaps get the opportunity to see issues from different perspectives; to develop such skills as critical thinking and analysis, while 'helping students learn about their rights as individuals and their responsibilities to the communities in which they live' (Perry, 1992:16).

Kennedy (2006) identifies four aspects of active civic participation:

- traditional political action most typically voting and joining a political Party;
- getting involved in volunteer social work;
- getting involved in comment and action to bring about change in social/political/economic conditions;
- enterprising citizenship which sees the value of active entrepreneurial skills impacting on society.

The Action Project in its ideal state is a process that allows for any and all of the above types of activity, and more. Wylie (1999) agrees that Action Projects foster cooperative and active learning together with social and communication skills. However, he also questions whether or not critical thinking happens in the case of all Action Projects.

The Syllabus (DoE, 1996:13) focuses on the importance of acquiring the skills needed for active citizenship and singles out 'the ability to act, to apply the results of experience, analysis, reflection and communication in a practical way to a chosen situation or issue'. By way of example, the syllabus identifies such activities as organising a petition on an issue, inviting a guest speaker to talk to the class, making a presentation to or putting on a school display for other students, and simulated voting exercises, as typical Action Projects (Syllabus, 1996:8).

There are rules governing Action Projects set out by the State Examinations Commission (SEC, 2013:11) on the back cover of each booklet provided for students submitting an Action Project Report for examination. These state that:

- An Action Project must be based on one of the seven core concepts.

- The Action should be consistent with the human rights and social responsibility perspective of Civic, Social and Political Education.
- The Action Project should enable the student to engage/communicate with other people or communities about the subject of their action.
- The Action Project should enable the student to practice the skills associated with Civic, Social and Political Education.
- The Action project should enable the student to develop his/her knowledge and understanding of the subject of the action.
- The Action Project should include a reflection and evaluation dimension.

The above points are indicative of the stress placed on the process of active citizenship with stated expectations about students acquiring relevant knowledge, skills and the ability to critically reflect on both their learning and the subject of their action.

The Action Project represents what Harrison (2002) calls the pragmatic dimension of CSPE and active citizenship. It is the vehicle for giving students a more 'thick' experience of citizenship education and the CSPE syllabus (1996) is supplemented by other publications to support students and teachers to engage in meaningful ways. Alongside the production of exemplar teaching material for CSPE, the DoE together with the NCCA had earlier published a set of guidelines for schools and a book entitled *Guidelines for Teachers. Taking Action – A Guide to Action Projects and their Assessment* (DoE, 1998), the latter was revised as *Civic, Social and Political Education: Guidelines For Teachers* in (2005).

4.4.1. How Action Projects Happen

The *Guidelines for Teachers* (DoE, 1998) for doing Action Projects suggest that they are student-led and arise from student interest in a topic, or issue that then

becomes the focus of an Action Project. The role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide to the students who plan the action, execute it and then explore the learning. Students have the option of carrying out an individual Action Project, or they can work in groups on different Action Projects, or as a class they can undertake an Action Project together. This latter model is the most common format presented for assessment in the State Examinations (SEC, 2009).

The *Guidelines for Teachers* (1998) suggest the deconstruction of the Action Project into tasks and then the use of teams or committees of students, ideally organised by the students, to carry out the task. Each student must have an individual role to play within the Action Project and students submit an individual report on their Action Project for assessment.

The purpose of undertaking Action Projects are described as:

- To develop understanding of the concepts
- To develop skills of active citizenship
- To enable thinking at a deeper level
- To challenge attitudes
- To initiate change
- To make a difference. (Harrison, 2002; DoE, 1998)

Paulo Freire (1985) believed that children must be taught to read the world and Banks (2001:11) further asserts that in order to do this students...'must acquire higher levels of knowledge, understand the relationship between knowledge and action and develop a commitment to act to improve the world and acquire the skills needed to participate in civic action'. The Action Project attempts to combine citizenship competencies (see chapter 3) and to lead the student into

real engagement, real action on an aspect of citizenship around the seven core concepts.

The Action Project element of CSPE is the key means by which CSPE achieves its stated aim of developing students who have the capacity to act as citizens around issues that concern them and the experience of doing just that. It is through engagement in an Action Project that most of the skills of active citizenship are located, developed, practiced and reflected upon by all Junior Certificate students.

4.4.2. Hammond, McCarthy and Regan (in Interview): On Action Projects

There is no published literature on the origin of the Action Project, so this was an area addressed through interviews with Hammond, McCarthy and Regan in order to identify how this model of participatory citizenship originated. Regan (Interview, 2010) referred to other project work that was going on at the time and noted:

> I think that [it] came directly out of the CDU – out of Shannon [Education Centre], out of Trócaire, out of the more radical, more engaged, non-academicized learning... In the sense that Shannon was dealing with the non-academic student, more hands-on tactile learning, so too was the CDU... in the context of the work we were doing this was a fundamental approach – getting your hands dirty.

Hammond (2010) explained that

> In terms of my own perspective on what it [citizenship education] was essentially about... it was largely about the idea of active participatory citizenship.

Like Regan he identified the link between his own previous experiences and the model designed for CSPE. He noted

> I think that when people come to work on a particular aspect of curriculum development you're inevitably influenced by the work you have been involved in...I came from the Liberties where I had been involved in quite a number of things - humanities project work, and other project work and teachers involved in marking and cross-curriculum work... I had no fear that this [Action Project] couldn't work.

Within the context of the Action Project he added:

> We always maintained that it was education for citizenship and that the active dimension was important and that it was grounded in human rights and social responsibility... And if this was the best way then this was the best way.

On the same issue McCarthy (2014, Interview) noted

> The whole background we had come from, through the Humanities and through the development education side of it had a big influence on us. There had to be, there had to be a practical element to it and it had to be a significant aspect.
>
> Both John and I had come through the Humanities Programme and had seen the benefits for our own teaching and we had learned in the Humanities of the benefits of action to students and that's where the emphasis came. We thought why not take the Humanities model and apply it?

McCarthy (2014) also commented that

> Jack Henderson [DoE] came with the classical civics view and was good for determining the philosophy and the structure of the subject. Then Michael Darmody [DES] came on board; maybe because he came from a PE background and was disposed to action, he was certainly the best thing that happened for CSPE and the Action Project.

In general the above comments suggest that two major forces were combined in influencing the development of the Action Project and that they were not primarily the result of investigation into modern concepts of citizenship education or international models, but rather were the result of the experiences of the main actors who were tasked with developing a course and a syllabus.

These experiences were rooted in the Humanities Programme and in Development Education, especially as defined by Trócaire. Therefore, the action element incorporated into the CSPE Syllabus can be traced to the action component of the Humanities Programme that was running at the time and the evidence that clearly suggested that this type of project was not just feasible but worthwhile.

4.4.3. The Relationship between Hart's Theory, Thick Citizenship Education and the CSPE Action Project

Hart's (1992) theory, based on his ladder of participation and outlined in chapter 3, has a direct bearing on the Action Project in CSPE in Ireland. It parallels the emphasis and intention of engaging young citizens in the experience of active participation. According to the CSPE Syllabus (1996) active participatory citizenship is a primary goal of the subject, and the intention in having students undertake Action Projects as the means of learning through citizenship, for citizenship, is to engage young students in real-life social interaction and participation. It is the means whereby citizenship education in Ireland has a 'thick citizenship' focus: it takes citizenship education into a deeper, more profound level where learning is not about citizenship, but rather learning occurs through real, active citizenship beyond the classroom and the textbook.

The flaw in this model is that student levels of participation could be pitched at what Hart (1992) identifies as levels of non-participation at the foot of his ladder of participation. Were this to happen the Action Project would become simply a form of academic exercise, involving pseudo or token participation, where the state examination becomes the priority. In such a case, student participation would remain at the level of tokenism, decoration and manipulation - action may be taken but it would lack authenticity and legitimacy as a model of

participation. The intention in the syllabus is clear – students should experience real, active participation in CSPE.

There is no study that identifies the types of action that students have done as their Action Projects over the lifetime of the school subject. While Nugent (2006) surveyed student views in six schools about active learning and experiential learning, research into the nature and type of student action that ultimately will identify levels of civic participation for students in the Irish Junior cycle and the active citizenship experiences of these students has yet to happen. Such research is critically important to inform discussions about the value, extent and perhaps importance of active participation as a teaching and learning tool in citizenship education. This study is a start.

4.5. Assessment in CSPE

Hyland (1993:3/4) commented that the original 1966 Civics course suffered because 'examination competitiveness pushed it out, and as no examination or other form of assessment existed the subject could be quietly ignored'. When the CEB *Report on Social, Political and Environmental Education* (1987) was published it also identified the role of assessment within the national assessment framework as critical to establishing the status of the subject. While it did not go so far as to describe the form that this assessment should take, it stated that it 'should be closely related to the aims and objectives of the subject when they were agreed' (CEB, 1987:19).

The CEB Report (1987:20) was critical in the evolution of Civics as a subject in that it identified the need for 'a systematic training programme for teachers and others involved' in the teaching and the preparation of students for national assessment in the area of social, political and environmental education. It went on to outline the nature of the systematic training as 'in-service, retraining and pre-service training, and support programmes for teachers and school

managers'. Furthermore it noted the 'need for the allocation of sufficient resources to facilitate successful implementation' (CEB, 1987:20).

When the NCCA (1993:21) discussion paper addressed the issue of assessment, it too was of the opinion that assessment followed by certification within the national assessment framework would address the low status issue of the subject. It made a number of creative suggestions as to how CSPE might be assessed:

- as a discrete subject with its own terminal written paper;
- as a series of questions added on to a number of other subjects' written papers, the results of which would be combined to give a grade for CSPE;
- a project or task that would be graded either as a form of continuous assessment or as a terminal assessment of the action component of student learning. (NCCA, 1993: 22, 23)

When in 1993 the NCCA published its *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Towards the New Century,* the nature of assessment for CSPE was still 'To be determined' (NCCA, 1993:35). The principle that whatever form of assessment was devised for CSPE would need to reflect the emphasis on active participatory citizenship was a driving force in shaping the format eventually chosen (McCarthy, Interview, 2014; Hammond, Interview, 2010). According to Hammond (Interview, 2010) 'The issue of fidelity of approach to the curriculum in the assessment was fundamental'. In addition, the Humanities background of the three people who were at the forefront of designing the model of assessment was to influence their decisions in relation to the suitability and the feasibility of including an Action Project that would be assessed.

McCarthy (2014, interview) remarked:

> Humanities was based on the 60-40 split, 60% was what was used on the Humanities programme: for a combination of a project and continuous assessment and the 40% was the examination. The precedent was there. A number of people in the Pilot Project had similar experience of the Humanities Programme and they were willing to assist others through this form of assessment.

The Feasibility Study (NCCA, 1993) sets out the arguments of the day for and against the inclusion of some form of assessment of CSPE and the Action Project. Some felt that assessing the subject would give it status, guarantee it a place on the timetable and overcome the possibility of it being marginalised. Others raised the issue of 'failed citizens' at 15 years of age if students did not pass their CSPE exam and the issue was argued in newsletters (Denniston 1995:4) and at meetings of the Pilot Group (Hammond, 2010).

Regan (2010, Interview) noted that:

> The next radical thing was winning the debate for the 60% in the exam. The Department bought into CSPE and it suited its needs and so we kinda slipped it through...The opportunity was there and we took it. The time was right for this...

The issue of assessment was addressed, debated and agreed. Hammond (Interview, 2010) noted:

> I don't remember any difficulty in getting the 60% accepted I would have remembered if it was difficult!

Finally it was decided in 1996 (McCarthy interview, 2014) that Civic, Social and Political Education would be assessed nationally; a terminal written paper would carry 40% of the marks and the Action Project undertaken by students would be submitted by individual students in the form of either a Report on an Action Project or as a Course-work Assessment Booklet which would carry 60% of the marks for the subject. It was agreed that students would take CSPE at common level, avoiding the prospect of Honours level or Ordinary level

citizens within the citizenship education model (McCarthy interview, 2014). The CSPE written examination paper for the subject also has an emphasis on action with opportunities for students to suggest possible actions that citizens can take in relation to contemporary and topical issues accounting for 70% (approx.) of the marks available. Other subjects in the Junior Certificate have a percentage of their marks awarded to modes of assessment other than the terminal written examination, but in these cases the marks awarded are marginal (Griffin, 1998).

At the time of writing, CSPE is still the only subject offered at a common level in the Irish Education System.

4.5.1. The Official Line

Each year the Department of Education and Skills issues a Circular to set the date for the submission of the Action Project for the current cohort of Junior Certificate students. The Circular also reminds teachers of the key elements of the Action Project Report and Coursework Assessment Booklet that students submit for assessment.

Additional Circulars have been issued from time to time. In the Circular No. M13/05 which accompanied the launch of the revamped CSPE *Guidelines for Teachers* (2005), best practice in relation to teaching, learning and assessment of CSPE was outlined. It was noted 'that the implementation of CSPE benefits when it is possible for school managements to:

- include teachers' interest in CSPE as one of the main criteria used when selecting teachers to teach the subject;
- allocate teachers of CSPE to those class groups to whom they also teach another subject;
- ensure, as far as possible, that each class group is assigned the same;

- teacher of CSPE, particularly in second year and third year, so as to allow continuity in programme planning and to facilitate the organisation of Action Projects;

- avoid placing the one CSPE period per week on the timetable at a time/on a day when that period may be lost on a regular basis due to interruptions in the school calendar;

- support the co-ordination of CSPE by, for example, providing; opportunities for team planning in line with that provided for other subjects;

- promote awareness of CSPE by informing parents of incoming First Year students about it and by celebrating the work done in CSPE e.g. the Action Projects undertaken;

- ensure that CSPE features in in-house school examinations and Parent-Teacher meetings, and that it appears on the school prospectus, student timetables and student report forms alongside other subjects;

- encourage actively the establishment of a Student Council within the school (see Section 27 of the Education Act, 1998). (DES Circular, 2005)

The principles that inform best practice for teaching of CSPE are enshrined in this Circular and it is referenced in the subject inspections in schools.

Previously in 2002 another Circular letter S11/02 issued from the Examinations Branch of the Department of Education and Science. It was sent to discourage Action Projects that were rooted in SPHE rather than in CSPE and to remind teachers that there must be evidence of action, in the form of engagement with other people, in Action Projects. It stated that

> In 2001, many candidates submitted Action Projects based on health issues, notably drugs, alcoholism and smoking. Many of these projects lost marks because they were not clearly linked to

> one of the core concepts. All concerned are reminded that **knowledge and information in the Action Project relating to personal health will not be rewarded in the examination. [their emphasis]**

The Circular also reminded teachers that Action Projects must 'have a genuine action component.'

4.5.2. The CSPE Examination

'The critically innovative aspect of Civic, Social and Political Education is that active learning is recognised and rewarded in the Junior Certificate Examination' (Waddell & Wilson, 1999). Significantly the weighting of marks in the exam is in favour of the active element in the course: this is founded on a syllabus that says 'Pupils should be skilled in the ability to act, to apply the results of experience, analysis, reflection and communication in a practical way to a chosen issue or situation' (DES 2.2.3 1996). McCarthy (1998) in an article entitled *Rewarding Activity* noted that giving 60% of the final grade in CSPE to the action component encouraged students and teachers to seriously engage in Action Projects.

There are two components to the examination itself, a written paper which carries 40% of the marks and 60% for the account of the Action Project. There are two reporting options for students: a Report on an Action Project (RAP) or a Course-Work Assessment Booklet (CWAB). According to the Chief Examiner's Reports (2009) about 98% of students take the RAP option. Students submit either a RAP or a CWAB in the April or May of Third Year prior to sitting the written paper in June.

RAPs and CWABs are alternative ways of reporting on the Action Project that has been undertaken by students and each student submits his/her own individual report in a pro-forma booklet that has been produced by the State Examinations Commission (SEC). The booklets are based on the aims of the

syllabus. The pro-forma booklet for each mode leads students through the reporting process and requires students to address each of the areas set out below.

Table 4.3: Comparison between the CSPE Pro-Forma Assessment Models

Report on an Action Project	**Course-Work Assessment Booklet**
A core concept upon which the action is based and a rationale for undertaking their particular Action Project	An overview of the module of work in which the Action Project is situated
An outline overview of the complete action undertaken	A description of 3 classes that formed part of the module
A description of a specialised individual task	Details of action undertaken that includes a description of one task
An explanation of the skills acquired/developed	An explanation of the skills acquired/developed
A statement of the knowledge acquired	A statement of what was learned
A reflection on the whole learning experience	A chance to give opinions under the heading 'Something I have to say…'

In the most recent published examination statistics on student achievement in the State Examination, it is clear from the table below (Table 4.4) that students are achieving high grades and meeting the criteria for assessment in CSPE regardless of the mode of assessment chosen for the reporting of Action Projects.

Table 4.4: Total Number of Candidates and Results in Junior Certificate Civic, Social and Political Education Examination, 2007-2009.

Year	Total	A	B	C	A/B/C	D	E	F	NG	E/F/NG
2007	55,857	23%	40.3%	25.0%	88.3%	8.9%	1.7%	1.0%	0.2%	2.9%
2008	54,492	24.1%	40.9%	24.4%	89.4%	8.1%	1.5%	0.8%	0.1%	2.4%
2009	54,058	23.4%	41.5%	24.8%	89.7%	8.0%	1.5%	0.8%	0.1%	2.4%

Source: Chief Examiner's Report, SEC, 2009:7.

Audigier (2008) has noted the importance in citizenship education of cognitive practices, ethical competences and action-related competences that encourage the acquisition of knowledge, the development of practice in conjunction with action and critical reflection. It is the intention of the Syllabus (1996) that an Action Project brings these competences together within the context of human rights, social responsibility and a spirit of cooperation. There is an obvious synchronicity between the model espoused by Audigier (2008) and the model of action in CSPE in Ireland.

4.5.3. Chief Examiner's Reports

In the past 10 years two Chief Examiner's Reports have been published on the State Examination Commission's (SEC) website by the Chief Examiner responsible for CSPE, one in 2005 and one in 2009. These reports focus particularly on the standard of work presented by students in the state examination.

Each of the reports provides a list of some Action Projects submitted in the year of the report together with some general comments. As the focus of this study is on the Action Projects submitted by students over the past 13 years the

particular Action Projects noted in the reports are of importance as the only official record of the work students have undertaken and are detailed below.

In 2005 almost all candidates presented a RAP for assessment. The variety of Action Projects undertaken was impressive.

The range of topics encountered included mock elections, surveys of all kinds, environment issues (including recycling and waste management, global warming, tree planting, tidy towns, animal rights), raising awareness around refugees and asylum seekers, disability, the Travelling Community, homelessness, visits to the Dáil, courts, prisons, landfill sites, centres for elderly people, visits from the ISPCC, Simon, Bóthar, T.D.s, an Garda, Amnesty International, an investigation into the need for a community play park, revamping the local youth club, organising and running the school sports day, road safety, fundraising for all types of organisations, raising awareness of fair trade, very topical issues such as the smoking ban and the tragedies of Beslan and the Tsunami. There was clear evidence that candidates are doing interesting work.' (SEC, 2005)

In 2009: Visits to, for example, prisons, local courthouses, Four Courts, Dáil Éireann, military barracks, prisons, animal shelters.

Guest speakers from, for example, Animal Rights Groups, An Garda Síochána, ISPCC, Amnesty International, and members of the Dáil Student Council Elections or mock elections and mock trials.

Investigations of issues such as: 'wheelchair accessibility in my local area'.

Surveys and questionnaires covering various subjects, often on politics or the environment - for example, 'what do students in my school know about

politics and democracy?'

Fundraising activities for various charitable organisations, the most popular being for those working to tackle issues of underdevelopment abroad and animal welfare in Ireland. These were sometimes coupled with a secondary action such as a visit, a guest speaker, or raising awareness.

Designated days including, for example, Human Rights Day, National Tree Week, An Taisce Clean-Up campaign, Recycling, and No Logo Days. Environmental issues including, for example, visits to wind farms, renewable energy, tidy towns, waste management, local clean-ups, and school litter audit.

Raising awareness about issues such as Fair Trade, the Lisbon Treaty, and homelessness (SEC, 2009).

The range of topics included in each report gives a flavour of the work undertaken by students with an emphasis on politics and the environment evident in each of them. Notably in 2005 the topical events of Beslan and the Tsunami are identified as the subject of action. Some general comments on Action Projects were also made by the Chief Examiner and in 2005 it was noted that

> a number of candidates [students] are not aware of the skills related to CSPE that they use and develop over the duration of the course ... some candidates struggled, particularly where they were asked to identify and describe how they applied particular skills to the task they had undertaken. (SEC, 2005:22)

On the positive side it was mentioned that there was

> an overall improvement in the standard of responses in the Reflections section of the RAP. Many candidates expressed

> their thoughts and experiences very well, giving lots of recommendations with accompanying reasons. (SEC, 2005:22)

In 2009 the Chief Examiner made reference to the format of Action Projects and noted that:

> While some candidates undertook individual action projects with great enthusiasm and success, the most popular type of action project undertaken, as in previous years, was the single action project done by an entire class.

In the same year, emphasising the topical nature of CSPE the Chief Examiner made a recommendation to students that they:

> listen to news and current affairs programmes on radio, and watch them on television. Read newspapers and use the Internet to get to know and understand what is going on in the world.

While these Chief Examiner's Reports offer a very general insight, albeit limited, into what it is that students and teachers are doing in CSPE they serve to inform the focus and methodology of this study.

4.6. Subject Inspection Reports

Further to the Chief Examiner's Report, each subject on the curriculum in the Irish Education system is open to inspection and individual Inspector reports are subsequently published online. There are currently 4,572 reports available. A review of the 1,000 most recent reports yielded 16 reports on Civic, Social and Political Education published in the past three years (https://www.education.ie/en/Publications/Inspection-Reports-Publications/Subject-Inspection-Reports-List/report7_71040M.pdf). A study of the comments on Action Projects made in these Reports suggests that the experience of Action Projects in CSPE in schools is very good.

Inspectors' comments include commendations for the level of whole school support for the subject, for example:

> Many measures are in place to support the development of citizenship education in its broadest sense. An anti-litter week takes place each year and the school has been proactive in the area of composting and recycling. A student council promotes students' democratic participation in the affairs of the school. – [Offaly school Report published 23/11/13]

There is also praise for what is described as 'very good planning' in a Roscommon school Report published on the 25 October 2012 and 'very good individual preparation of lessons observed' in a Wexford school Report published on 1 June 2012.

A Galway school Report published on 16 April 2014 notes that:

> Very good planning was noted for action projects. In line with best practice students have the opportunity to develop and practice the skills of active participatory citizenship as they undertake two action projects over the three years of the programme.

Specifically addressing Action Projects in the Reports, the Inspectors have commented as follows:

- There is a great emphasis on the action project in third year and there is a good system in operation to encourage the students to take an active and effective role in the project. It was evident that the students really enjoy learning [Kildare school report published on 30 May 2014]

- In one classroom visited students were preparing for the action project. Good emphasis on the development of skills was noted in this lesson' [Dublin school report published on 6 November 2012].

Reference is made to Green Schools, school trips, a Nigerian school-link project, community projects, links with outside agencies, co-curricular projects, fundraising and environmental projects

(https://www.education.ie/en/Publications/Inspection-Reports-Publications/Subject-Inspection-Reports-List/report7_71040M.pdf).

Notwithstanding the positive features commented on in these reports, Inspectors suggest that in some schools the practices around CSPE could be improved. These suggestions include the use of the Coursework Assessment Booklet for students in mixed ability classes; the value of CSPE classes being taught by a teacher who also has the class for another subject; the role of management in timetabling the subject at an appropriate time in the school day; the importance of students having the opportunity of doing two Action Projects over the 3 years of the Junior Cycle; not leaving Action Projects too late in Third Year; the benefit for students in doing mini-action Projects; the importance of including CSPE in the in-house examination timetable and in subsequent school reports; and the importance of students having tasks and responsibilities that are clearly defined when two groups of students in a class are doing the same Action Project. In one case an Inspector noted:

> There was a lack of clarity regarding the number and nature of action projects to be undertaken in all year groups apart from the project completed for national assessment. A comprehensive list of action projects should be included in the plan and the number to be completed by each year group should be noted as a guide to subject teachers. [Report on a County Dublin school published on 25/2/13]

Overall the tone of the Reports are complementary of the teaching and learning in CSPE, including the use of active learning and co-operative group work learning, opportunities to engage in discussion, problem solving in real-world, topical and imaginary contexts. The use of ICT is also noted and praised.

4.7. Key Research into CSPE to Date

Lynch (2000) posits that social and political education in Ireland has been seriously neglected - a comment which similarly applies to the area of

citizenship education is significantly under-researched. However, there have been some important studies in the field. Shannon (2002) examined the implementation of CSPE in twelve schools with research that included 37 teachers, 72 students and school managers. Murphy (2003) investigated attitudes to the subject in five schools. Redmond and Butler (2003) in the NEXUS Report undertook a postal survey of 188 Principals and 530 teachers. Gleeson and Munnelly (2003) studied the implementation of CSPE in twenty-one schools. Most of this research was conducted in the early days of CSPE and focussed on the roll-out of the subject. They identified that citizenship education was still experiencing problems, and in particular noted:

- as a one-period a week subject it continued to suffer from low-status;
- the lack of a follow-on subject in Senior Cycle left the subject somewhat adrift;
- there was a huge turn-over of CSPE teachers;
- it was hard to adequately cover the course in the time period;
- many teachers were conscripts rather than volunteers when it came to teaching the subject and felt that they did to have the qualifications to teach CSPE;
- teachers were only seeing a CSPE class for one period a week and did not have the class for another subject;
- some teachers were uncomfortable with active methodologies;
- teachers had to address controversial and sensitive issues and sometime negative attitudes among students. (Hammond & Looney, 2000; Gleeson & Munnelly, 2003; Murphy, 2003; Redmond & Butler, 2003)

On the positive side these studies also identified that the subject could flourish where

- there was commitment to the subject by the Principal;
- a co-ordinator of CSPE was appointed in the school;
- teachers were facilitated to attend CSPE in-service;
- there was less teacher turnover in the subject;
- time-tabling of the subject was given importance;
- the subject was being taught by interested and enthusiastic teachers;
- the school climate integrated the principles of active citizenship.

As previously noted, much of this valuable research focuses on the early implementation of CSPE and reinforces the feedback received by the CSPE Support Service in their on-the–ground work (McCarthy Interview, 2014).

Nugent's study (2006) into six schools suggested that students have mixed experiences of active and experiential learning in CSPE; some students reported increased self-confidence while others felt that they had benefitted little from active learning in CSPE.

In 2010, Niens and McIlrath interviewed 22 key stakeholders outside of the education system, 10 in the Republic of Ireland and 22 in Northern Ireland and while among their findings it emerged that formal citizenship education alone cannot change society, interestingly the participants from the Republic of Ireland noted the action orientation of citizenship education in this jurisdiction.

Early in 2011 the International Civic and Citizenship Study (ICCS) for Ireland was published and it paints the most up-to date picture of the current issues in CSPE. Ireland was ranked 7th out of 36 countries in terms of civic knowledge.

Table 5:12 of the Report (Cosgrove, Gilleese & Sheil, 2011:94) deals with the frequency of various classroom activities and is reproduced here courtesy of the authors.

Table 4.5: Copy of Table 5.12 ICCS Report (Cosgrove, Gilleese & Sheil, 2011:94)

Table 5.12: Percentages of CCE teachers indicating frequencies of various classroom activities

Classroom activity	Ireland			Int'l
	% Never (SE)	% Sometimes (SE)	% Often / Very Often (SE)	% Often / Very Often (SE)
Students work on projects that involve gathering information outside of school	8.8 (1.93)	55.9 (3.33)	35.4 (2.95)	27.4 (0.75)
Students study textbooks	6.2 (1.84)	33.4 (3.15)	60.3 (3.03)	68.1 (0.75)
Students work on drill sheets or work sheets	10.0 (1.67)	45.0 (3.30)	45.0 (3.11)	57.9 (0.79)
Students work in groups on different topics and prepare presentations	9.8 (1.71)	46.9 (3.40)	43.4 (3.18)	51.3 (0.85)
Students work individually on different topics and prepare presentations	22.0 (2.76)	50.0 (3.81)	27.9 (3.70)	39.6 (0.85)
Students participate in role play and simulations	36.4 (3.26)	42.2 (3.26)	21.4 (2.94)	26.7 (0.75)
The teacher asks questions and the students answer	0.8 (0.46)	25.6 (3.16)	73.6 (3.15)	74.4 (0.74)
The teacher lectures and the students take notes	41.8 (3.44)	43.1 (3.07)	15.3 (2.17)	40.7 (0.72)
The teacher includes discussion on controversial issues in class	3.6 (1.13)	29.6 (3.44)	66.8 (3.49)	59.0 (0.84)
Students research and analyse information from different sources	12.4 (2.14)	50.0 (3.76)	37.6 (3.55)	50.7 (0.85)

This table demonstrates the reality of student engagement in projects that involve them in real-world engagement outside of the classroom. The Report specifically notes that 'teachers in Ireland asked students to gather information outside school and have class discussion on controversial issues somewhat more often than internationally' Cosgrove, Gilleese & Sheil, 2011:94). 38.5% of teachers are reported as wanting more opportunities for doing projects with their students and teachers identified the issues of additional training, more instructional time, better teaching material and 'more co-operation between teachers' as areas for attention (Cosgrove, Gilleese & Sheil, 2011:95).

Teachers ranked their most important aims in relation to civic and citizenship education and these were presented in comparison to international responses. They top four were ranked as follows:

In Ireland:

1. Promoting knowledge of citizen's rights and responsibilities 55.5%
2. Promoting students' critical and independent thinking 49.2%
3. Promoting knowledge of social, political & civic institutions 41.9%
4. Promoting students' participation in community 40.2%

Internationally:

1. Promoting knowledge of citizen's rights and responsibilities 60.0%
2. Promoting students' critical and independent thinking 52.3%
3. Promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment 41.2%
4. Developing students' skills/competencies in conflict resolution 40.8%

While the top two rankings for both Irish and international teachers were the same, promoting student participation in community was placed seventh out of ten (15.7%) for international teachers and was in fourth place for Irish teachers (40.2%). This suggests that the focus on student participation is more embedded in the teaching of citizenship education in Ireland. This may be accounted for by the explicit attention to student action and participation from the earliest days of CSPE as highlighted by Hammond, (2010) Regan, (2010) and McCarthy (2014).

Irish teachers were asked to rank 'the level of interest and enjoyment in the seven key concepts in the CSPE syllabus, for themselves and for their students where 1 is the highest (Cosgrove, Gilleese & Sheil, 2011:97).

The following order emerged:

Table 4.6: Student and Teacher Interest and Enjoyment in the 7 core CSPE Concepts

Concept	Students	Teachers
Rights and Responsibilities	1	1
Human Dignity	2	2
Democracy	3	4
Stewardship	4	3
Interdependence	5	6
Development	6	5
Law	7	7

The similarity between the rankings is interesting, however, this data was not analysed further in the study. In addition specific data on the Action Project was not gathered for this study though information regarding civic participation in the community was gathered from students and presented (Cosgrove, Gilleese & Sheil, 2011:67). An extract from the data is presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Community Participation: Student Views in the ICCS

Question	Sample item	Ireland	International Average
1. Have you ever been involved in	A voluntary group doing something in the community?	49.9%	33.7%
2. How often are you involved in ...outside of school?	Talking with friends about what is happening in other countries	16.9%	24.7%
	Talking with your parent(s) about political or social issues	24.7%	24.2%
3. Would you take part in...?	Choosing not to buy certain products?	64.3%	55.7%
	Taking part in a peaceful march/rally	57.4%	54.1%
4. What do you think that you will do?	Join a political party	19.0%	26.9%
	Join a trade union	36.5%	31.0%

The results show that Irish students are in most cases more pre-disposed to participation than their international counterparts. Irish students also indicated that they would be a little more likely to take part in illegal protest than the international respondents, for example, 24% : 19.7% on occupying buildings and 22.2% : 20.2% on blocking traffic. Irish students reported that they were less likely to join political organisations or write to the newspaper than their international peers.

4.8. Plans for the Future of CSPE

There are currently two major changes planned for citizenship education in Ireland. In 2011, the then Minister for Education and Skills, Ruairi Quinn proposed changes to the existing model of teaching, learning and assessment at Junior Cycle level. Alongside the NCCA, he launched the new Junior Cycle School Assessment (JCSA). In this model CSPE will become an optional short course of 100 hours for schools to choose as part of their curriculum or not. There are 24 learning targets for the new JCSA overall (NCCA, 2011), one of which specifically addresses the area of citizenship education:

- Statement of Learning 07: The student values what it means to be an active citizen, with rights and responsibilities in local and wider contexts. (NCCA, 2011:6).

Three others could be interpreted as having a connection to citizenship education, which are:

- Statement of Learning 09: The student understands the origin and impacts of social, economic, and environmental aspects of the world around him/her.
- Statement of Learning 10: The student has awareness, knowledge, skills, values and motivation to live sustainably.
- Statement of Learning 23: The student brings an idea from conception to realisation. (NCCA, 2011:6)

In the JCSA, schools may design their own course however, the NCCA have produced an exemplar for a short course in CSPE. In this model students will still be engaging in Action Projects and within three strands will explore the concepts of Rights and Responsibilities, Global Citizenship and Exploring Democracy. These themes condense the existing CSPE course as outlined in the

diagram below. Action Projects are included in both the current compulsory CSPE subject and in the proposed new optional 100 hours model for CSPE developed by the NCCA.

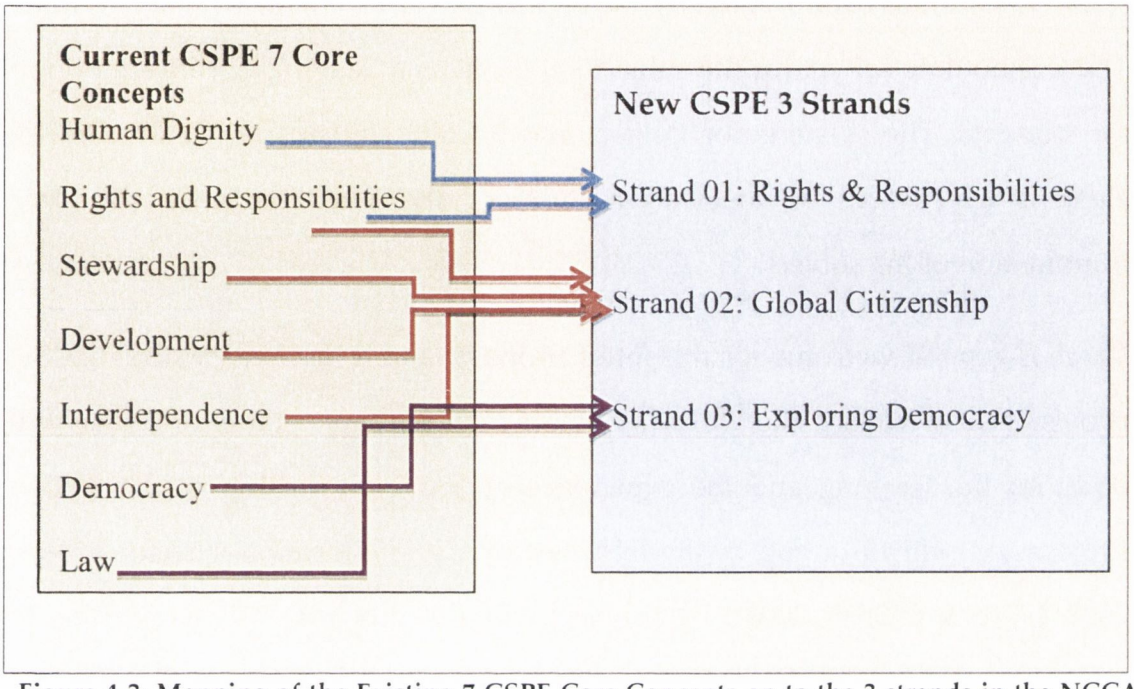


Figure 4-3: Mapping of the Existing 7 CSPE Core Concepts on to the 3 strands in the NCCA 100 Hour Short Course Model

Two letters have appeared in newspapers (*The Irish Times*, May 31, 2013 & *The Sunday Times*, February 2, 2014) regarding the proposed change to CSPE and the issues for students and indeed society in the new model. In the *Irish Times* Jeanne Barrett, Chairperson of the Civic, Social and Political Education Teachers Association of Ireland (ACT) voiced concern about the new proposals and noted on behalf of ACT that they perceive the proposed changes to CSPE as a 'retrograde step, which will remove equality of opportunity in regard to human rights and citizenship education in the Irish education system.' The letter in the *Sunday Times* was written by Gerry Jeffers (2014c) who noted that in the light of current social issues and the aims of the new JCSA framework 'the omission of compulsory CSPE is puzzling'.

While change in the Junior Cycle is pending, Minister Quinn (2014) also announced 'I have decided to include Politics and Society within the suite of

subjects available to schools in the Leaving Certificate'. This subject is perceived as the natural follow-on from CSPE and one which will help to embed CSPE in the system. It has been the subject of an NCCA consultancy process and the syllabus for it has been written by the NCCA (2011) and made available online. There is no date set yet for the subject's roll-out as a Leaving Certificate option for students. The syllabus for Politics and Society contains an Action Project element which will be assessed as 20% of the total mark for the state examination of the subject.

There is general welcome for this latter proposal and it has been noted that the provision of a subject like 'Politics and Society' will give status to CSPE, will build on the learning and the experience of active citizenship in the Action Project and will fill a gap in the Irish Senior Cycle education system (Jeffers, 2008; Ward & O'Shea, 2002). This subject will also prepare students wishing to study Sociology and/or Politics at third level. The Draft Syllabus for Politics and Society has been available since 2011 so its implementation and realisation will be greatly welcomed.

With all the plans for change in relation to citizenship education, big decisions are being made in the absence of hard evidence and research. Knowledge of what it is that students (and teachers) are doing as the active participatory element of the subject would be particularly useful at this time. The centrality of the Action Project places CSPE as it is currently designed on the 'thick' side of the citizenship education divide (see Figure 3.2); but it is important to ascertain if this engagement is as participatory and as student-led as the syllabus aims for it to be.

Factual information rather than supposition and anecdotal speculation is urgently needed. While the Chief Examiner's Reports (2005, 2009) are helpful they are not a sufficient base for deciding the future of citizenship education in

Ireland. The data which this present study is hoping to generate will allow the Irish education sector to assess the value of CSPE and in particular to get a better understanding of the type of actions that students are doing under the umbrella of the CSPE syllabus concepts in their Action Projects.

4.9. Conclusion

Drawing the available evidence as presented in this chapter together, it is possible to suggest that citizenship education in Ireland as a means of creating a more informed, engaged citizenry has come down on the side of an active, participatory approach. The curriculum and models of assessment for Civic, Social and Political Education reflect this emphasis. As a means of engaging, motivating and empowering citizens it has evolved over time into a subject whose primary emphasis is to get students thinking, understanding and doing.

The evidence suggests that the Action Project is the culmination of the active learning process in CSPE. It is the means by which the classroom becomes a community-based learning space, connecting with the outside world. Kim et al. (1993:172) note that 'Well designed participatory learning activities allow students to think critically, to improve their communication skills, and to implement action projects.' The Action Project in CSPE is designed to encourage students to develop skills of critical thinking, decision-making and self-confidence. It is designed to encourage respect, broaden awareness and empower students to act (Waddell & Wilson, 1999). However, what emerges from this chapter is a dearth of research into the efficacy and impact of this strategic, and intentional, curricular and political emphasis on action and student participation in CSPE. Despite being in operation for over a decade there has been little attention and no research in Ireland into the scope of the Action Projects which students undertake in schools. This gap in our knowledge base seems unusual in view of the fundamental role which is afforded to the Action Project in all curricular conceptions of CSPE throughout

its history in Ireland. This is particularly evident in the latest iteration which proposes to retain the Action Project as a significant component of both the future JCSA and the senior cycle syllabi for CSPE.

The next chapter presents the methods used to investigate the nature and type of the action projects that students have engaged in over the period 2001-2013 and to generate data on the opinions of both students and teachers about this method of active citizenship education.

CHAPTER 5. METHODS

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter the process of data collection and analysis is presented. In undertaking this study my purpose is to contribute to the existing body of knowledge about Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) in Ireland. In particular, I aim to fill in some of the knowledge gaps about the Action Project component of this Junior Certificate subject. The research is driven by the desire to capture the experience of active participatory citizenship in CSPE; to inform teaching and learning through the discoveries made; to capture a sample of students' and teachers' perceptions of both the nature of the learning experienced and the challenges presented in the doing of an Acton Project; to identify perceptions around young citizens taking action within an assessed curriculum; and in particular, to identify the nature of active civic participation as interpreted by Junior Certificate students in Action Projects presented for examination over the years 2001 to 2013 inclusive.

The research model employed an eclectic explanatory mixed-methods design. Procedurally it entailed first gathering quantitative data on the nature and type of Action Projects undertaken by students in CSPE; then further quantitative and qualitative data was generated to explore the Action Project in more depth. Flinders (2004:128) writing on the use of mixed methods, notes that 'Both are forms of empirical enquiry, both are systematic, and both strive toward the same ends e.g., a better understanding of educational phenomena'.

A rubric is presented based on the CSPE syllabus and how it is applied in a deductive process to analyse the themes in the longitudinal study. The procedure employed by the researcher to access the views of CSPE students and teachers based on the use of questionnaires with open and closed questions is

also outlined. Issues of validity and reliability are presented together with ethical considerations and the limitations of the study.

The purpose of the limited qualitative research is to refine and extend the findings of the quantitative data: in particular to provide an insight into the active citizenship experiences arising from the participatory engagement at the centre of the Action Project.

5.2. The Nature of Educational Research

Research in the field of education has many purposes: it may address issues of policy or practice; explore philosophical theories; examine models and case studies; track changes and interventions; generate opinions; assess progress; critique, review, compare, evaluate, pronounce, conclude and consider a host of educational initiatives, studies, interventions, innovations, teaching and learning theories and models. The Institute of Education Science (2013:9) has identified six types of educational research:

1. Foundational Research that aims to contribute to core knowledge in education;
2. Early Stage/Exploratory Research that is focussed on improving educational outcomes and which may lead to further interventions sometime in the future;
3. Design and Development Research whose purpose is 'to achieve a goal related to education or learning such as student engagement or mastery of a set of skills';
4. Efficacy Research which is concerned with the testing of a strategy under ideal conditions;
5. Effectiveness Research which, as the name suggests, examines the effectiveness of a particular strategy or an intervention under 'typical' circumstances;

6. Scale-up Research which is based on 'a wide range of populations, contexts, and circumstances, without substantial developer (researcher) involvement in (its) implementation or evaluation'.

Under these categories, the current study is a mix of foundational and effectiveness research as the aim is to add to the store of knowledge about active citizenship education, in the form of the Action Project in CSPE, and to explore the effectiveness of the Action Project as a vehicle to engage young citizens in active participatory citizenship education.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) specifically address the role of research in education and position such research as having the function of providing sound evidence and an authentic knowledge base in the field of education, similar to the base found in other professions and disciplines.

Yin (2012) posits that it is the research question that has a powerful impact in determining the approach employed in generating and analysing data. Yin (2012) also notes that the methodology is impacted by the approach of the researcher in his/her quest for the answer to the research question itself. The following section explores the dominant methods of research available to the researcher in that quest

5.2.1. Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is based on the concepts of manipulation and control of phenomena followed by the verification of results using empirical data (Burnham, Gilland, Grant, & Layton-Henry, 2004). As a research method it is concerned with the objective and value-free collection of data using a predetermined research design in a controlled setting.

Quantitative approaches have their origin in the branch of philosophy known as logical positivism which is founded on the belief that science can be applied to the world which Shively (2009) compares to a machine, and by so doing,

science can discover the laws that govern just how this machine operates. The hard data generated by quantitative research is where Gherardi and Turner (1987) argue that the real truth lies.

According to Cohen & Manion (1994:7) this form of scientific research has as its focus 'analysing the relationships and regularities between selected factors'. The trappings of quantitative research are, observation schedules, closed questionnaires and measuring tools such as rating scales for knowledge, skills and attitudes, and research instruments that generate information that can be counted and converted into statistics (Shivley, 2009). The measuring tools are predetermined and structured: the sampling process specified and rigid (Burnham et al., 2004).

Patton (2002:20) asserts that quantitative methods '...are succinct, parsimonious, and easily aggregated for analysis: quantitative data are systematic, standardized, and easily presented.

5.2.2. Qualitative Research

Qualitative research, as the contrasting epistemological view, has a focus on holistic engagement that is not reductionist in its approach. It does not focus in the first instance on identifying and explaining facts, rather it seeks to illuminate people's interpretation of the facts (Robson, 2011; Denzin & Linclon, 2005). This method uses such tools as open-ended questionnaires, unstructured or semi-structured interviews and participant observations: the degree of interaction between researcher and subject is dependent on the nature of the enquiry instrument being used. Qualitative research is usually focussed on contact with a particular 'field', often a real-life situation, and it is the researcher's intent to access this situation from the inside.

Denscombe (2010:132/3) notes that qualitative research is primarily concerned with 'the way people shape the world'. It emphasizes the ways in which human

activity creates meaning and generates social order that characterizes the world in which we live.

In qualitative research often large volumes of text, rather than numbers, are generated and the researcher is concerned with finding the patterns and themes emerging in the data rather than on the testing of an hypothesis (Burnham et al., 2004). This leads to a process of content analysis. Creswell (2008) explained this form of analysis as the creation of categories and developing rules for coding data into these categories. The use of content analysis varies according to the type of qualitative study that is conducted (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The research instruments employed in qualitative research are not standardised and in general analysis is done through the description and interpretation of words and language (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Campbell (1974) asserts that all research ultimately has a qualitative grounding; this viewpoint is supported by Berg (1989) who asserted that all data are qualitative – all researchers are people making decisions based on personal world-view and research purpose.

5.2.3. Mixed Methods Research

Stake (1995) posited that the difference between quantitative and qualitative approaches was fundamentally a difference between understanding and explaining, between the objective and subjective researcher, between the ways knowledge is either discovered or constructed. The fundamental and contrasting epistemological perspectives of positivist and interpretivist approaches are embodied in these views (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Cameron, 2011; Denscombe, 2010; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Firestone, 1987). With the complexity of some research tasks a mixed methods research evolved over time as a response - where a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods was identified as offering a more complete answer to research questions. When Campbell & Fiske (1959, cited in Creswell, 2005:510)

introduced 'the multitrait, multimethod approach, they stimulated interest in employing multiple methods in a single study'. So more and more, educational and social science investigators have combined research methods of data collection in their studies (Sierber, 1973).

While some argue that mixed methods is not a valid research method and questioned the discipline of a pick 'n' mix approach, Creswell & Plano Clark (2011:23) trace the development of mixed method research from the 'Formative period' through the 'Paradigm debate period'... and 'Procedural development period'...the 'Advocacy and expansion period' to the Reflective period'. They note the issue is no longer a focus on the validity of mixed methods but rather the discussion and controversies have shifted to the application and value of this approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The battle to decide between the superiority of one approach to research over the other - quantitative versus qualitative research methods - is seemingly over and there is an acceptance that each has a place within modern research methods. This is evidenced in many research texts, courses and discourses (Bryman, 1988; Reichardt & Rallis, 1994; Gris, 2001; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009, 2010; Hanson et al., 2005; Wahyuni, 2012). It is asserted that combining the two approaches can facilitate the generation of richer data, support the triangulation process and at times allow new insights to emerge (Jick, 1979; Rossman & Wilson, 1985, 1991; Greene, Caracelli & Graham., 1989, 1997; Hanson et al., 2005). Greene (2005) claims that, as a third research paradigm, mixed methods is emancipatory.

In terms of mixed methods research, ontologically the challenge is to marry the perception of reality as external, objective and independent (quantitative) with the view of reality that is dependent on social actors, is subjective and assumes the contribution of individuals (qualitative). Denscombe (2010:135) sees the

enrichment available from such a marriage in that the mixed method approach 'allows for a fuller description and/or more complete explanation of the phenomenon being studied by providing more than one perspective on it', and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) have declared that mixed methods research is a research paradigm whose time has come.

So mixed methods research is a type of research where the results of theoretical analysis (quantitative data) can be augmented and modified by the voice of the participant or vice versa (qualitative data); where the opinions of participants can be viewed in the light of tight, scientific measurements.

The nature of my research required that I adopt a mixed methods approach that allowed me to objectively discover the nature of the active citizenship projects which Junior Certificate students have been doing as part of their CSPE course and to get their perspective on the values and challenges presented in undertaking such action. It involved collecting factual, quantitative data and qualitative data in terms of the views and comments of a sample of teachers and of students.

5.3. The Conceptual Framework used in this Study

According to Miles & Huberman (1994:18) 'A conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied – the key factors, constructs, or variables – and the presumed relationship between them.'

The conceptual framework in this study is based on David Kerr's model of citizenship education as outlined in Chapter 3. Kerr (1999:10) suggested that citizenship education could be viewed on a continuum from 'minimal (thin, exclusive, elitist, civics education, formal, content led, knowledge based, didactic transmission, easier to achieve and measure in practice)' to 'maximal (thick, inclusive, activist, citizenship education, participative process led, values based, interactive interpretation, more difficult to achieve and measure in

practice).' Parallel to this polarised model he suggests that the goals or aims of citizenship education provide three useful strands for exploring it. He suggests that these strands are education *about* citizenship, education *through* citizenship, education *for* citizenship (his emphasis). While Lister's (1984) earlier framework designed to explore human rights education, and later applied to both education about human rights and diversity (see Hahn, 2005), has elements congruent to Kerr's later model', both the pedagogical basis and the citizenship education focus of Kerr's conceptual framework render it the best fit as a lens for this study.

In fact, a large part of the conversation in this research study is the attempt to find out if the Action Project is facilitating the goals of CSPE – which includes the intention to provide a 'thick' form of citizenship education that is ultimately about education *through* and *for* active citizenship.

The diagram below illustrates the place of the research within this conceptual framework. At the peak of the diagram is where a 'thick' form of citizenship education based on active learning and active participation is situated. It is where education *for* citizenship is realised. Learning citizenship *through* such active methods is the aim for students studying CSPE, and doing Action Projects is a core element of the syllabus.

This research study is located at the point of student and teacher engagement with active participatory experiences of citizenship education using the Action Project as the instrument driving that engagement.

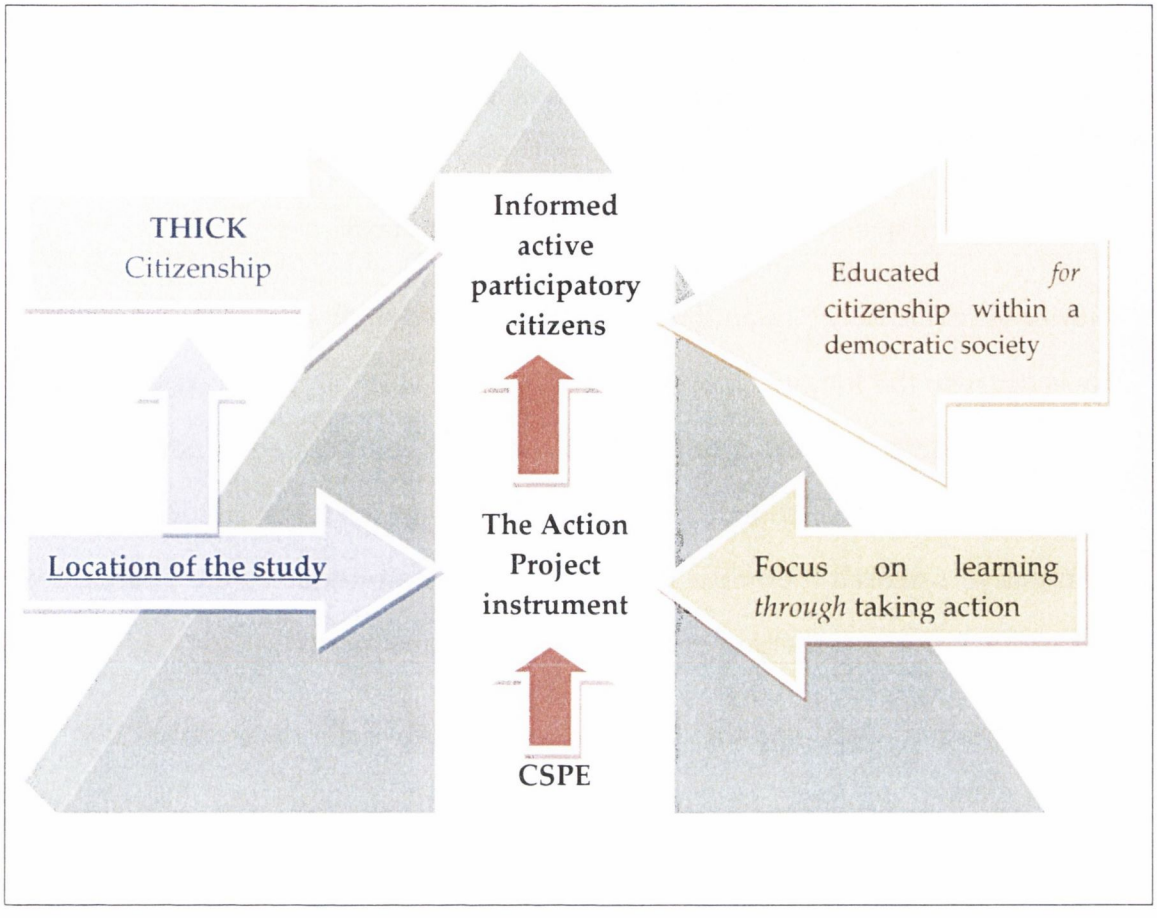


Figure 5-1: Location of the Research Study

The question that arises is whether or not the aim of the syllabus is realised. Does the Action Project facilitate a 'thick' form of citizenship education? What do the titles of the Action Projects presented for assessment tell us about the experiences of students taking action and furthermore what do teachers and students think are the benefits and challenges in learning citizenship in this way?

5.4. The Research Approach

This study has two phases: the first and most significant has a broad, objective, quantitative base providing the bones of the research. The second phase of the study was designed to put some flesh on these bones by exploring student and teacher perspectives on the experience of doing an Action Project. Creswell (2005) presents a number of typologies for classifying mixed methods research design, and using his models this study uses a partial sequential explanatory

design: it is 'partial' because the longitudinal nature of the study facilitated the administration of the teacher and student questionnaires some years after the quantitative data collection was begun but the questionnaire data is concurrent with the later stages of the longitudinal research process.

Priority is given to the quantitative data in the research study. The reason for this is because the longitudinal study produced a very large repository of data, much of the data from the questionnaire was also quantitative in nature in that it was counted and coded in line with the procedures associated with quantitative research methods. Finally the quantitative data were analysed to find patterns in the content of open-ended comments made.

The qualitative data sought to include a more subjective dimension by accessing some dynamic, personal comments from students and teachers who had experience of doing Action Projects. These comments were elicited to enhance the findings from the quantitative data. The quantitative and qualitative data are analysed separately in this study and the integration of the research occurs in the discussion.

The figure below (fig.5.2) graphically represents the stages in the research and the type of data accessed at each stage over the 13 years of the study.

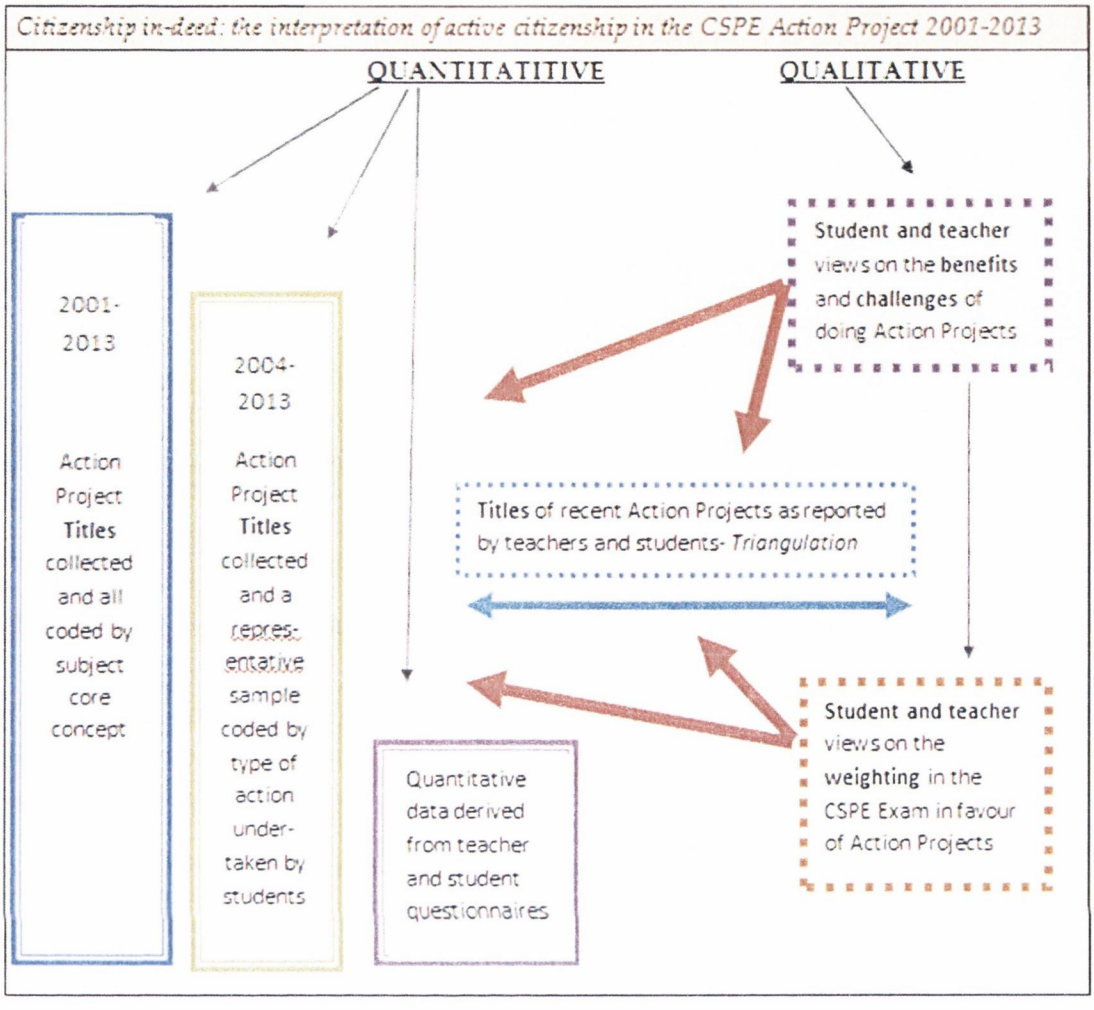


Figure 5-2: The Process of Data Collection used in this Mixed-Methods Study

As illustrated (Fig. 5.2), both quantitative and qualitative data are generated in this longitudinal study; in so doing the researcher adopted the ontological or research stance of both the positivist and the interpretivist.

5.5. Generation of Data

5.5.1. Research Questions

The aim of this study is to primarily answer the research questions of what Junior Cycle students are doing as their Action Project in CSPE and to identify what elements of the syllabus are being addressed as evidenced in the Action Projects being submitted for examination. In turn this will facilitate an investigation of whether the designated purpose of CSPE is being met, namely,

to involve students in an experience of active participatory citizenship (DoE, 1996). It is further intended to see if these experiences are representative of 'thin' or 'thick' citizenship education. It is the goal of the study to use the data generated in the second stage to explore the attitude of students and the perceptions of teachers on aspects of citizenship education.

From the literature review a number of additional questions emerged:

- What subject themes or areas exemplify the interpretation of active citizenship in Action Projects?
- In what types of action are students engaging?
- What benefits do students and teachers think are acquired by students doing Action Projects?
- What challenges are faced in doing Action Projects?
- How do teachers and students view the weighting in favour of the Action Project in the assessment of CSPE?
- Is the Action Project a 'thick' or 'thin' experience of citizenship education?

Finally, CSPE has been a core element of the Irish Junior Cycle since 1996, (Pilot Phase from 1993-1996), and students have been involved in doing Action Projects since then. The factual details of what they have actually been doing will constitute new knowledge in this area.

5.5.2. Research Stages

CSPE is specifically designed to engage young people in action and the Action Project plays a key role in meeting the aims of the curriculum. As students submit a report on their action projects in the Junior Certificate examination it

has been possible to identify the nature and type of the actions taken and presented for marking over the past 13 years.

Mertens (2010:351) posits that 'the purpose of data collection is to learn something about people or things'; the challenge for the researcher is to identify the best method of generating the data to answer the research questions posed in the study and embedded in the literature.

There are many options available to a researcher when it comes to the process of data collection. In operationalizing the concept of active citizenship in CSPE in this study I undertook to use two different, yet complementary, strategies: a longitudinal study of types and themes of Action Projects submitted for assessment and a questionnaire to students and teachers about the benefits and challenges of taking action in this way. The following section examines both of these processes and sets out the timeframe involved.

5.5.3. The Longitudinal Study

The longitudinal study involved the generation of data over a thirteen year period. CSPE was first examined nationally in 2000; the research period covers the years of the CSPE Junior Certificate examination from 2001 to 2013 inclusive.

As outlined in Chapter 4, in the year 2000 the CSPE Report on an Action Project was a new venture in terms of national assessment in the Irish education system. From 2001, in order to identify the nature of the active citizenship experiences that Junior Certificate students were engaging in, I undertook to generate data on this assessment component. To this end I designed a single-stage data collection instrument, applied annually in July each year during the marking of CSPE Action Projects. It was a systematic instrument designed to trap a representative selection of Action Project titles from each year group from 2001 to 2013 inclusive.

With the agreement of the then Examinations Section of the Department of Education and Science (now the State Examinations Commission), I was facilitated in asking Examiners to generate the Action Project data for me. The method used involved designing an instrument, a single page that Examiners completed (See Appendix A).

Each year in excess of 54,000 students are assessed in CSPE. At the point in the marking of CSPE where Examiners select and mark a random sample of twenty candidates work, I asked them to write down all of the titles of the Action Projects they encountered. The sampling in the exam process is done systematically based on a mathematical formula, universally applied. Examiners forwarded to me the list of the Action Project titles from this random sample process. Each year in excess of 150 Examiners returned completed lists with approximately 20 items recorded on each one. The use of this quantitative method was designed to be free from bias and such that the information produced could be measured and transformed into manageable themes. No Examiner was pressurised to provide the data – and there was in excess of a 95% response rate annually.

Each year this data generation instrument was given a different colour for ease of coding and to ensure that it could be identified from the other written material generated during the marking process.

In 2004, I added another category to the data generation instrument by asking Examiners to also note the actual type of action in which students had engaged (Appendix A). This information was reported by students in their pro-forma booklet, the Report on an Action Project (RAP) for CSPE, which asks students to identify the type of Action Project that they have undertaken. The options given to students in the Report booklet are:

Survey/Questionnaire	Awareness Raising
Guest Speaker	Investigation
Interview	Campaign
Mock Election/Parliament	Visit
Publication	Designated Day
Fundraising	Student Council
Other.	

(Report on an Action Project, SEC, 2006-2013:2)

As Examiners were familiar with these types of Action Projects they were instructed to use the descriptors in the booklet when making out the list of the twenty Action Projects they were recording.

From 2004 to 2013 therefore I have been generating two distinct sets of data: I have been able to identify both the title of Action Projects and hence the concept in which the action is located; and the actual type of action that was done in the Action Project presented by students for their Junior Certificate examination. By collecting this additional data it was intended that I would be able to identify the most popular concepts and types of action in which students were engaged.

In the longitudinal study, the items collected represent approximately 15% of the total of the 54,000+ students presenting for the Junior Certificate Examination each year. Over the 13 year period of the study this representative sample is sufficiently substantial to allow generalisations to emerge (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore a consistency in the data over the period of the research it would support the reliability of the findings.

5.5.4. Élite Semi-Structured Interviews

The model of citizenship education in Ireland - with its seven core concepts, its emphasis on active learning and an Action Project component which carries 60% of the total mark in the terminal written Junior Cert examination - was the outcome of a process engaged with in the 1990s by a number of actors and agencies represented by three people in particular: John Hammond formerly Education Officer in Trócaire and the NCCA, Colm Regan formerly Education

Officer for Trócaire and Stephen McCarthy formerly Education Resources Officer (Trócaire) and subsequently National Director of the CSPE Support Team. These three people, with élite knowledge, were contacted and agreed to an interview with the researcher. The Hammond and Regan interviews were undertaken in 2010, and McCarthy in 2014.

The EPIC meeting in Florence (2002) noted that interviewing élites serves many functions:

- Élite respondents act as experts about other individuals, events, processes, institutions etc. By virtue of their status as "insiders", élite interviewees guide the researcher.

- They also act as a "sounding board" for testing preliminary hypotheses or conclusions derived from earlier interviews.

- They may also act as very well-informed commentators on other matters that lie outside élite theory per se: ...

- They may also act as "gate-keepers", controlling access to ...to unpublished documentary evidence...'

Aberbech and Rockman (2002) make the point that élite interviews should serve very particular purposes in research with a focus that is determined by what it is that the researcher wishes to learn.

So it was in this case that three élite interviews were undertaken as part of the research process. They were necessary as the knowledge about the origins and more especially the purpose of Civic, Social and Political Education and the Action Project has not been written-up in any formal way. The purpose was to identify the factors that led to CSPE having the precise shape it currently has and in particular, to identify the intention in including Action Projects as part of

the syllabus. This insight was essential in order for a judgement to be made in relation to all data being generated in this study.

A set of open ended questions were devised and sent in advance to the three interviewees. Face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were then arranged. The value of this process was that it facilitated access to background information in situations where there is no relevant published information. It provided additional information about motives that led to particular decisions being made about the content and shape of CSPE and complemented the official information available in the syllabus and circular letters in the subject. Particular focus was on the development of the Action Project model of active citizenship.

Interview protocols were adhered to and all three interviewees consented to audio recordings being made. This facilitated a conversation-type interview and minimised any information loss. Each interviewee responded to the same questions (Appendix B) so that a clear account of the origins and development of CSPE and the Action Project emerged. The questions in the interviews focussed on the philosophies and models that informed the development of Civic, Social & Political Education and the Action Project in particular. Questions were also asked to establish information such as the process that led to the design of the syllabus and how the concepts, domains and themes that form the basis of the subject were selected.

The roles of the Department of Education and various curriculum development agencies [Curriculum Education Board (CEB) and National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA)] in the process were clarified. Focussing on the Action Project, questions were asked about its origin, the weighting of marks and the development of the assessment models.

As these three people have been instrumental in the formation of the subject it was considered valid to ask them if CSPE and the Action Project had met their expectations. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000:276) note that

> Interviews enable participants – be they interviewers or interviewees – to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they see situations from their point of view.

I also invited each interviewee to comment on my preliminary findings from the longitudinal study in order to get their opinions on the reality of the Action Project as portrayed in the research.

Much of the data gathered from the process of élite interviewing has been included in the history of CSPE in Chapter 4; other information will be used in the analysis of data generated in both the quantitative and qualitative phases. A copy of the interview material used in the thesis was sent to all each person months prior to the submission of this thesis.

5.5.5. Student and Teacher Questionnaire

As a means of accessing specific information from a large target population, which can then be codified and analysed, the questionnaire as a means of generating data has no rival. The key issues in the development of this instrument are addressed by wide range of educational researchers - Cohen, Manion & Morrison, (2000); Silverman, (2010); Denscombe, (2010); Martens, (2010); Creswell & Plano Clark, (2011); Creswell (2005 & 2013). The key pitfalls identified are the challenge of getting the right sample; avoiding overly difficult or obscure questions, or leading questions; the problems of poor design or layout, and the danger of generating data that is not manageable.

To access the target groups for the current research purpose, a questionnaire was an ideal instrument and had many advantages:

- It facilitated accessing a broad sample population within a limited time-frame.
- It allowed a range of data under a number of sub-headings to be accessed.
- It enabled a cross-referencing of the quantitative data with teacher practice, teacher insights and opinions.
- Its administration was relatively easy to organise and the response rate was likely to be high in the light of it being administered and completed in a designated time slot at the end of a CSPE teacher in-service and by teachers to students in school.
- Once the necessary consents were granted, the student questionnaire was short, timely and easy to administer in schools.
- It facilitated a comparison between teacher and student responses.
- It was a cost effective research instrument.

In this study it allowed for what Munn & Drever (1990) have identified as an efficient use of time and enabled the respondents to remain anonymous in the face of some reflective-type questions.

Oppenheim (2000:7) also points out that most questionnaire research processes go through a particular cycle, namely

- Deciding the aims of the study and, possibly, the theories to be investigated. General aims must then lead to a statement of specific aims, and these should be turned into *operationalized* aims; that is, a set of practical issues to hypotheses to be investigated. This should lead directly to a statement of the *variables* to be measured, and for each of these a set of questions, scales and indicators will have to be formulated.

- Reviewing the relevant literature; discussions with informants and interested parties.
- Preliminary *conceptualization* of the study, followed by a period of exploration.
- Deciding the *design* of the study and assessing its feasibility within the limitations of time and costs.
- Carrying out the research.

A decision was taken to limit the focus of the qualitative research to an exploration of the views of a sample of students who had completed a CSPE Action Project for assessment and to practicing CSPE teachers. It should be noted that the record of student participation and engagement with both CSPE and with society in general is also evident in the quantitative data; the Action Project titles are also in part their voice in this study.

Although there are many actors in the area of Civic, Social and Political Education, a deliberate decision was taken to limit the scope of the qualitative research to CSPE teachers and students - while acknowledging the importance of the viewpoints of other educational partners.

In the questionnaire phase, a representative sample of students was selected: they were all in Transition Year or Fifth Year having taken their CSPE Junior Certificate examination during the month of June prior to the administration of the questionnaire. The planned target teachers were those who had experience of teaching CSPE for some years rather than to newly qualified teachers. As Action Projects are a compulsory part of CSPE, it was hypothesised that the experienced CSPE teacher was likely to have done at least one Action Project and to have submitted students for examination.

5.5.5.1. The Research Population

There were two research populations in this study, teachers and students. Both were accessed by means of 'active solicitation' (Nasser-McMillan & Borders, 2002). The CSPE teacher in-service programme was identified as a site where a representative mix of CSPE teachers would provide what Teddlie and Yu (2007) describe as a purposive sample who could address the research question. The researcher contacted the National Co-ordinator of the CSPE Support Service and asked him to disseminate the questionnaire on the four planned in-service days (Appendix C). Being approached by an intermediary in this way seemed to encourage teachers to participate and all teachers attending returned a questionnaire.

The size of the teacher target population was 111 teachers attending CSPE In-Service in 2009 and was accessed by means of 4 CSPE cluster In-Service Support days for Co-ordinators and Experienced CSPE Teachers. The venues for these days were Portlaoise, Sligo, Dublin and Limerick. This CSPE round of in-service was designed to specifically target experienced CSPE Teachers and CSPE subject co-ordinators however, in reality it emerged that the cohort of teachers attending the in-service provision had a range of CSPE teaching experience from 3 months to 11 years. As a result of this unexpected mix of experience, a number of respondents had never done an Action Project, which amounted to 35 of the respondents. The number of valid respondents therefore was less than anticipated.

Although not having completed an Action Project 28 of these 35 teachers did address the key statements regarding what they saw as the benefits and challenges of doing Action Projects.

Table 5.1: Research Population – Teachers

Venue	Teachers who had completed an Action Project.	Teachers who had not completed an Acton Project. (In bracket is the number who not-withstanding, provided opinions).	TOTAL number of teachers in each venue.
Portlaoise	14	13 (11)	27
Sligo	19	6 (6)	25
Dublin	23	10 (7)	33
Limerick	20	6 (4)	26

n =111

The value of accessing the target population of teachers in this way was that it ensured a representative cohort of teacher responses and was free from any personal bias on my part. The cluster in-service training days were organised entirely by the CSPE Support Service, were regionally based and attended by teachers from all sectors within the Irish education system namely, Voluntary Secondary/ Community Schools/ VEC Schools / Private Schools and single sex boys/girls and mixed gender schools.

To access student opinion in 2013 a similar active solicitation was used: four teachers known to the researcher were contacted and asked to recruit the students in their school to complete a questionnaire. They represented single-sex boys and girls schools, mixed-gender schools, urban, rural and different school types. The number of students targeted was 120, and a total of 108 responses were received (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Research Population – Students

Location	Type of school	Gender	Target number. (in brackets is the actual number of responses received)
Cork City	Community School	Mixed	30 (30)
Cork	VEC	Mixed	30(30)
Dublin	Voluntary Secondary	All girls	30 (18)
Waterford	Voluntary Secondary	All boys	30 (30)

n=108

5.5.5.2. Roll-out of the Research

Table 5.3 illustrates the stages of the research, the approaches used and nature of the data acquired.

Table 5.3: Roll-out of the Research and the Types of Data Generated at Each Stage

Quantitative Research		Qualitative Research	
Methods of Data Collection	*Data*	*Methods of Data Collection*	*Data*
Instrument with Action Project **titles** listed. **(2001-2004)**	**Numeric lists**		
Instrument with Action Project **titles and types** of Action Project listed. **(2004-2013)**	**Numeric lists**		
Application of rubric for codifying AP titles and types by five objective CSPE 'experts' **(2005)**	**Validity of rubric is confirmed.**		
Questionnaire: to experienced CSPE teachers **(2009)**	**Coded themes Statistics**	Questionnaire: to experienced CSPE teachers at In-service **(2009)**	**Coded themes Banks of teacher opinions/comments**
Questionnaire: to 120 students **(2013)**	**Coded themes Statistics**	Questionnaire: to 120 students **(2013)**	**Coded themes Banks of student opinions/comments**
Annual application of the rubric 2001-2013	**Statistics**		

5.5.5.3. Pilot Study Phase

In line with good research practice, a small pilot study was carried out with the aim of testing the question items in the questionnaire and the appropriateness of targeting the population of experienced CSPE teachers and students in the first instance. Six pilot questionnaires were administered to experienced

teachers, three of whom I knew personally and three whose names were given to me by the CSPE Support Service. None of these teachers would be attending the round of in-service where the research questionnaire would be administered. Respondents were asked to both complete the pilot questionnaire and to comment on the items being asked.

The convenience sample chosen proved that experienced CSPE teachers had sufficient experience and information upon which to draw in order to complete the questionnaire. The comments made proved vital in informing the subsequent research process.

The pilot study allowed me to interrogate and proof both my method and the data generating instrument. It highlighted in particular the need to include some additional questions that would focus on the primary purpose of the research. Other questions were answered with clarity and the questionnaire methodology was itself confirmed as suitable. Long and Johnson (2000) posit that peer debriefing, where colleagues with experience of the subject provide feedback, is useful in refining and establishing the reliability of a research method.

To enable valid comparison between student and teacher responses, the students in the study were given the very same question types to answer as the teachers with an explanation in brackets of some of the terms and language used to ensure clarity and accuracy of responses.

5.5.5.4. Final Questionnaire Design

While the final questionnaires had a number of sections (Appendix D, teacher questionnaire, Appendix E, student questionnaire), to meet the research aims section three and four were applied to both teachers and students. Demographic information was gathered from respondents including the gender of teacher and student respondents, the type and size of school in which

teachers were working and their actual experience of teaching or co-ordinating CSPE. Section Two asked teachers questions specifically about doing an Action Project; how decisions were made regarding how it was chosen and managed. A mixture of closed and open-ended questions was employed.

- *Name 3 Action Projects that you have undertaken with your classes:*

Or - *How do you organise the teams/groups/ committees of students to undertake the various activities in the Action Project?*

I group them ___

Students group themselves ___

Random selection ___

The title of the Action Projects that the student respondents had done was also collected to facilitate a comparison between the teacher responses, student responses and the quantitative data collected in the longitudinal study of Action Project titles.

Likert scales were included where possible to facilitate ease and speed of teacher responses and to assist in the subsequent analysis of responses, such as:

How do you select your Action Project? ***(Please tick as appropriate:)***

	Always	*Frequently*	*Sometimes*	*Rarely*	*Never*
Students select it:	___	___	___	___	___
Through content being studied:	___	___	___	___	___
I select it:	___	___	___	___	___
I use one suggested in a textbook:	___	___	___	___	___
I have a favourite one that I repeat:	___	___	___	___	___

Other .....

Section three was administered to both teachers and students; it sought to elicit from both teachers and students their perception of the learning acquired by students in the doing of Action Projects. Based on the literature review and the researcher's own experience, a list of validation statements was generated.

The central question asked was:

Rate any of the statements below as ***True*** *or* ***False*** *or* ***Unsure***

Action projects benefit young people (and are good for them) because

Students learn the skills of active citizenship _____

Students learn how to work as a team _____

Students practice skills that they might need as adults _____

Students make real decisions _____

Students engage in real world and concrete learning _____

Action Projects include all students in the group _____

Action Projects make learning more interesting _____

Action projects make students more aware of social justice issues _____

Action Projects help students to develop character (responsibility/awareness/spirit) ____

The words in brackets are the additional wording used for students.

To collect qualitative open-ended opinions, respondents (both students and teachers) were invited to provide additional personal perceptions and reflections, to include any additional benefits that had not been itemised so as to include their individual insights and to develop a broader understanding of the benefits perceived.

*Other benefits*_____-

_____

A second list of validation statements concerned the challenges of doing Action Projects. Both teachers and students were asked about these in the same way as outlined above, rating a series of statements with the invitation to add additional comments.

Section four focussed on the CSPE examination. It aimed to establish both how teachers and students felt about the break-down of marks for the Action Project in the CSPE Junior Certificate examination. Both teachers and students were asked about the weighing of marks 60:40 in favour of the Action Project over the terminal written examination:

60% of the total marks in the CSPE examination are awarded to the RAP

Is this just right ___

too little ___ *if too little, what would be more appropriate?* _____

*Explanation*_____

too much ___ *if too much, what would be more appropriate?* _____

*Explanation*_____

The reason for asking this question was to identify if teachers and students valued the recognition given to the Action Project in the state exam and if they agreed with the weighting given to the action component.

As there are no subject specialists in CSPE, no teachers have a degree in citizenship education, therefore the issue of support for teachers was identified as critical. Section 5 addressed this issue.

5.5.5.5. Questionnaire Administration

Teachers: The questionnaire was administered in 2009, during a round of cluster in-service organised by the CSPE Support Service in Dublin, Sligo, Limerick and Portlaoise. A scripted statement was given to the administrators stating that participation in the questionnaire was voluntary and stating that the data provided would be used for the purpose of this research study (Appendix F). As stated previously a total of 111 questionnaires from 111 attendees at in-service were completed and returned.

Students: Similarly a number of CSPE teachers known to the researcher were contacted and requested to administer a questionnaire to a Transition Year class (or to Fifth Year class if the school was not offering the Transition Year Programme). Relevant permissions and information sheets were disseminated to Principals (Appendix G) and to parents (Appendix H), and consents were

collected by teachers prior to the administration of the questionnaires. A scripted statement was given to the teachers administering the questionnaire explaining to students that participation was voluntary and that the data provided would be used for the purpose of this research study. All students chose to complete it.

A total of 108 student replies were received from a possible 120. While three schools each provided 30 responses, in one of the schools the teacher had time to gather information from only one class of 18 students.

5.6. Data Analysis

The intention of the research was to identify and classify preferences in relation to the Action Projects which were submitted for examination. It was a further intention to be able to make statements about CSPE, the trends in terms of Action Project selection and type, what areas of the syllabus are popular and what areas have few Action Projects reported.

Eichelberger (1989) posits that the information or data in a study must be organised and analysed in order to address the problem under investigation. Creswell (2005: 519) further notes that 'One of the most difficult challenges for the mixed methods researcher is how to analyse data collected from qualitative and quantitative research. This is more than simply being able to link or intersect data and numbers...' and this words-versus-numbers dichotomy is sometimes offered as the paradigmatic divide in quantitative and qualitative research which mixed methods research attempts to bridge in order to make sense of the world (Creswell 2005; Thomas, 1998; Hammersley, 2012; Atkinson, Delamont & Hammersley, 1988).

5.6.1. Analysis of the Data from the Longitudinal Study

In this case data generated from the longitudinal study was stored, year on year, in a data archive and a corresponding Excel spreadsheet recorded the

Action Project titles and type from each sheet returned. This facilitated data mining and led to the identification of emerging themes.

The first national examination in CSPE was held in the year 2000; the research study began in 2001. The number of students in each data set since then has been between 3,020 and 3,460 items annually with a total of 42,680 titles being recorded by between 151 and 173 Examiners year on year from 2001 to 2013. Excluding the non-codable items such as *'My CSPE Action Project'*, *'Go Class Go'*, *'Cameras, Lights, Action'* or simply *'An Action Project'* and the *'No title given'*/no title listed responses, the valid archive of titles totals to 40,565.

The total number of data analysed on the *type* of Action Project undertaken is 4,000. This represents 4,000 randomly selected titles from the 40,565 titles above. As the data instrument is designed to generate annually a list of 20 titles on each page, 20 pages were randomly chosen for each year. In rare instances where the title was not stated in terms of a concept but rather in terms of an action, for example 'Our Class Visit' or 'A Visitor comes to talk to us', a replacement title was randomly selected from another list. This was done to enable a cross-referencing of the type of Action Project undertaken with the CSPE core concept.

The totals accessed over the period of the study were as follows:

Table 5.4: Volume of Data Generated in the Study

Year	Number of Action Project TITLES	Number of Action Project TYPES
2001	3,380	0
2002	3,023	0
2003	3,120	0
2004	3,380	400
2005	3,360	400
2006	3,280	400
2007	3,360	400
2008	3,140	400
2009	3,460	400
2010	3,340	400
2011	3,400	400
2012	3,280	400
2013	3,160	400
n =	42,680	4,000

The size of the sample and the time frame for the collection of this data, over thirteen years, provides a basis for confidence in the results.

When a set of data is gathered for any purpose some form of simplification or summary of the data is needed if the scores are to have meaning (Eichelberger, 1989). In order to find the meaning in the quantitative data gathered, I assigned a number to each list as it was returned from the Examiner. Each list contained a total of 20 Action Project titles. I then assigned each individual recorded title a code relating to one of the seven course concepts (see below). I recorded each set of results using an Excel spreadsheet to allow for ease of access to any title or to facilitate any cross-referencing I might later need to carry out.

The rubric design employed the following codes to simplify the data:

Table 5.5: Codes used for the CSPE Core Concepts

CODE	CSPE CONCEPT in Syllabus
HD	Human Dignity
R & R	Rights and Responsibilities
S	Stewardship
L	Law
Dev	Development
Dem	Democracy
I	Interdependence

A number of the Action Project titles recorded did not neatly fall into the above syllabus core concept headings, and it was therefore necessary to add four additional general categories:

C – Community
These titles often referred to something especially done in the context of either school or local community such as producing a booklet on local youth activities or a welcome guide for in-coming First Year students.
M – Miscellaneous
These were titles which were impossible to quantify and which were not possible to analyse: they were later removed from the study as they were too obscure. They included titles such as *'Camera, Lights, Action'* or *'Our Class Action Project'* or *'Citizenship Project'*.
O – Outside of the Syllabus
These titles suggested that the focus was on a topic outside of the parameters of the subject as laid down in the Syllabus.
DAS – Drugs, Alcohol and Substance Abuse
In the early days of CSPE an issue arose around students presenting topics more suitable to SPHE, the DES and later the SEC sent and continue to send advice to students and teachers annually regarding the need for such topics to have a link to the seven core concepts (*DES, Circular 2005; SEC, Circular, 2002*).

In the process of codifying the data it became apparent that significant trends were evident within certain concepts. Therefore I also revisited the data to extract information on the following sub categories:

- all Action Projects that addressed issues of animal rights under the concept of Stewardship were coded as **SA**
- those who explored Europe under the concept of Interdependence were coded as **IE**
- Fairtrade under the concept of Interdependence was coded as **IF.**

Decisions had to be made by the researcher regarding classification. For example, all Action Projects on the area of 'Disability' were classified under the heading of Human Dignity (not Rights and Responsibilities) as this topic is included in the definition of Human Dignity in the CSPE Syllabus.

A rubric (Appendix I) was designed based on the CSPE syllabus and the Guidelines for CSPE prepared by the DES and NCCA. Five CSPE experts were each asked to apply this rubric to 100 Action Project titles to verify its consistency. The results confirmed the reliability of the coding rubric (see samples in Appendix J).

The data was converted into statistical form to facilitate a description of findings, to further organise them and to allow for their analysis and interpretation. The analysis of the actual *type* of Action Project undertaken by students was limited to 10% of the 40,000+ identified and listed on the data generation instrument. The decision to randomly select 10% of the total for analysis produced 4,000 items: this was deemed to be a sufficient sample size. The belief was that this process would produce consistent and valid findings over the years of the study. The co-relation year on year of the pattern that emerged indicated and confirmed the suitability of this sample size.

The coding of Action Project type was done using the *a priori* options given on the Report on an Action Project student booklet (listed on Page 182 of this chapter) and which is produced by the State Examinations Commission. Where a student presented a title with more than one action was identified, the first action named was taken as dominant and it was noted that the student had presented more than one activity by using a '+' sign.

Similar to the concept on which the Action Projects were based, the data was converted into statistical form to facilitate a description of findings, to further organise them and to allow for their analysis and interpretation.

5.6.2. Analysis of the Teacher and Student Data

As previously discussed both quantitative data (numbers) and qualitative data (words) were accessed by using a questionnaire to CSPE teachers and students. The data acquired from the qualitative phase was designed to 'enhance, elaborate and complement data from the other source' (Creswell, 2005). The teacher data was collected concurrently in year nine of the quantitative research phase when sufficient time had elapsed since the introduction of CSPE as a core, mandatory and assessed subject in the Junior Cycle curriculum. The students' responses were collected subsequently in 2013.

Boeije (2010) posits that raw data needs to be managed and to manage the responses from the questionnaire an Excel spread-sheet was developed. Here the student and teacher responses were captured separately in terms of the total responses made to the closed and multiple choice questions while all opened-ended responses were transcribed verbatim onto the spread-sheet. The initial processing of the two sets of data was done separately and comparisons were drawn later. Themes were subsequently identified for each data set of responses based on the language/terms used for example 'self- confidence' or 'contemporary issues' or 'responsibilities' or in the case of some students,

specific comments about new learning were thematically grouped. In the case of both teachers and students many did not include self-generated additional comments.

5.6.3. Report of Findings

In reporting on the findings in the data, each phase of the research is presented separately with the research questions guiding the process. First the findings from the longitudinal data are analysed followed by findings from the data generated by the questionnaire. Statistics and charts are used to illustrate the longitudinal findings and to allow comparisons of change patterns over time to be presented. Boeije (2010) suggests that the analysis of qualitative data involves the deconstruction, and then the reconstruction of the data to form meaningful findings that will allow reasonable inferences to be drawn. Common themes were identified in respondent answers; outliers were also identified. The integration of all the data from the different instruments used occurs at the discussion of findings stage.

5.7. Triangulation

Patton (2002:248) notes that triangulation allows for tests of consistency to be applied to see if the same results and insights emerge from the data generated. It may also highlight inconsistencies and provide a basis for further analysis and investigation. The triangulation process provides the opportunity to assess the quality of the data emerging (Denscombe, 2010) and offset what Robson (2002:174) calls 'threats to validity' by reducing researcher and respondent bias.

Triangulation in this study was supported in a number of processes. Both data and methodological triangulation have been undertaken. The data generated in the quantitative phase is triangulated with teacher response in the questionnaire where teachers have identified recent Action Projects. Similarly the Action Projects undertaken by the students prior to completing the

questionnaire were identified. The process of triangulation allowed me to assert that the data generated about Action Projects was in line with the range of Action Projects identified in the longitudinal phase.

5.7.1. Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are the very cornerstones of good research. Carmines and Zeller (1995:15) note that 'If it is reliable and valid then it has gone a long way toward gaining scientific acceptance'. Denscombe (2010:15) says that 'reliability relates to the methods of data collection' so that if the process was to be replicated by another researcher using the same method then the research process would provide 'results that do not vary from occasion to occasion'.

Establishing the validity of what is happening in any given, particular situation is seen as a particular advantage for those engaging in mixed method research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010; Silverman, 2010; Long & Johnson, 2007; Sammons et al., 2005). Creswell, (2003:15) endorses this view when he says that the mixed method approach militates against biases that might be inherent in a single method approach as it 'neutralise(s) or cancel(s) the bias of other methods'.

In order to ensure that the findings of the research study had validity, I adopted four indicators of validity as described by Rubin and Rubin (1995:85-91) namely transparency, consistency, coherence and communicability.

- Transparency – the means of collecting data was evident. The handwritten instruments returned by the examiners support the findings on the nature and type of Action Projects being undertaken by Junior Certificate students. The participant responses to the questionnaire were such as to be easily codifiable. There was a minimum of open-ended questions and the Likert Scale removed ambiguity from the responses received.

- Consistency – the replication of statistics in relation to the quantitative data show a consistency over a thirteen year period when it comes to areas where students are undertaking action. Similarly, many of the responses in the teacher and student questionnaires administered in totally different geographic areas provide a level of consistent responses. A thorough literature search was undertaken to identify the relevant areas of study and these were used to develop and refine the instruments used. A pilot questionnaire was used to refine the questionnaire instrument prior to the main phase of administration. This allowed for an examination of content validity and an internal consistency.

- Coherence - the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods allows for coherent conclusions based on the data presented and the links between the instruments were logical and progressive.

- Communicability - this report on this research is focussed on the real experience of the students, teachers and examiners involved in Civic, Social and Political Education. Its findings will be accessible to all teachers of the subject, to professionals within the field of education, to other researchers in the areas and to the general reader.

5.8. Ethical Considerations

The research is based on a code of conduct that safeguards the interests and concerns of all those involved. In line with Robson's (2002) definition of seeking the truth, the intention of the research is not to sell a particular line but rather to establish the truth in a systematic way in the data generated.

Relevant permissions for undertaking the quantitative data was sought and granted, as was permission to request examiners to collect the data and forward it to me.

All those taking part in the questionnaire were informed as to the nature of the research. Those who administered the questionnaire were prepared for the task and were requested to engage in this task rather than simply expected to comply. Their collaboration is acknowledged. None of the participants were placed under any stress to respond to the questionnaire and they were treated at all times with consideration. They were free to withdraw from the task and this was explained to them. Their confidentiality was ensured and their opinions respected.

Similarly the consent of school principals, CSPE teachers, students and parents/guardians were sought and received prior to students completing the student questionnaire. In all cases consent was received.

The analysis of data and the presentation of results were done with awareness of the responsibility of the researcher to be free from bias and to ensure that the truth within the data was presented.

5.9. Comments on a Longitudinal Study

By its very nature a longitudinal study brings particular challenges. In the case of this study, the first challenge lay in the 13 years of data collection which yielded a very large data set which had to be recorded, managed, mined, analysed and presented in a format that could be classified and discussed, and which would be accessible to any reader. Initially only Action Project titles were targeted and they led to approximately 3,000 items year on year. The initial coding by long-hand proved unwieldy and difficult to explore especially as over time themes arose in the data or new focus points suggested themselves in the literature.

The second challenge came three years into the study when it was decided to expand the focus of the data being generated to include the type of actions that students were doing. This led to another floodgate of data. In the light of these

challenges and in the face of the mounting statistics, a further decision was taken to use a random sample of Action Project types to explore this aspect of the study. I learned that managing large volumes of data requires both planning, focussed decision making and systematic enquiry.

A third challenge lay in the generation of qualitative data - seeking out the voices and opinions of both teachers and students in relation to the Action Project. To keep a rigour around this data a means of connecting the teachers, students and numbers was needed. The fact that all three sources could identify similar Action Project titles provided the rigour needed. However, as a result of a fear around the generation of even more data, the decision to include students came late in the study, yet added hugely to its findings and breadth.

On the other hand, the data in this study, albeit large, and despite these challenges, brought a renewed enthusiasm for the task in hand as year on year it yielded up its secrets.

5.10. Conclusion

In summary this research is located within the quantitative and qualitative tradition and mixed methods are used on the grounds that they work well together to answer the research questions. Particular attention was paid to the use of questionnaires. The goal of the research is to understand the extent of the domains covered by Action Projects, within an educational context that aims to meet the needs of democratic society for active participatory citizens in Ireland. Valsiner (1992) asserts that society identifies what it is that has to be learned through various mechanisms that facilitate the transfer of knowledge which in turn enable the individual to be a participant in that society.

The researcher believes that the range of data generated will reveal a rich store of knowledge that will be a valuable illustration of the interpretation of active participatory citizenship in CSPE. The conversation in this study will be based

fundamentally on Kerr's concept of citizenship education as being *about, for* or *through* citizenship in the context of thick and thin citizenship education experiences.

The following two chapters present and discuss the findings from both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study.

CHAPTER 6. FINDINGS AND COMMENTS ON THE LONGITUDINAL STUDY

6.1. Introduction

This is the first of two chapters that reports and analyses the findings of the research study. This chapter reports the findings of the longitudinal study and the next presents the findings from the teacher and student questionnaires.

Initially, an overview of the findings from the study of Action Project titles from 2001 to 2013 and the types of action undertaken by students from 2004 to 2013 is presented. It provides the context for the more detailed findings explored throughout the chapter. The concepts that emerged as the most popular in the data are identified and some of the trends within these concepts over the years are tracked. The relationship between these popular concepts and the types of activity that students used to engage in their Action Projects are presented. The intention here is to establish how the breadth of the subject has been interpreted and to ascertain if the Action Project is facilitating the goal of the syllabus to involve students in an experience of active citizenship.

There is an exploration of the most and least popular concept areas and the trends encountered within this data. The activities related to each concept in the least popular categories are identified and discussed. The impact on the data of topical events, both at an international and national is considered in order to explain aspects of the data and to identify how such events enable students to link with the real world.

A number of dominant sub-themes that are within the main concepts were identified during the coding and these areas are investigated. Over time some concepts have come to be dominated by particular interpretation in terms of the type of active engagement presented.

A brief commentary is included following the presentation of the findings in each concept area. This Chapter concludes with some of the implications for the model of active participatory citizenship suggested by the findings.

6.2. Overview of Longitudinal Study

Over the thirteen years from 2001 to 2013 a total of 42,680 titles of Action Projects submitted for assessment in the Junior Certificate examination were itemised. The data were coded and the table below represents the total figures for each concept area over each of the thirteen years of the longitudinal study.

Table 6.1: The Total Number of Action Project Titles 2001-2013

The 7 Core Concepts are shaded in green. See also Appendix K.

Year	Rights & Responsibility	Stewardship	Democracy	Law	Human Dignity	Development	Inter-dependence	Community	Substance Abuse	Outside the Syllabus	Miscellaneous	Blank	Total
1	954	784	495	308	177	160	120	105	117	27	58	75	3380
2	798	527	499	309	134	124	172	84	39	16	94	179	3020
3	849	531	550	314	265	63	180	79	27	5	114	143	3120
4	891	571	634	396	340	126	145	81	25	1	81	89	3380
5	974	519	577	451	214	155	151	88	30	29	77	115	3360
6	870	475	645	517	224	149	143	42	13	7	80	95	3280
7	669	570	667	607	343	115	132	55	18	2	99	83	3360
8	736	502	661	555	210	99	173	51	3	7	43	100	3140
9	614	580	796	677	292	148	172	46	2	0	66	67	3460
10	713	563	687	612	258	117	208	34	2	3	76	67	3340
11	698	631	741	528	327	145	165	50	4	3	62	46	3400
12	687	616	764	567	277	131	104	16	11	0	37	70	3280
13	694	587	633	535	348	133	89	23	16	3	63	36	3160
	10,147	**7501**	**8349**	**6376**	**3409**	**1665**	**1954**	**754**	**307**	**103**	**950**	**1165**	n= 42,680

The concept categories are those that informed the development of the research rubric described earlier in Chapter 5, namely the seven core concepts as laid down in the Syllabus (DoE, 1996) and the concept of 'Community' which is one of the four domains of the CSPE Syllabus (DoE, 1996). Also included is the

concept of substance abuse and two categories entitled 'Miscellaneous' and 'Outside of the Syllabus'.

Some Examiners did not complete the data collection instrument and some returns were less than the 20 titles anticipated: the total number of 'Blanks' is recorded in Table 6.1 for each year. As 'Miscellaneous' titles (such as 'My Action Project' or 'We did it!') cannot be linked to any concept they, and the 'Blanks', have been excluded from the 'Grand Total'. The total valid response is therefore 40,565.

Table 6.2: Total Valid Responses

Year	Miscellaneous	Blanks	Grand Total	Grand Total less Miscellaneous and Blank
1	58	75	3380	3247
2	94	179	3020	2747
3	114	143	3120	2863
4	81	89	3380	3210
5	77	115	3360	3168
6	80	95	3280	3105
7	99	83	3360	3178
8	43	100	3140	2997
9	66	67	3460	3327
10	76	67	3340	3197
11	62	46	3400	3292
12	37	70	3280	3173
13	63	36	3160	3061
TOT	**950**	**1165**	42,680	40,565

In the coding of Action Project titles, a decision was taken to treat each of the concept areas separately to facilitate tracking of their popularity over time. As the total number of titles generated by the research instrument varied from one year to the next, the percentage figures below give a more accurate indication of the trends over the thirteen year period. The analysis below is based on the final total of 40,565.

Table 6.3: The Percentage of Action Project Titles for Each Concept 2001-2013

Year	Rights & Responsibility	Stewardship	Democracy	Law	Human Dignity	Development	Inter-dependence	Substance Abuse	Community	Outside of the Syllabus
1	29.4%	24.1%	15.2%	9.5%	5.5%	4.9%	3.7%	3.6%	3.2%	0.8%
2	29.0%	20.8%	18.2%	11.2%	4.9%	4.5%	6.3%	1.4%	3.1%	0.6%
3	29.7%	18.5%	19.2%	11.0%	9.3%	2.2%	6.3%	0.9%	2.8%	0.2%
4	27.8%	17.8%	19.8%	12.3%	10.6%	3.9%	4.5%	0.8%	2.5%	0
5	30.6%	16.3%	18.1%	14.1%	6.7%	4.9%	4.7%	0.9%	2.8%	0.9%
6	28.2%	15.4%	20.9%	16.8%	7.3%	4.8%	4.6%	0.4%	1.4%	0.2%
7	21.1%	17.9%	21.0%	19.1%	10.8%	3.6%	4.2%	0.6%	1.7%	0.1%
8	24.6%	16.8%	22.1%	18.5%	7.0%	3.3%	5.8%	0.1%	1.7%	0.2%
9	18.5%	17.4%	23.9%	20.3%	8.8%	4.5%	5.2%	0.1%	1.4%	0
10	22.3%	17.6%	21.5%	19.1%	8.1%	3.7%	6.5%	0.1%	1.1%	0.1%
11	21.2%	19.2%	22.5%	16.0%	9.9%	4.4%	5.0%	0.1%	1.5%	0.1%
12	21.7%	19.4%	24.1%	17.9%	8.7%	4.1%	3.3%	0.3%	0.5%	0
13	22.7%	19.2%	20.7%	17.5%	11.4%	4.3%	2.9%	0.5%	0.8%	0.1%
100%	**25.0%**	**18.5%**	**20.6%**	**15.7%**	**8.4%**	**4.1%**	**4.8%**	**0.8%**	**1.9%**	**0.3%**

Shaded area represents the core concepts in the CSPE Syllabus. See also Appendix K. n=40,565

Table 6.4 presents the total cumulative figures for each of the areas coded. They are presented for the 13 years of the study in order of overall popularity. This data does not tell the whole story but shows a consistency over time regarding preferences in the concept areas selected by students as the focus of Action Projects submitted for assessment in the Junior Certificate examination 2001-2013.

Table 6.4: The Percentage of Action Project Titles for Each Concept 2001-2013 in Order of Popularity

Rights & Responsibilities	10,147	25.0%
Democracy	8,349	20.6%
Stewardship	7,501	18.5%
Law	6,376	15.7%
Human Dignity	3,409	8.4%
Interdependence	1,954	4.8%
Development	1,665	4.1%
Community	754	1.9%
Substance Abuse	307	0.8%
Outside of the Syllabus	103	0.3%
TOTAL	40,565	100.0%

Figure 6.1 represents this data in chart form; it gives a clear picture of the popularity and dominance of some concepts over others.

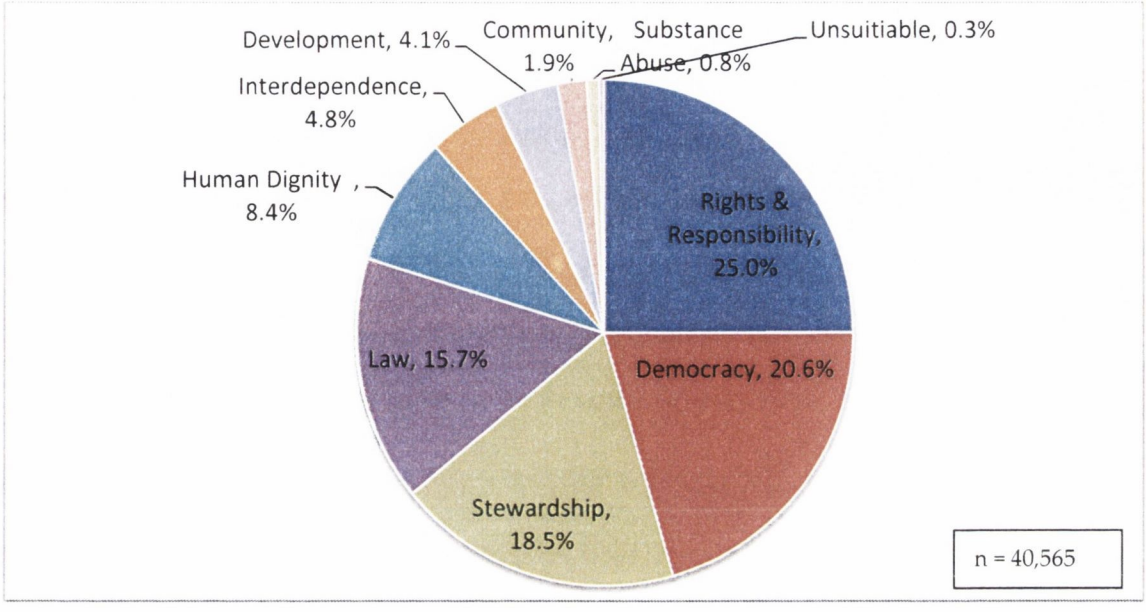


Figure 6-1: The Percentage of Action Project Titles for Each Concept 2001-2013

The concepts of Rights and Responsibilities, Stewardship, Democracy and Law show consistently high levels of student interest over the years of the study (2001-2013). Action Project titles in the areas of Development and Interdependence have risen in some years, falling back in others; while Human Dignity has also ranged from 4.9% in 2002 to a high of 11.4% in 2013.

On the other hand, titles referring to Action Projects in the area of Substance Abuse have declined and all but disappeared over time, going from 3.6% in 2001 to 0.1% over the four years from 2008 to 2011 inclusive. Similarly titles in the area of community engagement fall over the thirteen year period from 3.2% in 2001 to a low of 0.5% in 2012. None of the concept areas dealing with Development, Substance Abuse, Community, Interdependence and 'Outside of the Syllabus' titles have ever reached beyond 6.5% in any given year of the study.

6.3. Popularity of Titles

An analysis of the data from Year 1 to Year 13 of the study clearly shows that the four front runners in the concept areas where Action Projects occur have remained constant over the period of the study. At the outset of the study Rights and Responsibilities was the most popular concept area at an overall 29.4% in 2001; though it drops back to 18.5% in 2009, it remains in the top position in terms of popularity accounting for 25% of the titles overall. That said, over the years of the study the concepts of Democracy, Stewardship and Law have also been very popular concept areas for student action.

The bar-chart below shows the data returns for 2001 (Year 1) and those for 2013 (Year 13); it illustrates the change in the popularity of each of the concept areas from the beginning to the end of the study and highlights the alignment in popularity of the concepts.

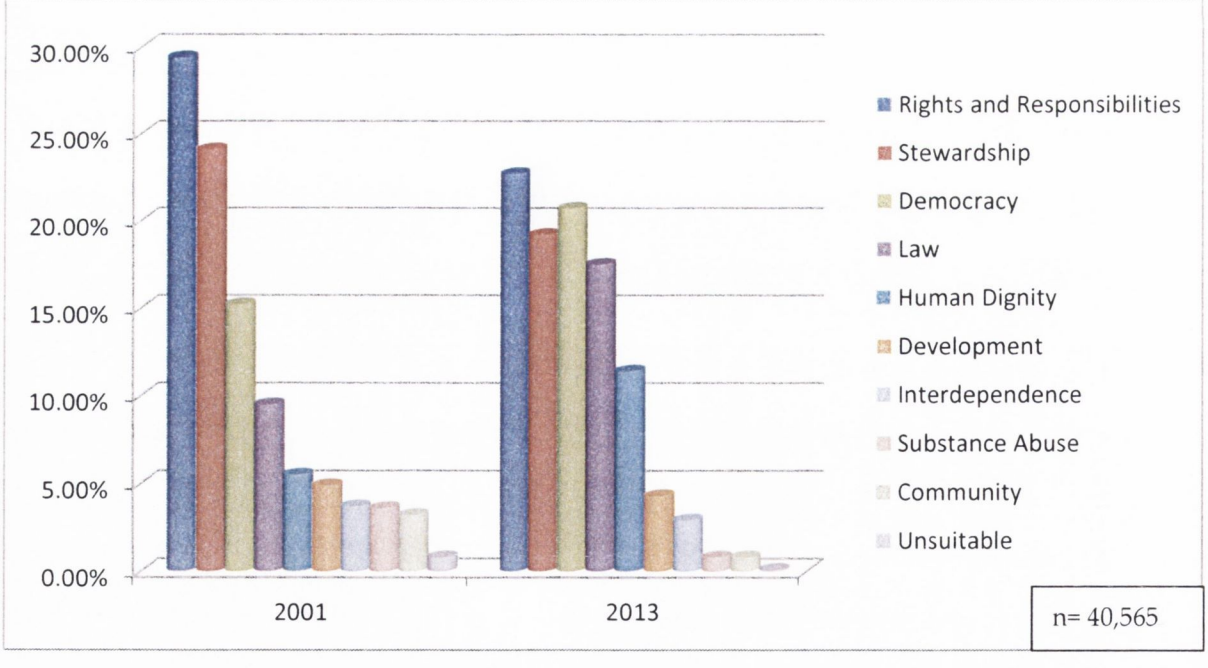


Figure 6-2: Concept Popularity as a Basis of Action Projects, Comparison 2001 and 2013

It would appear that the rise in Action Projects based on the concepts of Democracy and Law is at the expense largely of the concept areas of Rights and Responsibilities and Stewardship. The concepts of Interdependence and Human

Dignity also demonstrate increased popularity over time while the opposite is true of the concepts of Development and Community. The falling levels at the lower end of the second bar-chart represents a move away from Substance Abuse as a topic for Action Projects and the submission of fewer titles outside of the syllabus over time, to the point where the number of students presenting such Action Projects is so small as not to register in the chart (0.1%).

Figure 6.3 illustrates the alignment of the four most popular concepts. The emergence of an alignment has meant that some concept areas have lost some ground in terms of popularity while others have gained. Rights and Responsibility has declined somewhat over time and the concept of Stewardship which was ranked 2nd in popularity in 2001 and 2002, fell to 3rd place in 2003, 2004 and 2005 - having been overtaken by the concept of Democracy. From 2006 onwards Stewardship is in 4th place as the concept of Law becomes more popular.

The figure below (Figure 6.3) shows the trends in the four most popular concept areas over the thirteen years of the study. It demonstrates that there has been movement in terms of Action Projects so that by 2007 there is evidence of a more balanced interest by students in four popular concept areas over all others, namely Rights and Responsibilities, Stewardship, Democracy and Law.

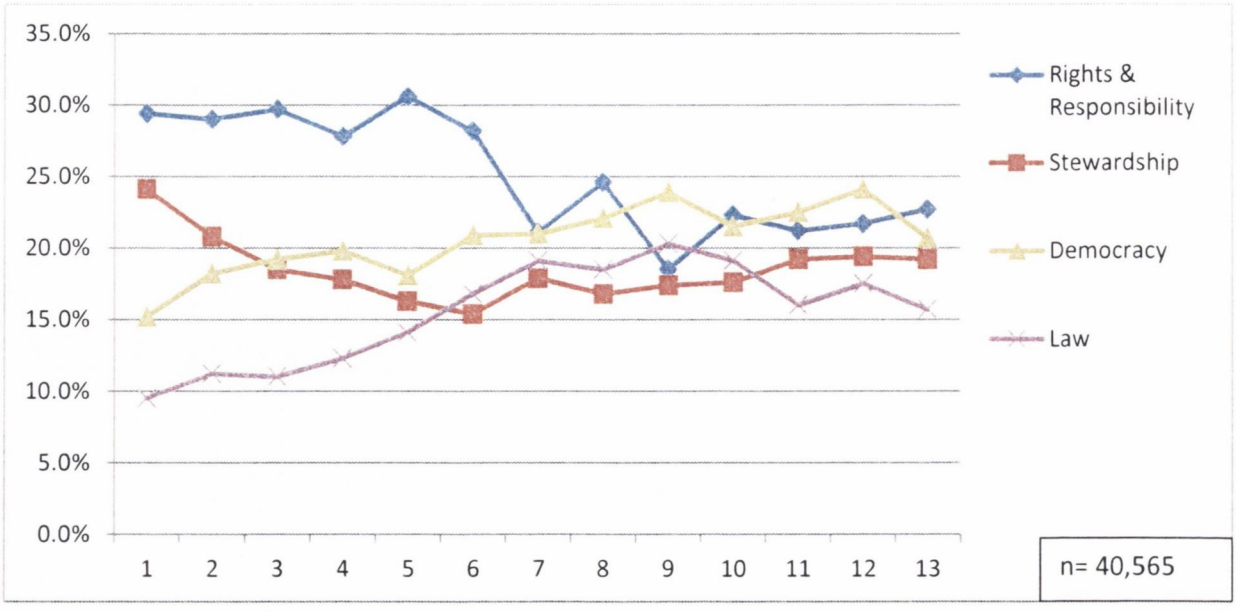


Figure 6-3: The Four Most Popular Concept Areas - Trends 2001-2013 (Range 0-30%)

Appendix K presents the above information in percentage terms.

Other concept areas have been impacted upon by the dominance of these four main concept areas. The chart below traces the least popular concepts and in particular shows a decline of interest in the concepts of Development, Community and Substance Abuse. While the concept of Human Dignity dipped in 2008, it has increased in popularity from its lowest level in 2001 (4.5%) to a recent high in 2013 (11.4%). Similarly the concept of Interdependence shows some increase in interest levels over time, though in the latter years of the study this concept area has also declined in popularity.

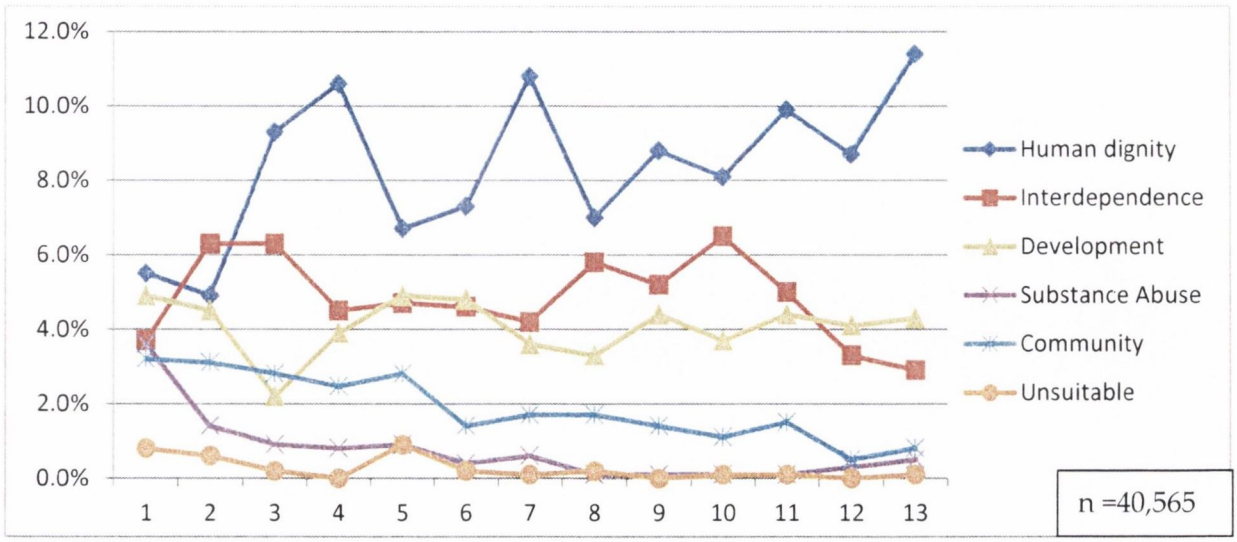


Figure 6-4: The Least Popular Concept Areas - Trends 2001-2013 (Range 0-12%)

Appendix K presents the information above in percentage terms.

6.3.1. Commentary

The Action Project is a dynamic element of CSPE that offers students and teachers a broad canvas in which to experience active participatory citizenship. While it is not the intention to make greater claims than the data will allow, the Action Project is the means in the Irish education system whereby the aspiration of giving students the opportunity to get 'actively involved in developing an issue that has arisen in class' (DoE, 1996:8) becomes a reality. As a compulsory element of the subject, one that every Junior Certificate student experiences, the data attests to the fact that in Ireland students have engaged in some form of active participation that satisfies the syllabus objective '...to encourage active and co-operative learning' (DoE, 1996:8).

The emphasis on the concepts of Rights and Responsibilities and Democracy in the data is not surprising: the Syllabus (DoE., 1996:3) for CSPE firmly roots the subject in the context of human rights and social responsibility. This permeates the design of the subject, 'It [CSPE] helps them to understand the rights and responsibilities of the individual in society and the working nature of democracy' (DoE, 1996:2).

Similarly the prevalence of Democracy as a theme for action could be anticipated due to the fact that there is a general tendency to associate citizenship education with democratic practice and an understanding of political process (See Dunn & Burton 2011; Davies, Flanagan, Hogarth, Mountford & Philpott, 2009; Annette 2009; Osler & Starkey 2005: McCowan 2008). Barber (1992:128) notes that citizens need to acquire 'the literacy required to live in a civil society, the competence to participate in democratic communities, the ability to think critically and act deliberately in a pluralist world...'. Other writers have been concerned with citizenship education that teaches the politics of daily life (QCA, 2007; Boyte, 2004; Stoker, 2006; Blunkett, 1998) and the need to engage citizens beyond the individual to more active participation in a political community (Annette, 2009).

What is unexpected is the prominence of Law and Stewardship as popular concepts for Action Projects. In particular Law, as there is little in the literature that focuses on teaching about the law as a discrete element of citizenship education. In the results of the ICCS Study (Cosgrove, Gilleece & Sheil, 2011) cited in Chapter 4, law was selected as the least enjoyable concept area in CSPE by both students or teachers (see Table 4.4).

While some authors (Faulkner, 2003; OPDM, 2005; Davies et al., 2009; Faulks 2006a) have addressed the need to teach citizenship education as a means of combating lawlessness, vandalism, xenophobia leading to crimes based on racism and other forms of social crime, I have found no literature encouraging the types of active participatory citizenship evident in the data. Learning about the law is embedded within learning for democratic citizenship in other educational systems: it is in programmes that focus on 'thin' citizenship' where obedience to the rule of law and conformity are the dominant focus.

Stewardship with its emphasis on the environment (including animal welfare) seems to have captured the imagination of students and teachers as a focus of active citizenship experiences. This type of environmental awareness and responsibility is compatible with the modern interpretation of what it means to be an active citizen in the 21st century (Birdwell et al., 2013; Huckle 2008; Kymlica, 2008; Faulks, 2006b; UNESCO, 2001; DoE, 1996). Today's citizen has a sense of awareness of the environment, the risks posed to the planet by a lack of responsibility and the role of the individual, the state and the wider world in safeguarding the future. A wide range of activities are reported in the data on this theme and these are explored later in the chapter.

Some concepts (Development, Interdependence, Community) were significantly less popular as the basis for Action Projects - below 10% in the overall total for 2001-2013 (see Fig 6.4). Possible reasons for this anomaly are explored later in this Chapter.

The implications for CSPE as a subject are difficult to assess. The scope of the seven core concepts are clearly not being exploited fully if Action Projects cluster predominantly around four concepts only. However, students will still likely explore all concepts in class, not least because every year in the Junior Certificate examination, the written paper for the subject focuses on all of them. The Syllabus (DoE, 1996), the subject *Guidelines* (1998 and 2005) and comments in CSPE subject inspection reports all focus on activities similar to some of those generated in the data, namely the guest speaker, the survey, petition, display and class presentation.

It is beyond the scope of this study to investigate the other practices that are likely to form part of citizenship education in some schools, where anti-bullying events are taking place within the context of a rights issue, or School Councils are forms of democracy-in-action, or students are studying social issues in

literature or learning about other cultures in other subject areas like Geography, Religious Education. What can be said however is that CSPE has brought a new dimension to active participation by young citizens in schools; it has enabled, facilitated, encouraged, and indeed ensured, that students go beyond the school and the textbook to forge links with society at large. The evidence in the data is that students are connecting with society outside of the classroom in and through their CSPE Action Projects.

Furthermore as an element of a core, mandatory subject, the Action Project is an inclusive vehicle for action. It is not only the most able, articulate, confident, motivated students who engage in Action Projects but *all* students in the Junior Cycle must submit a report on their Action Project for assessment in the Junior Cert examination. The 40,565 titles generated in the research are indicators of a level of active participatory citizenship on the part of candidates sitting the Junior Cycle examination. In the sections that follow, the details of Action Projects related to each of the category concepts are presented.

6.3.2. Rights and Responsibilities

CSPE has a human rights and social responsibility framework while the core concept of rights and responsibilities itself has a broad base. Within it many Action Project titles focussed on such rights issues as homelessness, bullying, children's rights, the rights of the elderly and various organisations that attempt to meet these rights. The ten most popular organisations targeted in this concept area were:

Amnesty International	Bernardos	Focus Point	Concern
Age Action Ireland	Simon	Action-aid	
Operation Christmas Child	Oxfam	The ISPCC	

The popularity of these bodies can be attributed in part to their high national profile; some are supported by advertising and the media, others have produced targeted school material (Cearta Daonna/Amnesty International, Focus Point); school-based campaigns (Operation Christmas Child/Samaritans Purse); the availability of Education Officers and advocates (Amnesty International, ISPCC) to visit schools to spread their message. The work of most of these organisations is also included in many of the available textbooks (Barrett & Richardson, 2010; Harrison & Wilson, 2011; Murphy & Ryan, 2009).

The focus on this concept is accounted for also by the number of guest speakers who came into classrooms talking about human rights, children's rights, homelessness and about the work of the organisations listed above. The data suggests that the opportunity for charitable and Non-Governmental Organisations to access schools by means of CSPE is being realised.

6.3.2.1. What did the Students do?

The analysis of the types of action undertaken around the concept of Rights and Responsibilities from 2004 to 2013 are shown below (in the shaded areas): the final column is the percentage of the total number of Action Project titles coded from the sampling of the random 4,000 Action Project type-data generated over the 10 years of the study (see also Appendix K).

Some types of action were not evident under this concept at any time over the study; these include actions around Student Councils, Mock Elections and Publications. In other years only a small number of students undertook certain types of action while there was a clustering around such actions as fundraising, visits out of school, guest speakers, surveys and awareness raising activities.

Table 6.5: Activities Under the Concept of Rights & Responsibilities (R & R).

R & R	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	34.4 %	11.9 %	56.8 %	36.7 %	17.6 %	23.3 %	23.9 %	22.2 %	32.3 %	17.5 %	27.1 %
Fundraising +	7.0%	19.3 %	10.2 %	2.2%	27.1 %	9.6%	10.2 %	28.3 %	6.1%	23.3 %	14.5 %
Visit to	0.8%	0.7%	1.1%	1.1%	3.5%	1.4%	2.3%	3.0%	5.1%	5.8%	2.4%
Visit to +	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%	0.0%	2.4%	4.1%	4.5%	1.0%	10.1 %	0.0%	2.1%
Guest Speaker	37.5 %	40.0 %	22.7 %	25.6 %	22.4 %	17.8 %	29.5 %	21.2 %	15.2 %	23.3 %	26.5 %
Guest Speaker +	3.1%	8.1%	4.5%	5.6%	5.9%	1.4%	9.1%	4.0%	9.1%	12.6 %	6.5%
Student Council	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.2%
Student Council +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Survey	6.3%	0.7%	0.0%	5.6%	2.4%	12.3 %	2.3%	0.0%	1.0%	2.9%	3.1%
Survey +	0.0%	2.2%	0.0%	1.1%	0.0%	2.7%	0.0%	1.0%	4.0%	1.0%	1.2%
Mock Election	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Mock Election +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%
Publication +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Investigation	2.3%	4.4%	0.0%	1.1%	1.2%	0.0%	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%
Investigation +	0.0%	1.5%	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	0.5%
Designated Day	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.2%	5.5%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.7%
Designated Day +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	2.9%	0.6%
Campaign	3.1%	2.2%	0.0%	2.2%	2.4%	5.5%	2.3%	2.0%	0.0%	1.0%	2.0%
Campaign +	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	1.1%	2.0%	2.0%	0.0%	0.7%
Awareness Raising	2.3%	3.7%	0.0%	13.3 %	14.1 %	13.7 %	10.2 %	9.1%	9.1%	8.7%	7.9%
Awareness Raising +	0.8%	3.7%	0.0%	5.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	1.0%	0.0%	1.4%
Other	1.6%	0.7%	1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.3%	1.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.8%
n=	128	135	88	90	73	88	99	99	99	103	988

Noticeably two types of action are most common, namely fundraising and having a guest speaker into the school/class. When 'Fundraising' is combined with Fundraising '+' (another activity), it is the most popular form of action identified and accounts for 41.6% of all Action Projects in this concept area from 2004 to 2013. 14.5% of these specifically include a fundraising activity with

another activity. In most cases the '+' refers to a guest speaker coming into the class and either being presented with a cheque, or a fundraising event following-on from a guest speaker, or a visit to the organisation or cause that students embarked on a fundraising drive to support. Typical titles were *'A visit to Amnesty International and fundraising for them'* or *A Guest Speaker from Amnesty International – Cheque it out', 'Sleepover and Handover in aid of Simon - meeting our Responsibility'.*

Fundraising activities peaked in 2006 at 67% having started out at 41.4% in 2004. The reason for this peak might be that in 2006, some students used their Action Project to respond to the Tsunami disaster in Asia, with 45 Action Projects recorded based on activities around this event: this represents 5.2% of all Rights and Responsibilities Action Projects (870) submitted that year. These Action Projects focussed on fundraising for Tsunami victims in the context of the human rights of such victims or the social responsibility of people to help in this disaster.

The popularity of fundraising as the means of doing an Action Project waned in the years 2005 (31.2%) and 2009 (32.8%) and it is noteworthy that in 2005, 2008, 2011 and 2013, more Action Projects focussed on fundraising together with another activity, rather than fundraising on its own. Under 'Fundraising' alone, typical Action Project titles covered such things as

- cake sales
- recycling mobile phones
- raffles
- non-uniform/non homework days
- filling shoes boxes
- selling badges/bracelet

- sponsored events such as a walk/run, a silence, a fast or a sleep-out
- a quiz/table-quiz
- arranging sporting events.

Sometimes the title does not indicate the exact nature of the fundraising activity and titles like *'Fundraising for Barnardos'* are simply recorded.

6.3.2.2. Guest Speaker Activities

Inviting in a guest speaker to a class is the second most popular type of Action Project under this concept and accounts for 33.1% of all Action Projects over the 13 years examined. In 2005, when the guest speaker and guest speaker '+' Action Projects are combined, they account for 48.1% of the total Action Projects around Rights and Responsibilities. They drop off in 2009 to 19.2% but subsequently rise again to 36.9% in 2013.

Sometimes a decline in popularity is due to an event, or events, taking place which cause other concepts to become more popular. A good example of this is the 'Big Ballot' event organised in 2009 by the Office of the Ombudsman for Children. That year there was a swing to Democracy as the most popular concept, based on the number of students who used the 'Big Ballot' as their Action Project topic. In 2009 Democracy was the most popular concept area overall for Action Projects.

A wide range of charitable organisations and NGO's are represented in the titles recorded, for example *'Organising a Guest Speaker from Focus Ireland'* or *'Human Rights Watch- we investigate human rights abuses'*. Some titles identify the purpose of the guest speaker as a means of learning about an issue such as 'the right to freedom', or the need to find out about some issue by having a guest speaker explain it, for example, *'A Guest Speaker on Gender Inequality Globally'* or

'Finding out about homelessness - a speaker in from a homeless shelter'; 'Understanding the Traveller Community – a guest speaker from Pavee Point'.

None of the Guest Speaker '+' Action Projects recorded in this table (Table 6.5) has a fundraising dimension to them and the '+' is most likely about awareness raising, a survey, investigation or event, such as *'Our Human Rights Day – a Guest Speaker and Poster Competition'*

6.3.2.3. Raising Awareness

Some students simply entitle their Action Project with such as *'Raising Awareness About Racism'* or *'Raising Awareness about the suffering brought by the nuclear fallout to the forgotten people of Kazakbekustan'* or *'The Rights of Travellers in Ireland'*. Others have even more broad titles like *'Raising awareness about human rights abuses'*. From 2004-2013 these types of activities represent 9.3% of the Rights and Responsibilities titles coded. It could be argued however, that all Action Projects raise some level of awareness around the concept, issue or theme being explored. When 'Raising Awareness' is the only type of action presented in the title then it is not possible to say exactly what the student did specifically to achieve that end.

From 2004-2013 other types of action around the concept of Rights and Responsibilities include Surveys (4.3%), Investigations (1.8%), Campaigns (2.7%) and a small number of Designated Days (1.3%). The latter generally refer to International Human Rights Day and would typically focus on organising an event for International Human Rights Day or *'Celebrating December 10th International Human Rights Day'*, though Martin Luther King Day and International Women's Day are also mentioned occasionally in the titles presented.

Surveys around knowledge and attitudes to such issues as bullying, racism and children's rights are carried out under the concept of Rights and

Responsibilities. The most recorded campaign-type activity is around the work of Amnesty International – writing letters to prisoners on death row, fundraising, joining the Irish Junior Amnesty International Association. Almost no Student Council activity (only 0.2% in 2013), publications/booklets (only 0.2%) or election-type activities were recorded under this concept.

The type of activity undertaken in the area of Rights and Responsibilities, based on the 'Total' column in Table 6.5 are presented in the pie-chart below. From this visual representation the popularity of fundraising and guest speaker Action Projects is apparent.

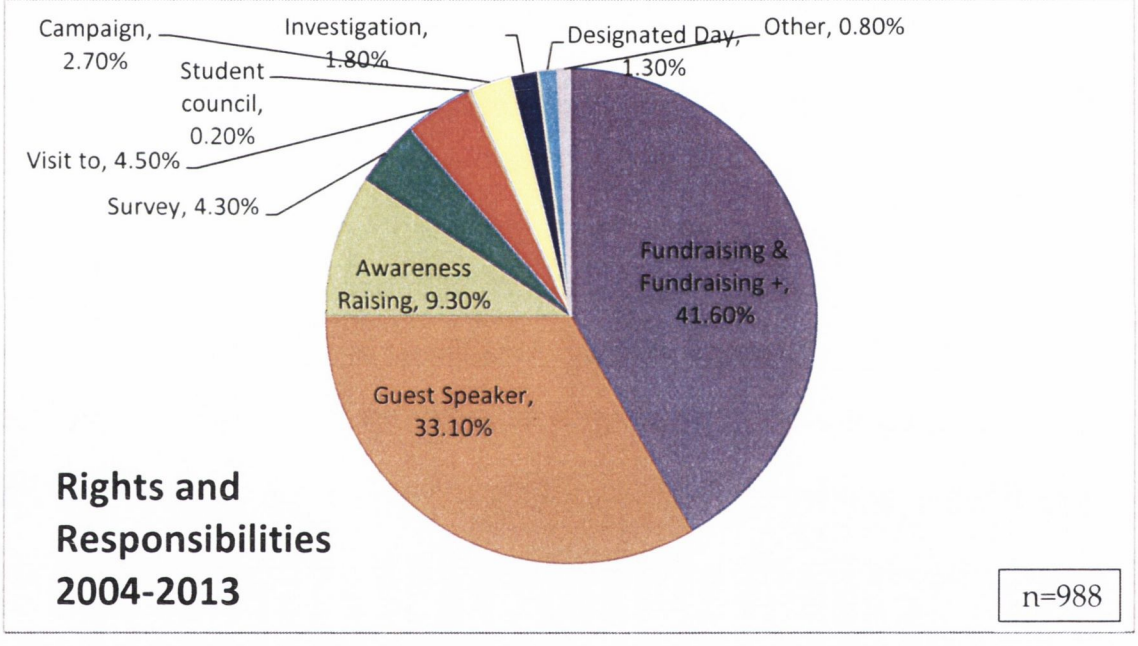


Figure 6-5: Types of Action Project Under Rights and Responsibilities 2004-2013

6.3.2.4. Commentary

Much has been written about the importance of human rights education (HRE) in schools and Bottery (2003:101) has noted the modern liberal belief of '...the concepts of rights and responsibilities as both being essential to the creation of a healthy society.' Starkey (1995) provides a rationale for including teaching about human rights on the curriculum and suggestions have been made around how this might happen in terms of classroom pedagogies and materials (Osler

& Starkey, 2000; Tunney, 2008; Amnesty, 2011). HRE in the context of participatory activities outside of the classroom is reported in the literature in terms of school ethos and local projects that might provide a vehicle for learning about citizenship and human rights. Such examples of student participation tend to focus on Student Councils, once-off case-studies of community based interventions, research projects and adult-led efforts to involve students in decision-making activities (Starkey, 1995; Davies et al., 2009; Lister et al., 2005; Ross, Munn & Brown, 2007; Pykett, 2009; Walton, [online]). Other than Ireland, the author could not find examples of curricula in any jurisdiction where students undertaking action formed part of the compulsory nature of the syllabus for *all* students - as is the case in CSPE.

Awareness of human, individual, communitarian and social rights and responsibilities is acknowledged as finding a home in citizenship education (Faulks, 2006; Dunn & Burton, 2011; QCA, 1998; Audigier, 2008). Audigier (2008:52) specifically addresses the teaching of rights to children before their majority (age 18). He says

> They (children) should...be taught about ... rights and their significance. The aim is not to train lawyers, but to produce citizens who are aware of their rights and responsibilities and are therefore able to act in society in accordance with those rights.

Howe and Covell (2010) also address the two-sided concept of rights and responsibilities and endorse the study of human rights in a context that also addresses the issue of responsibility. They argue that 'connecting rights and responsibilities is a necessary and positive exercise' (Howe & Cowell, 2010:93). In their article *'Mis-educating children about their rights'* (Howe & Cowell, 2010:92) however, they express concern about the risk that too great a focus on responsibilities could '... burden children with a sense of duty' and they call for

a '... central focus on rights and that children be given the opportunity to discover for themselves the connection between rights and responsibilities'.

This suggests that in many ways an Action Project around rights and responsibilities - be it a fundraiser, a guest speaker or some form of awareness raising activity, must attempt to find a balance between rights issues on the one hand and responsible citizenship on the other. The focus on action around human rights/children's rights in an Action Project brings the aspects of rights, responsibilities and active participation together. In theory the activity arises from the study of an aspect or issue around human rights that prompts students to take action.

Students taking action in response to a range of human rights issues are evident in the data. The Crick Report (QCA, 1998:2.12) makes the point that

> Responsibility is an essential as well as moral virtue, for it implies a) care of others b) premeditation and calculation about what effects actions are likely to have on others; and c) understanding and care for the consequences.

As CSPE is defined as a course in citizenship education based on human rights and social responsibility (Harrison, 2002; McCarthy, 2014), the popularity of Rights and Responsibility as a focus for Action Projects is not unexpected. Rights and Responsibilities as a concept is broad and provides an umbrella for many Action Projects in comparison to other concepts that have a much narrower focus. Many Action Projects around this concept are based on connections formed between students and an organisation committed to or campaigning for human rights. In this way students are forming 'new partnerships between school and other groups (community groups, youth organisations, other non-governmental organisations)'. (Jeffers, 2008:21): the data has reference to many such groups and organisations.

The popularity of the concept of Rights and Responsibilities, and the fact that many students engage in fundraising around it, suggests that fundraising is the dominant response by students to rights issues. Sometimes fundraising as an Action Project is criticised (Cusack & McSharry, 2010). It is perceived as an 'easy' task and inadequate in the experience of active citizenship that it provides. On its own, organising a fundraiser, while it may enable the development of certain skills, may limit the opportunity for students to engage in meaningful ways with social issues.

However, Lister et al. (2005) in their longitudinal study on *'Citizens in the making'* developed five models of citizenship as defined by the young people involved in their study. One of these focused on the idea of 'helping others' as being central to what citizenship is about. Similarly Faulks (2006b) notes, that in 1990s Britain, 'being charitable' was consistent with being an active citizen. Barry (2008:42) asserts that fundraising around 'the needs of developing countries and our duties towards them...are no longer a matter of charity but of simple justice.' An Action Project that focuses on a fundraiser would likely be based on learning about, and a study of, a particular human right and a desire to do something about this cause by fundraising for it. In every year of the research study a number of students reported that they engaged in another activity alongside the fundraiser (see Table 6.5), this adds a further value to the fundraising activity itself.

Crick (2002:115) wrote

> I remain concerned though that the interpretation of 'community involvement' that underpins the Citizenship curriculum will involve a conception of the community that seeks to simply as a place of neighbourhood where students are merely 'active': *'doing good'* rather than *'political good' (ie informed, effective citizens).* That is, the new curriculum will result in forms of volunteering that will fail to challenge the students to think and act "politically"...

In the light of the Action Projects titles recorded for the concept of Rights and Responsibilities, a similar concern is valid; the titles recorded in the data did not have a political dimension to them.

However, an important point of clarification at this juncture is to note that there is a real risk of establishing a hierarchy of Action Projects that was never the original intention of this element of the curriculum. In such a hierarchy, some activities such as fundraising might be perceived as being of less value than engagement with more controversial topics. Whereas the syllabus acknowledges the opportunity afforded by CSPE to allow the exploration of controversial issues - and there is a body of work that provides guidance for teachers in engaging in such issues (Carrington & Shortt, 2000; Cowan & Maitles, 2012; Brown, Ross & Munn, 2013, Oberman, 2014), none-the-less the aim of the Action Project is simply to empower students to engage in learning outside of the textbook within the 'real' world (DoE, 1998). One type of action is not 'better' than another; the learning outcomes for the student in terms of active, participatory citizenship are the focus. The objective is that student engagement should provide some understanding of the knowledge and skills required for active citizenship. The Guidelines *(1998 & 2005)* that accompany CSPE specifically suggest some of Action Projects similar, indeed identical, to those recorded in the study.

Within the context of one class period a week, studying seven core concepts in four domains of study, Action Projects can only hope to give students an introduction to the experience of participatory citizenship. In the research study almost all Action Project titles analysed in the data indicate a level of involvement that links classrooms with social, political, environmental issues. Jerome (2013) has identified the central importance of forming such connections between schools and society as critical to citizenship education and the development of young, engaged citizens.

6.3.3. Democracy

The concept of Democracy has gained in popularity over the years of the study: its lowest rating was in 2001. From 2006 onward it accounts for over 20% each year of all Action Project titles coded.

Although in 2006, 2007 and 2013 the percentage of Action Projects under Democracy was almost identical at 20.8%, 21.0% and 20.7% respectively, the types of actions undertaken were different (see Table 6.6 below). While going on a visit out of school was most popular in 2006 and 2013, in 2007 mock election and guest speaker activities were dominant.

Table 6.6: Democracy – Range of Activities 2006, 2007 and 2013

	Fund-raising	Visits	Guest Speaker	Student Council	Survey	Mock Election	Investigation
2006	2.5%	48.1%	13.6%	8.6%	4.9%	16.0%	6.2%
2007	1.4%	23.2%	30.1%	2.7%	1.4%	36.9%	4.1%
2013	1.1%	45.6%	14.2%	15.2%	2.2%	20.7%	0.0%

No Action Projects involving Campaigns, Awareness Raising or 'Other' were coded in these years. The types of activities undertaken under the concept of Democracy are listed below. The areas shaded in green (see Table 6.7 overleaf) are where Action Projects under this concept were recorded.

Table 6.7: Activities Under the Concept of Democracy (DEM) (See also Appendix K)

Democracy	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	1.4%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%	0.6%
Fundraising Plus	1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%	0.2%
Visit to	19.5 %	23.9 %	39.5 %	20.5 %	43.2 %	41.2 %	32.4 %	31.9 %	48.5 %	41.3 %	34.7
Visit to +	0.0%	1.5%	8.6%	2.7%	8.1%	3.1%	1.9%	5.6%	0.0%	4.3%	3.8%
Guest Speaker	21.8 %	22.4 %	13.6 %	27.4 %	17.1 %	17.5 %	24.8 %	16.7 %	24.2 %	12.0 %	19.5 %
Guest Speaker +	0.0%	3.0%	0.0%	2.7%	1.8%	1.0%	2.9%	5.6%	0.0%	2.2%	1.9%
Student Council action	0.0%	11.9 %	3.7%	2.7%	1.8%	8.2%	1.9%	8.3%	6.1%	10.9 %	5.3%
Student Council +	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.3%	0.9%
Survey	4.6%	0.0%	4.9%	0.0%	2.7%	5.2%	0.0%	0.0%	3.0%	1.1%	2.2%
Survey +	2.3%	4.5%	0.0%	1.4%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%	0.9%
Mock Election	44.8 %	31.3 %	14.8 %	34.2 %	21.6 %	18.6 %	33.3 %	25.0 %	18.2 %	19.6 %	26.1 %
Mock Election +	1.1%	0.0%	1.2%	2.7%	0.0%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%	0.8%
Publication	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication Plus (+)	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Investigation	1.1%	0.0%	6.2%	4.1%	0.0%	1.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%
Investigation Plus (+)	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Designated Day	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Designated Day +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
Campaign	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Campaign +	1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
Awareness Raising	0.0%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	2.1%	1.0%	2.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%
Awareness Raising +	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%
Other	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	2.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%
n =	87	67	81	73	111	97	105	72	66	92	851

It is noticeable that topical events, such as general elections, local government elections or referenda impact on the popularity of this concept, primarily impacting by way of increasing the number of students doing mock elections. Mock elections are regularly organised in CSPE classes as the focus of an Action Project at the time of a general election, for example, in May 2002 or 2007. These are represented in the Action Project titles in the year they occur and to a lesser degree in the subsequent two years (because the Junior cycle has a 3 year time-span and Action Projects occur at any time during this cycle). Interestingly the data reveals that a small number of students sometimes use a mock election activity combined with the procedures associated with Proportional Representation while the focus of the election is apolitical – and the titles recorded in the data include *'A mock election using PR to decide who will win X Factor this year'* or *'Our Class Election to democratically elect the most popular football team in the League'*.

In the first year of the collation and examination of type-of-action study (2004), the mock election-type of activity peaked. Of all Action Projects based on Democracy, 45.9% were based on a mock election alone or with another activity. After 2004 its popularity waned and it dropped to a low of 16% in 2006. Notwithstanding the overall uptake for Democracy as the basis for Action Projects rose to 20.4% that year. In the years 2004, 2006, 2007, 2009 and 2013 some of mock election titles indicate that students had also been involved in an additional activity. Such additional activities most commonly include such as meetings with election candidates and politicians, or travel to Leinster House to meet with political figures there. Democratic issues relating to Europe are coded under the concept of Interdependence.

Some mock elections reported in the data centred on a CSPE class organising the election of a class representative to the Student Council by means of an in-house election. 2004 was the year where the largest number of such activities

was recorded (11.9%); in other years very few such activities are represented. There were no Student Council Action Projects presented in the titles coded for 2004.

6.3.3.1. Visits Outside of School

There are three dominant activities in the data namely visits out of school, guest speakers into the school and mock elections. Of these the most popular types of Action Project are visits to the Dáil, local Council offices or to army barracks; they account for 37.5% of Action Projects when visits and visits '+' are taken into account. The only fundraising '+' Action Projects recorded (in 2004 and 2013), were fundraisers to get money to organise a trip to Leinster House.

In all years, except 2004 and 2012, visits plus another activity have been recorded, while 2012 itself has the highest number of visits recorded overall. In all other years there are titles presented where students have indicated that alongside their visits they have done other things, most notably in 2006 and 2008, where over 8% of all Action Projects involved a visit plus another activity. These most commonly include *'A trip to the centre of Irish government and an opportunity to interview a politician'* or *'Raising awareness about politics in Ireland and trip to Dáil Éireann', 'Afternoon tea in the Local Council Offices, meeting our representative'.*

6.3.3.2. The Guest Speaker

In the context of exploring the concept of Democracy many students have focussed on inviting in a guest speaker with some political experience to the school. Titles often indicate that the purpose was to find out about the life of a politician, about some political issue or about political practice for example, *'Enda Kenny Visits Our Class to explain the work of the Taoiseach'; 'Local Counsellor answers questions about how the money is spent; 'A Returning Officer invited to*

explain elections to our CSPE class'; 'School traffic – a TD comes to the school to hear our point of view'.

Action Projects that involved a guest speaker, or a guest speaker with another activity, were most popular in 2007 at 30.1%: this may be because there was a general election in May of that year. Guest speakers typically include politicians from all of the political parties, both local and national, who accept invitations from students to speak with, or be interviewed by, them. Also included here are visits from members of the defence forces, though these are less common than those from political figures.

6.3.3.3. Other Activities

Sometimes students administer questionnaires or undertake surveys around the concept of Democracy, which generally focus on accessing information about the knowledge of a target group around democratic personalities and processes: typically a CSPE class would survey the Sixth Year or Transition year students to establish their level of political knowledge or attitudes to politics in general. In 2004 this type of action reached a high of 6.9%, in 2009 it was 5.2% but it is less than 5% of the total in all other years.

Sometimes students present this type of activity as an *'Investigation into...'* and it has been coded as such. No record of students carrying out an investigation plus another activity was found. Similarly the figures presented under Designated Day/Designated Day '+', Campaign/Campaign '+' and Awareness Raising/ Awareness Raising '+' represent only small numbers of students whose Action Projects fall under these categories. The 'Other' Action Projects includes *'Democratic Classroom Activity'; 'Democracy in action'; 'Ready, Steady, Vote'; 'Learning the Democratic Way'*. In 2010 and 2011 there were no recorded Action Project based on survey-type activity.

Action Projects that focus on Democracy, which account for about 25% of all Action Projects, are largely based on these three activities, with the dominance of one type over another varying from year to year (Mock Election, Visit or Guest Speaker). When the overall types of Action Project under Democracy is examined and illustrated, then the dominance of the guest speaker, visit out of school and mock election is evident (see Fig 6.6).

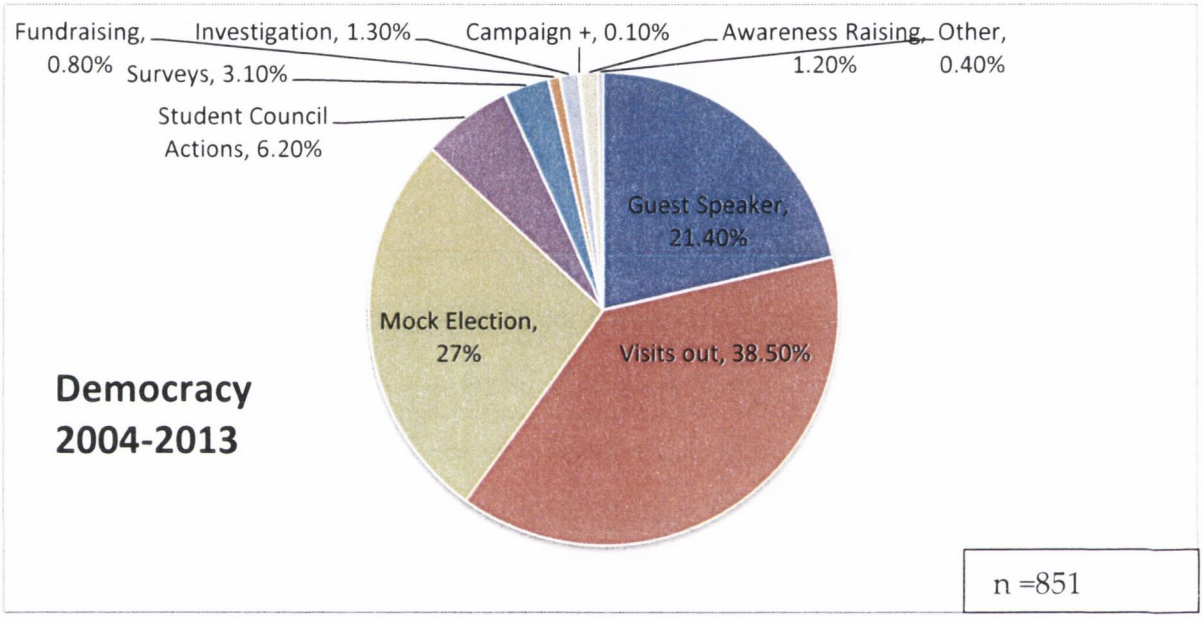


Figure 6-6: Types of Action Projects Under the Concept of Democracy

Some types of action are so infrequently chosen that they barely register on the pie-chart above while the visual representation highlights the popular types of action around this concept.

6.3.3.4. Commentary

The current model of citizenship education focuses on active citizenship and emphasises the participatory nature of citizenship, most commonly framed within the context of liberal democracy and democratic engagement (Heater 1990; Held 1993; DoE, 1996; QCA, 1998; Gilchrist, 1999; Lawton, 2000; Crick, 2000a; Kerr, 2000; Osler & Starkey, 2005; Kiwan 2007). Bennett (2003) posits that modern young citizens take different, more individual paths to political identity within a democracy including local volunteerism, consumer activism, support

for issues and causes (environment, human rights), participation in various transnational protests, and efforts to form a global civil society by organising world and regional social fora.

A range of such activity is to be found in the Action Project titles in the data which appears to suggest a contribution to the formation of such an identity. Efforts to engage young people in the political democratic process in Ireland are the focus of CSPE, in particular in the modelling of the democratic electoral process.

To this end visiting the Dáil, interviewing politicians and holding mock elections are the dominant activities used in Action Projects around this concept. These are somewhat ready-made activities; the Dáil has a facility for visitors to come and see it in operation; the Houses of the Oireachtas have made deliberate efforts to exploit the opportunity that CSPE affords to educate citizens in the understanding and practices of democratic government. They have produced education packs targeted at CSPE, and in 2008 appointed an Education Officer to travel around the country, meeting CSPE students in their schools and/or arranging with them to visit the Dáil for a day. Similarly politicians are often delighted with the opportunity to speak to tomorrow's electorate by speaking in schools. Such structured activities have an attraction, perhaps more for teachers than students in that they provide a ready-made conduit to action. However such visits require organising and in this process there is valuable learning available, at both skills and knowledge level.

The mock election type activity also has a formula to it as it mirrors the real –life process of voting: it has a very structured nature around polling cards, ballot boxes, register of electors, candidates, quotas, counts and results, these would suit the division of labour needed for a whole-class action around a single topic. In addition, the type of information learned by doing such Action Projects lends

itself to the completion of the Action Project Report for CSPE assessment and may account for the trend in the growth of Action Projects within this concept. It is arguable that hard facts are easy to identify in action around democracy and to write-up for assessment. The mock election project is also presented as an exemplar in the *Guidelines* (DoE, 1998).

Other ways in which citizens can interact in a democracy are considerably less evident in the data with little evidence of students lobbying politicians or taking on the role of activist.

Concern around the level of engagement of young people in society and their status as democratic citizens within that society has led to disquiet among politicians, educationalists and researchers alike around the world (Zandonella, 2013; Cosgrove et al., 2011, Dunn & Burton, 2011; Davies et al., 2009; Torres, 1998; Kerr, 2005; Torney-Purta et al., 2003; Blunkett, 1998;). Murphy (2006:207) notes that 'Our current students ought to be provided with learning experiences that will encourage them to become the next generation's architects of the democratic project for society...'. The data reveals that many students are learning, engaging and acquiring skills and knowledge useful for participation in democratic citizenship. such evidence is in titles *'Raising Awareness of the Children's Rights Referendum'; 'Mock Presidential Election', Welcome to our school Mr Mayor', 'A Class Trip to the Dáil'; 'How to hold an Election'.*

Indeed citizenship education itself is one of the responses to the perceived disaffection of the young. It arises from the belief that citizenship education

> is vital to revive and sustain an active democratic society in the new century...We must provide opportunities for all our young people to develop an understanding of what democracy means...and encourage them to take an active part. (Blunkett, 1998, cited in O'Hare & Gay, 2006:12)

Most of the Action Projects around the concept of Democracy focus on students engaging with sources of political knowledge around political institutions and practices - which Huddleston and Kerr (2006) assert are important factors in empowering citizens to act within a democracy. Developing political literacy is a key aspect of citizenship education (Torres, 1998; Huddleston & Kerr 2006; Hursh 2010) and doing an Action Project around the concept of Democracy is one way of acquiring the language of politics, learning the essential knowledge about key personnel and institutions, and perhaps acquiring a better understanding of political processes. Action Projects where students engage in mock elections, as found in the data, are predicated on acquiring a key skill in a democracy – learning how to vote.

Of itself developing political literacy is a key aspect of citizenship education but learning about democracy does not imply the ability to engage with democratic institutions and process; developing critical thinking skills and the disposition to act are also key elements of preparation for participation in a democracy and better learned in the doing. It is beyond the scope of the present study to say what level of critical thinking informed the actions evident in the data.

Faulks (2006a) makes the point that education for democratic citizenship focuses much on producing obedient citizens and less on the democratic rights of citizens to protest, to speak out against, to lobby and be what Sparks (1997) calls 'dissident citizens'. McEvoy (2007:149) too warns of the danger of a citizenship education that procures 'compliant rather than critical citizens'.

Cusack & McSharry (2010) attempted to identify 'radical Action Projects' in a small scale research project but could only find a few instances where Irish students undertook Action Projects that exemplified action outside of the mundane and 'safe' activities of the guest speaker, visits out etc. They identified a group of CSPE students who had protested against the war in Iraq, another

focussed on the sale of fire-arms on the internet. However, although students demonstrated great interest in these activities, the Action Projects were all teacher led.

The data suggests that the possibility of students doing Action Projects that encourage compliance, that focus on safe and simple action leading to conventional thinking is real. Few actions recorded are indicative of young citizens exerting the democratic right to protest or take up activist positions in relation to issues such as rascism or discrimination – although these are mostly evident in Action Projects under the concept of Rights and Responsibility. A few Action Projects each year focus on what is usually a local issue, like roads, traffic, masts, wind-farms and students get involved in a campaign around this, but the majority of Action Projects are more conservative. It is accepted that learning for democracy involves more than the acquisition of knowledge and more than undertaking a single activity based on a visit to the seat of government or a visit from a TD. The development of *Cómhairle na nÓg* (Local democracy forum for children) and the Dáil na nÓg (Children's model Dáil) have raised political awareness among some young people but none of these activities were evidenced in the data.

The range of Action Projects analysed in the data indicates that there is a predominance of activities around accessing knowledge and understanding of the political system. Hursh (2010) identifies education as the means to sustain a coherent democratic society by preparing students with the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes and competencies to challenge and overcome a market-driven, consumer society. Annette (2009:151) refers to the concept of the 'politics of everyday life' which encompasses more than the formal politics of the political party and the ballot box. He stresses the importance of extending the understanding of the political within our concept of citizenship education. The fact that students undertake an action as a means of developing their

understanding makes learning about democracy in CSPE thicker than the passive acquisition of knowledge.

Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) is acknowledged as an important element of citizenship education but the focus tends to be on how to make schools more democratic by involving students in real ways in the institution itself. Gannon (2008:137) notes that in Ireland the development of student councils '...offer students the opportunity to foster democracy and participation among their students...'. Davies (1999) notes also that school councils provide a means for students to engage in a democratic structure that involves them in real decision making in the life of the school. School Councils enable the development of communication skills, encourage creative thinking and positive behaviour, the development of social relationships and a sense of belonging (Taylor, 2002). In the research 6.2% of students in total (2004-2013) used the Student Council as the vehicle for exploring democracy: 15.2% of all Action Projects on Democracy in 2013 were based on Student Council activity and most of those were about *'Organising our Student Council Elections'; An Experience of Canvassing and Voting in the Student Council Election; 'Electing our Student Leaders'*. This type of Action Project offers students the chance to learn how voting works in a democracy; it could facilitate a better understanding of democracy itself and empower students while supporting the school community. The rise of such activity is to be welcomed. However Biesta et al. (2009:8) point out that interventions focussing on democracy in schools are only 'a small part of the whole environment in and from which young people learn and through which they form their civic dispositions and identities'.

While it might be heartening to see young people engage in political lobbying or protest, there is also validity and value in Action Projects where young students, aged around 12 to 15 years of age are interviewing a politician or a visiting Dáil Éireann - especially if the result is enhanced political awareness,

knowledge and a better understanding which some Action Project titles suggest is where the focus is, *'Learning about politics from our local TD;' ' Finding out about the seat of Irish government'; 'Our Vote on the Abolition of the Seanad – Do we need it?'; 'Our survey on giving under 16s the right to vote'*

Niens and McIlrath (2010) make the point that if young people are to engage around issues that concern them, then they need awareness of how political structures in a democracy work. The danger arises for students when the activity in their Action Project is carried out as an algorithm to 'tick the Action Project box'; in such a case learning about what it means to participate in a democracy is reduced to a formula, primarily designed to complete the pro-forma Report on an Action Project booklet for assessment in the State exams.

6.3.4. Law

The concept of Law has shown a steady increase in popularity from the beginning of the study in 2001. Starting out at just 9.5% in 2001 it increased in popularity and peaked in 2009 at 20.4% before falling back to 17.5% in 2013. This concept has doubled in popularity as the basis for Action Projects from its initial low ranking.

Typically students who present Action Projects in this area focus on visiting local or national courts (most commonly the Four Courts or local courts) or they undertake visits to prisons. The most popular prison visits recorded are to Mountjoy Prison in Dublin, to Portlaoise/Midlands Prison and to Castlereagh Prison in Co. Roscommon. Each year such visits are a very popular type of action undertaken around this concept with 38.7% recorded in 2004, rising to a high of 62.5% in 2006 and sustaining a level around 30%-45%. In the overall total of Action Projects from 2004-2013, 44.5% of projects are based on visits to places concerned with matters of the law.

Having guest speakers come to a school is also a popular form of activity around this concept. These usually involve professionals concerned with the law - barristers, solicitors and prison governors visiting classrooms - and most popular of all, visits from the Gardaí and Junior Liaison Officers: titles include *'A Question and Answer Session with a High Court Judge,' 'The Law in Ireland, a Garda Visit','* or *'Crime among youths in my county – a guest speaker'.*

From the table below, when visits and visits '+'are combined with guest speakers and guest speakers '+' a total of 87.6% of all types of Action Projects under the concept of law are accounted for.

Table 6.8: Activities Under the Concept of Law (L)

Law	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%
Fundraising+	0.0%	0.0%	1.8%	0.0%	1.3%	3.0%	0.0%	3.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%
Visit to	36.4 %	39.1 %	57.1 %	43.4 %	50.0 %	25.8 %	35.2 %	30.3 %	42.3 %	41.8 %	40.2%
Visit to +	2.3%	6.5%	5.4%	3.9%	1.3%	16.7 %	2.8%	1.5%	3.8%	0.0%	4.3%
Guest Speaker	47.7 %	28.3 %	26.8 %	35.5 %	33.3 %	39.4 %	35.2 %	42.4 %	51.9 %	43.3 %	38.1%
Guest Speaker +	0.0%	4.3%	8.9%	6.6%	5.1%	4.5%	7.0%	1.5%	0.0%	9.0%	5.0%
Student Council	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Student Council +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Survey	4.5%	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	3.8%	4.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%
Survey +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.0%	0.0%	6.0%	1.0%
Mock Election	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Mock Election +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.9%	0.0%	0.5%
Publication+	0.0%	2.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%
Investigation	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	7.0%	6.1%	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%
Investigation +	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.5%	1.4%	3.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%
Designated Day	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%
Designated Day +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Campaign	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%
Campaign +	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%
Awareness Raising	6.8%	2.2%	0.0%	1.3%	0.0%	4.5%	8.5%	6.1%	0.0%	0.0%	2.9%
Awareness Raising +	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	3.9%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%
Other	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%
n =	44	46	56	76	78	66	71	66	52	67	622

See raw data in Appendix K.

Other than these two forms of activity, a small percentage of students were also involved in Surveys, Publications, Investigations, Awareness Raising, Designated Day and Fundraising around this concept. The percentages here are low and represent a small number of students in each case; over the ten years 2004-2013, the figures are Surveys 16 (2.6%) students, Publications 4 (0.7%) students, Investigations 19 (3.1%) students, Awareness Raising 23 (3.7%)

students, Designated Day 2 (0.3%) students and Fundraising 2 (0.3%) students in total.

Surveys based on this concept tend to focus on knowledge or attitudes around the law. In 2005 a number of Action Projects centred around the law banning smoking in public places such as *'A survey into the impact of the smoking ban on society'*. Another type of survey represented tries to establish practices such as *'A survey to see if people wear seatbelts or use mobile phones when driving'*; others focus on local issues such as *'A Survey and Guest Speaker on The Impact of Vandalism on our Learning Environment.'*

Publications represented here are a video produced *'...to teach about Arbitrary Arrest'* and a leaflet about road safety. Typical investigations referred to concern *'An Investigation into Prison Life'* and *'An Investigation into the Irish Legal System'*; one of the publications '+' was around *'The Irish Court System and the Role played by the Garda Síochána in upholding the law- a Publication'*. The Designated Day in 2008 refers to an Action Project on *'Road Safety Awareness Day'*.

Once again some students use 'raising awareness' around some issue to describe the type of Action Project they have done, for example, *'Raising awareness about road safety by teaching class in a local Primary School'* or *'Raising Awareness of the Law in our Land'*, these are coded under 'Awareness Raising'.

The diagram below illustrates the dominance again of two popular approaches to action by students who chose to do their Action Project around the core concept of Law on the CSPE Syllabus.

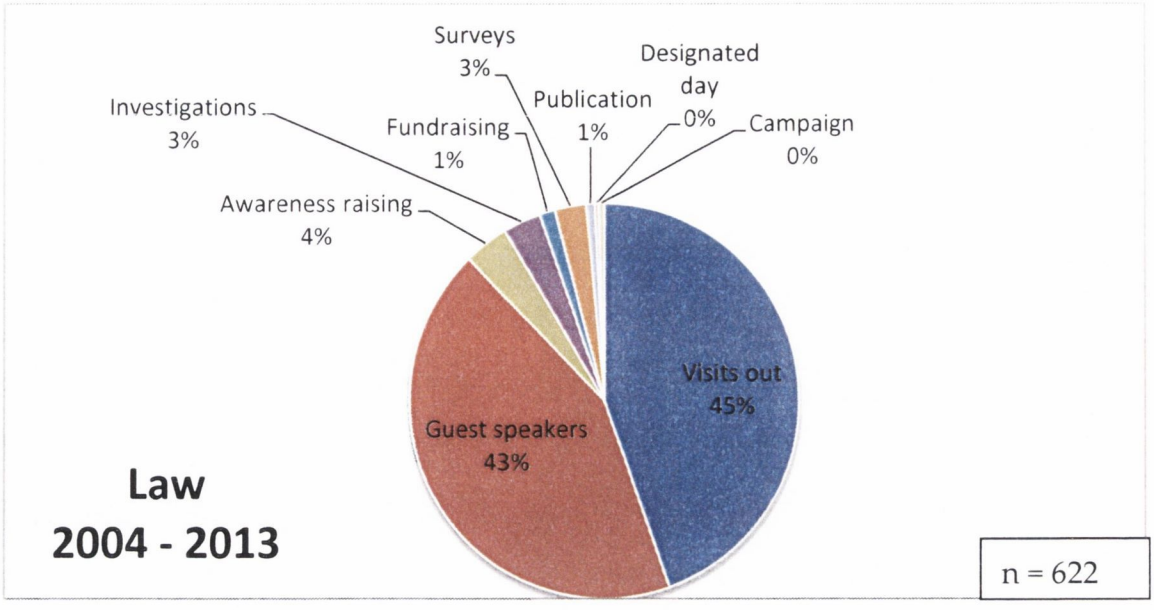


Figure 6-7: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Law, 2004-2013.

6.3.4.1. Commentary

Audigier (2008:41) posits that the first right of the citizen is that of establishing the law; the first duty is that of respecting the law…'. Fredericks (2006:8) notes that 'Law is all over. Law is everywhere. Law is an enduring presence in our lives…' and he claims that in many citizenship classes it is taught '…as not only something 'good' in itself, it is the principal means of ensuring that people can enjoy all the good things in life…(it) makes freedom possible, along with the choices and rights associated with living in a free society.' Similarly Apple (1996:17) notes the importance of the development of awareness of, and respect for, authority as a means socialisation of children and securing 'the stability and durability of the structures of authority in industrial societies.'

While in the data the concept of law is the basis numerically of many Action Projects in the data (15.7% overall), the range of activities undertaken around it is quite limited. The dominance of visits out of school to prisons and courthouses and the preponderance of guest speakers addressing aspects of the law account for almost all Action Project experiences. It is arguable that once again (similar to Democracy) both of these types of activity are safe and

structured. Students engaging in them could find writing up their work for assessment purpose reasonably straightforward. The range of tasks available to students, the type of information likely to be learned and the issues that arise around this concept would feed into the format of the Report on an Action Project assessment booklet where structured, factual information is sought.

Although some Action Projects focus on aspects of the law and young people, the breadth of topics available around law in a democracy, the making of laws, or laws that deal with consumers, families/children, welfare law, labour law and all aspects of daily living are not explored in any great numbers.

Audigier (2008:41) identifies law as 'the framework within which the freedom of each citizen is exercised' and it cannot be denied that learning about the laws that bind a society together, developing an understanding of the importance of laws in a democracy and the institutions that administer the law is critical to development of informed citizens. The law impacts the lives of all citizens and it is right that young citizens are given the opportunity to explore it. However, with 88% of Action Projects around this concept focussing on visits out, or visitors into schools, it suggests that the experience of action around this concept has been very limited. Perhaps too, knowledge around the law itself and the workings of the law is deficient amongst teachers and has not formed part of their own education and training. Action Projects that see students interact with An Garda Síochána, see them engage with what Audigier (2008:36) calls a key 'public service, a service for the citizens and all people'. Such dialogue between young people and the Gardaí has real value in a democracy.

Again it is important to recognise that the aim of the Action Project within CSPE is to enable participation and active engagement by young citizens in society and this aim is fulfilled by the types of actions presented here. The

context for learning, i.e. the concept of law, is less significant than the opportunity for engagement and learning that it provides for students.

Biesta, Lawy and Kelly (2009) note that '...young people learn from the opportunities for action, participation and reflection that are afforded by the practices and communities in their everyday lives.' It is true that the exploration of the law in the lives of the students presented in the data on Action Projects has a very narrow focus. Many legal controversies of our times - the right to life, laws to control weapons of mass destruction, insolvency laws, the supremacy of European law over Irish law, laws concerning the use of the internet, privacy laws and the like - are not being presented by students as the focus of their Action Projects around the concept of law.

Does this matter? On the one hand, the intention in the CSPE curriculum for undertaking Action Projects can be met in many ways and valid engagement with society is what matters. Furthermore if a topic is not the subject of an Action Project, this does not mean it has been overlooked in class or that it has been ignored. On the other hand Apple (1996:17) would contend that '...schools distort the functions of social conflict in collectives...'. No Action Projects in the data were concerned with controversial issues in the law and few addressed the law in relation to young people (some explored underage drinking). This is regrettable, but not a failure in terms of the syllabus. By taking particular, and perhaps safe, perspectives, ones that may be more exam-focussed than life-focussed, schools endorse the existing social order and opportunities are missed to address the controversial, the conflicted the contested issues in society.

6.3.5. Stewardship

The final concept of the four dominant concepts is the concept of Stewardship. With its emphasis on environmental awareness and responsibility, including

the rights of animals, it has sustained the interest of students over the past thirteen years. It started out in 2001 as the second most popular concept (24.1%) but has lost some popularity since then. It hit its lowest rating of 15.3% in 2006, but otherwise has remained between 15% and 20% over the years since 2001 (see Table 6.1).

Stewardship is a topic which covers a range of Action Projects from all types of anti-litter to tidy-town programmes, to the restoration of green areas or areas within schools, recycling campaigns, surveys on environmental awareness and a selection of Action Projects around animal rights and welfare (see 6.9 below).

Table 6.9: Activities Under the Concept of Stewardship (S). (See also Appendix K)

Stewardship	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	9.4%	5.9%	7.9%	6.1%	3.3%	10.1 %	6.9%	9.9%	12.2 %	11.5 %	8.6%
Fundraising Plus	1.9%	7.8%	7.9%	6.1%	6.7%	6.7%	6.9%	19.7 %	1.2%	14.1 %	8.0%
Visit to	5.7%	7.8%	5.3%	20.7 %	30.0 %	11.2 %	31.0 %	4.2%	22.0 %	23.1 %	16.8 %
Visit to +	3.8%	11.8 %	7.9%	6.1%	5.0%	7.9%	5.2%	1.4%	3.7%	7.7%	5.9%
Guest Speaker	24.5 %	9.8%	23.7 %	12.2 %	25.0 %	18.0 %	19.0 %	23.9 %	20.7 %	7.7%	18.0 %
Guest Speaker +	1.9%	0.0%	5.3%	0.0%	5.0%	1.1%	0.0%	8.5%	3.7%	7.7%	3.3%
Student Council	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	0.2%
Student Council +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Survey	1.9%	3.9%	10.5 %	4.9%	10.0 %	9.0%	3.4%	2.8%	3.7%	0.0%	4.8%
Survey +	1.9%	2.0%	0.0%	1.2%	0.0%	15.7 %	1.7%	8.5%	0.0%	2.6%	3.9%
Mock Election	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Mock Election +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication+	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%
Investigation	3.8%	5.9%	5.3%	2.4%	1.7%	3.4%	3.4%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	2.4%
Investigation +	0.0%	3.9%	0.0%	3.7%	0.0%	2.2%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	1.2%
Designated Day	7.5%	0.0%	0.0%	1.2%	0.0%	4.5%	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	0.0%	2.0%
Designated Day +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.6%	0.0%	7.0%	3.7%	0.0%	2.0%
Campaign	24.5 %	7.8%	18.4 %	7.3%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	7.7%	5.6%
Campaign +	0.0%	2.0%	2.6%	0.0%	1.7%	2.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%
Awareness Raising	5.7%	9.8%	0.0%	15.9 %	10.0 %	2.2%	0.0%	4.2%	18.3 %	14.1 %	8.8%
Awareness Raising +	0.0%	11.8 %	0.0%	8.5%	0.0%	0.0%	20.7 %	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	3.9%
Other	7.5%	7.8%	5.3%	3.7%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	7.0%	6.1%	0.0%	3.6%
n =	53	51	38	82	60	89	58	71	82	78	662

Fundraising and fundraising plus another activity around this concept range from a low of 11.3% in 2004 (Year 1) to a high of 29.6% in 2011. Such fundraising is most commonly focussed on supporting animal welfare by making collecting

money to donate to animal shelters, donkey and seal sanctuaries and a number of societies whose focus is the prevention of cruelty to animals: those of Dublin, (the DSPCA) and Kildare, (the KSPCA), have the highest profile in the data.

Action Projects around Stewardship also include action where students go to the zoo to explore such issues as threats to animal extinction or ethical issues around keeping animals in captivity. Such Action Projects have titles like *'Environmental Awareness – A Trip to the Zoo'*, *'Saving the Rhino and a Trip to the Zoo'*, or *'Our Conservation Project – a visit to the Zoo'*. Other visits focus on sustainable energy sites, wind-farms, the *Sonairte* ecological awareness and sustainable living centre in Bettystown, recycling centres, dumps/landfills, conservation projects, farms and bogs.

Similarly many guest speakers to schools also have a focus on animal welfare or sustainable living. In 2004, 2006, 2008 and 2011 guest speakers account for at least a quarter of all Action Projects in this concept area (26.4%, 29%, 30% and 32.4% respectively). Other guest speakers to schools include members of Tidy Towns committees, the local Litter Warden, Environmental Awareness Officers and people to give advice on waste management including how to manage this task (recycling and composting) in a school.

The most common Designated Day type of activity was around anti-litter activities in a school or a local area. Clean-ups of rivers, beaches, hedgerows, school grounds, church grounds and gardens are sometimes recorded as Designated Days or as Campaigns. The Green Schools Programme attracts only a small number of Action Projects perhaps because of its long-term focus. The *An Taisce Spring Clean* and more recently the *Power of One Campaign* are two other official campaigns occasionally noted in Action Project titles.

A number of students presented Action Projects under the heading of 'Raising Awareness'. In 2005, 2007 and 2010 this amounted to at least 20% of the Action

Projects submitted in these years. Students claimed in their titles that they had taken action to raise awareness around such as global warming, energy usage/waste, pollution, recycling habits, litter and animal rights and welfare. The development of a *'Stewardship Mural'* is another raising awareness type of activity reported – though not frequently.

8.7% of Action Projects are based on surveys/questionnaires; typically exploring such topics as *'How Green is my home?'* or locally getting involved in topics such as *'The Kilconnell Super Dump Controversy in Co Galway – A Local Survey Reveals the Truth', 'Do you want a wind-farm in your backyard?'.* A number of students also attempt to identify attitudes to environmental responsibility by administering questionnaires as a means to access information such as *'Survey on attitudes to litter in my area'* or *'Recycling is Important – a Survey'* or *'No more plastic bags please – do you think before you shop? Survey'*

Every year a number of students undertake actions like planting trees or bulbs or restoring gardens and flower-beds and these are coded under 'Other' along with such actions as *'Our Play About the Environment'* or *'Writing Letters to save the Environment'.* Over the years of the study these types of action account for 3.6% of all Action Projects undertaken under the concept of Stewardship.

The figure below presents data from 2004-2013 on the types of Action Project that students undertook under this concept. While no Student Council Action or Mock Elections were recorded, and are therefore not represented, all other types of activity are evident - with the most common type of activity centring on Visits, Guest Speakers, Fundraising and Raising Awareness.

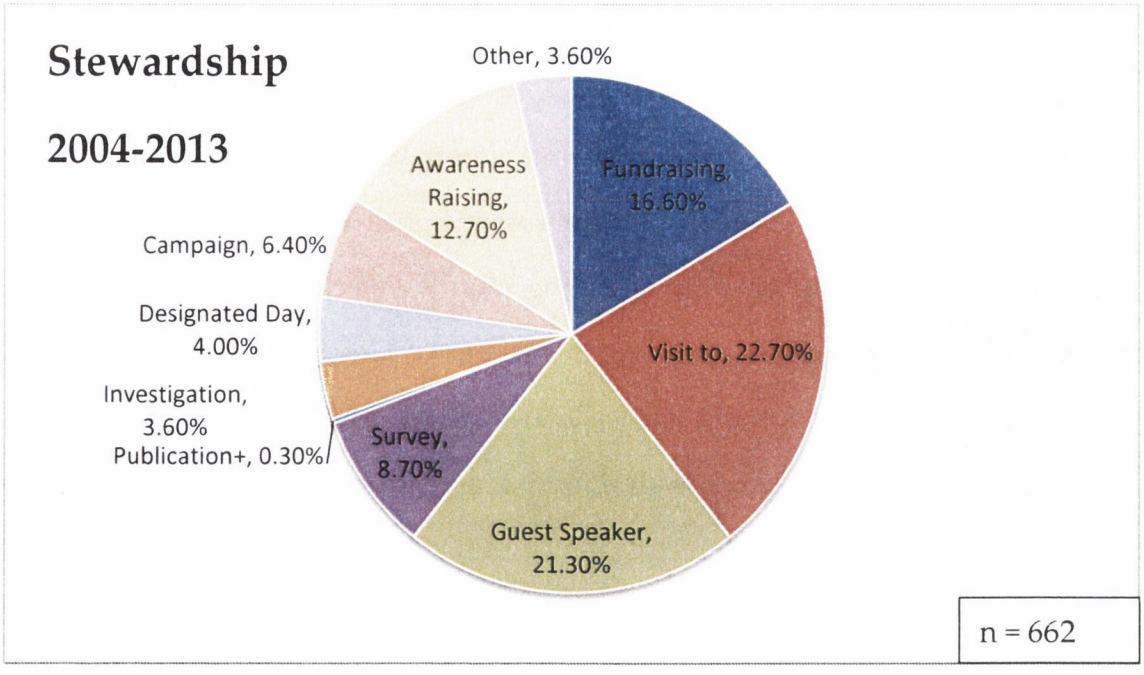


Figure 6-8: Types of Action Projects Under the Concept of Stewardship, 2004-2013

6.3.5.1. Commentary

The concept of Stewardship offers a wide range of possible Action Projects for students and it is one where there is great variety of action evident in the data. The interest in animal welfare and animal rights is not particularly surprising given the affinity with, and interest that many young people have in, animals. Responsibility for the planet - 'with constructive management of its finite resources' - is a focus of CSPE (DoE: 1996:17).

As early as 1994 van Steenbergen explicitly identified the importance and existence of 'ecological or environmental citizenship' (142). Christoff (1996) identified the responsibility that the ecological citizen has towards both animals and the future generations of humanity. The challenges facing the citizen of the 21st century include amongst them the challenge of environmental responsibility based on an awareness of the threats facing the planet and how sustainable, responsible living and planning are part of the social responsibilities of the conscientious citizen (Lynch, 1992; Christoff, 1996; Dobson 2003; Bell, 2004; Huckle, 2008; Gabrielson, 2008; Harris, 2014). Within

the republican tradition of citizenship the duties and obligations of the citizen towards supporting the common good are emphasised; stewardship teaches that the natural environment and the common good are dependent on responsible active citizenship within communities (Curry, 2000). The data suggests that young people are engaging with the environmental issues of the day and this is a positive thing. As the Power of One Campaign (SEAI, 2006) asserts responsibility for the environment comes down to the actions of the individual citizen. Education is identified as a 'primary agent of transformation towards sustainable development' (Huckle, 2008:12) with an eco-pedagogy that aims to develop citizens who are critically aware of the relationship between citizenship and the ways in which there is a symbiotic relationship between society and nature (see also Gough & Scott, 2006; UNESCO, 2001). Taking action in this area should offer students insights that go beyond awareness into empowerment to act, albeit at a level which some may deem superficial. However the general message for the eco-citizen is that it is the small steps that matter (SEAI, 2006).

In educational terms the focus in the literature is on processes and structures around sustainable versus unsustainable practice, and the environment as a political issue. Raising student awareness is founded on practices such as the 3Rs (Reduce, Reuse, Recycle), with students as environmentally aware consumers having an understanding of the sustainable alternatives that reduce a person's eco-footprint. (Huckle, 2008; SDELG, 2005; Dobson, 2003). Green schools, green citizens and green citizenship, green politics with green alternatives are presented in the literature as the outcomes of eco-education - sometimes as a rights issue (the right to clean air/water etc) or as a responsibility for the citizen in stewardship terms (Dobson 2003; Bell, 2004; Smith, 2005; Huckle, 2008; Gabrielson, 2008; Hungerford, 2009; Pykett, 2010). The data suggests that students are addressing these issues with titles such as

'Waste minimisation in our town'; 'Our Campaign on Water Usage'; 'Saving the Honey bee- what can YOU do?'; 'Chew-it bin-it awareness campaign'.

In her study of the concerns of 425 11year old pupils in the south of England, Holden (2006) found that after 'peace and the absence of war', children cited their hopes for the future of the world in terms of environmental issues '...less pollution, caring for animals, more recycling and an end to global warming...' – very similar to the topics that are the focus of Action Projects around the concept of Stewardship in the data.

It is interesting that of all the concepts explored in this research study, stewardship features the largest number of campaigns, and awareness raising activities to promote positive attitudes to the environment and sustainable living. While as mentioned, there is a tendency to see some activities around this concept as simplistic, or easy, in comparison to all other concepts, yet it offers citizens of the future valuable learning in terms of active, responsible citizenship.

6.4. The Back Markers

The four concepts explored above, i.e. Rights and Responsibilities, Democracy, Stewardship and Law account for most of the Action Projects title analysed in the data over the thirteen years of the longitudinal study. Together they account for 79.8% of all titles.

The remaining titles are the back-markers, whose share of the total number of Action Project titles recorded remained consistently low over the period of the study. These include three core concepts: Human Dignity, Development and Interdependence. The analysis and breakdown of the concepts is presented in the table below.

Table 6.10: 2001-2013 Total Number of Action Project Titles Recorded

Concept Titles	TOTALS 2001 – 2013 (%)	TOTALS 2001- 2013
Rights and Responsibilities	25.0%	10,147
Democracy	20.6%	8349
Stewardship	18.5%	7501
Law	15.7%	6376
SUB-TOTAL	**79.8%**	**32,373**
Human Dignity	8.4%	3409
Interdependence	4.8%	1954
Development	4.1%	1665
Community	1.9%	754
Substance Abuse	0.8%	307
Outside of Syllabus	0.2%	103
SUB-TOTAL	**20.2%**	**8192**
TOTAL 2001-2013	100%	**40,565**

These figures outline the most and the least popular concept areas but taken in isolation they could lead to a distorted view of the concepts overall. The figures are cumulative totals and so for example, Community at 2.1% does not reflect the fact that most of the Action Projects that contribute to that figure are based on the early years of the study and that this concept has declined in popularity consistently by the end of the study (see tables 6.1 & 6.3 for annual figures).

The band of five concepts (blue shading) in the middle of the above table represents 20% of all Action Project titles reviewed. The findings from each of these five concepts are presented below.

6.4.1. Human Dignity

The concept of Human Dignity, which encompasses Action Projects that explore issues such as poverty, health care and issues around disability awareness, has attracted more and more interest over the years of the study peaking in the final year (2013) at 11.4% (see table 6.1); it was at its lowest

(3.5%), in the first year of the study. In 2004, following the Special Olympics in Ireland in 2003, the rise to 10.3% for Action Projects in the area of Human Dignity can be accounted for by the many ways in which students and schools engaged with this event.

Below is a breakdown of the type of activity that students engaged in while exploring the concept of Human Dignity (Table 6.10). The statistics presented are based on a grand total of 319 titles out of a possible 4,000. Fundraising and Fundraising '+' dominate and over the ten year period of the study with fundraising activities accounting for 39.8% of all the data coded under this concept, with the guest speaker activity accounting for a further 26.6%: when these are combined then 66.4% of all Action Projects are accounted for. Typical organisations mentioned here are St Vincent de Paul, Goal, Enable Ireland and St. Michael's House.

In 2011 fundraising activities reached a peak of 62.5%, more than half of all the Action Projects recorded under this concept. There was a noticeable rise in the number of Action Projects around fundraising for cancer research, illnesses and special needs causes over the years.

The coloured areas shaded in table below indicated the areas where Action Projects occurred from 2004-2013.

Table 6.11: Activities Under the Concept of Human Dignity (HD)

Human Dignity	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	35.7 %	22.5 %	43.2 %	22.0 %	14.3 %	8.7%	37.5 %	47.5 %	16.2 %	10.3%	26.3 %
Fundraising +	7.1%	10.0 %	16.2 %	2.4%	28.6 %	21.7 %	0.0%	15.0 %	8.1%	27.6%	13.5 %
Visit to	3.6%	10.0 %	2.7%	0.0%	10.7 %	13.0 %	12.5 %	0.0%	16.2 %	3.4%	6.6%
Visit to +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	8.1%	0.0%	0.9%
Guest Speaker	14.3 %	35.0 %	24.3 %	24.4 %	14.3 %	34.8 %	18.8 %	15.0 %	13.5 %	13.8%	21.0 %
Guest Speaker +	7.1%	2.5%	8.1%	4.9%	3.6%	4.3%	0.0%	2.5%	16.2 %	3.4%	5.6%
Student Council	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Student Council +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Survey	14.3 %	0.0%	0.0%	12.2 %	3.6%	0.0%	12.5 %	0.0%	0.0%	6.9%	4.4%
Survey +	3.6%	2.5%	0.0%	0.0%	10.7	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%
Mock Election	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Mock Election+	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.4%	0.3%
Publication +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Investigation	10.7 %	12.5 %	2.7%	2.4%	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	2.5%	0.0%	0.0%	3.8%
Investigation +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%
Designated Day	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	0.0%	6.9%	0.9%
Designated Day +	0.0%	0.0%	2.7%	0.0%	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%
Campaign	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	8.1%	3.4%	1.6%
Campaign +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	0.0%	10.3%	1.3%
Awareness Raising	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.2 %	14.3 %	0.0%	18.8 %	7.5%	8.1%	0.0%	5.6%
Awareness Raising +	3.6%	5.0%	0.0%	19.5 %	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.4%	10.3%	5.0%
Other	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
n=	28	40	37	41	28	23	16	40	37	29	319

Kristjánsson (2006:268) notes that children have a 'natural generosity and compassion'. However, he asserts that the virtue of generosity exists in few curricula and that children are not given the opportunity to translate this natural generosity into action. Not so in CSPE where there is clear evidence that students are engaging in altruistic action focussed on doing something to

support poverty relief programmes, human suffering and deprivation of basic needs. Without getting too philosophical about it, the philosophers Aristotle (350BC) and Locke (1690) both addressed issues of generosity, the former identifying it as a virtue and the latter encouraging parents to teach it by way of habit to overcome the natural human inclination to selfishness.

A small number of Action Project titles each year engaged with the following:

Particular illnesses	Local care institutions such as hospitals
Alzheimer care units	Hospice care / Laura Lynn Foundation
Barrettstown House	The Cope Foundation
Sight Savers	Worldvision
The right to life	Jack and Jill Foundation

Action Projects that focus on disability have been included under this concept and account for many of the guest speakers who visit schools and classrooms. Similarly fundraising for organisations like the Irish Wheel Chair Association, the Irish Guide Dogs Association and the Special Olympics are included here. Exploring health-related issues and the human dignity issues around such topics as the right to life, medical care, or hospice care are also covered by this topic.

The Designated Day '+' activities in 2006, 2009 and 2010 refer to days which were targeted for charity events such as *'A candy cane day for Foster Care Ireland'* and *'Daffodil Day'*. The campaign recorded in 2013 was concerned with *'Organising a petition to stop child labour in sweatshops'*.

Students sometimes undertook Action Projects where they investigated an area for its accessibility for people with a disability or carried out a survey around disability: this is also modelled in the *Guidelines* (DES, 1998). Another popular

survey under this concept concerned health-related issues: those dealing with drugs, alcohol and smoking have been separately identified and are presented in Section 6.3.4 under the law relating to underage drinking and smoking and drug abuse (see Appendix I).

In 2007 there is a noticeable peak in the number of Action Projects dealing with Raising Awareness (31.7%), these include *'School newsletter article to raise awareness about Barefoot Doctors in Sierra Leone', Raising Awareness About Wheelchair Accessibility', 'Raising Awareness About Disability – What we should know, What we can do', Raising Awareness About the Work of the Local Hospice.*

The diagram below presents a visual representation of the types of Action Projects engaged in under the concept of Human Dignity.

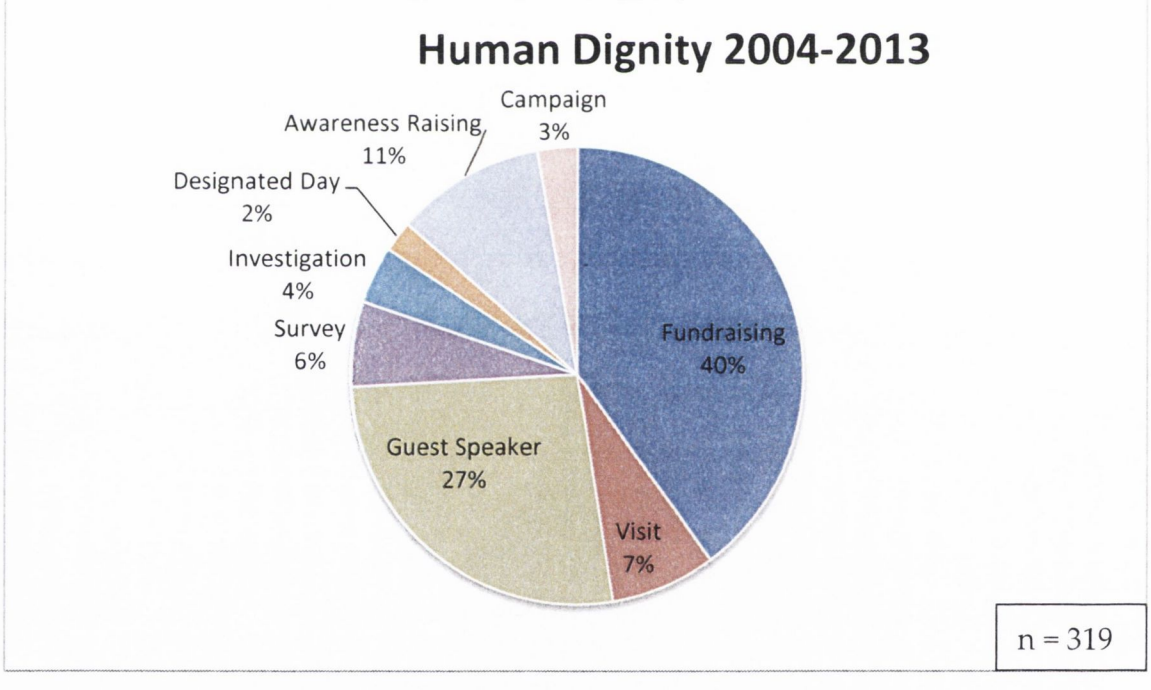


Figure 6-9: Types of Action Projects Under the Concept of Human Dignity

6.4.1.1. Commentary

The data suggests that many students are exploring the fundamental principle of the dignity of all human beings by interacting with people and causes that focus on this concept. Dagger (1997:58) writes that 'There is too much in the

idea of rights – an idea rooted in firm and widespread convictions about human dignity and equality – to forsake it. The task instead, is to find a way of strengthening the appeal of duty, community and related concepts while preserving the appeal of rights', similarly McCrudden (2008) notes that the concept of dignity is included in European charters as the basis and context for human rights. Starkey (1995:26) further states that the whole concept of human rights arises from the acceptance of that all people possess human dignity. 'Cooperation, participation, dialogue and respect are so many words which designate attitudes expected of all people in a school...' according to Audigier (2008:43).

Students are exploring and acting on issues that undermine human dignity such as poverty, abuse, deprivation, the right to die with dignity, visual impairment and sometimes fundraising for these causes. Understanding rights, understanding the universality of human dignity is a key focus of CSPE and the data attests that many students access the information that they need by having guest speakers into their classrooms. This is a valid means of both acquiring knowledge and of learning how to access information – one of the aims of the syllabus in CSPE (DoE, 1996). Because the focus in Action Projects is action and the titles in the data are meant to identify the nature of the action undertaken, it is beyond the scope of this element of the research study to know the level of critical thinking and discourse that forms part of the active learning experience.

When designing the rubric for the coding process it was evident that there was a fine line between this concept and the concept of Rights and Responsibilities. Some issues could be framed equally as rights issues or human dignity issues and the boundary was carefully drawn between the two concepts. Human Dignity in the Syllabus (DoE, 1996) covers such areas as basic human needs, issues around poverty, illness/healthcare and disability in this study: this informed the coding in this study. This researcher accepts that another

researcher might take a different approach to the data and demarcation lines between concepts.

The issue raised in the interviews by Hammond (2010) and McCarthy (2014) regarding the importance of separating CSPE from SPHE has a relevance to this concept in particular. While efforts were made to keep personal health issues separate from the broader concept of citizenship, there is evidence in the data generated that some students are addressing themes particularly those concerned with health in a space that could be viewed as overlapping with SPHE. The reference to health in the descriptor of the concept Human Dignity in the CSPE Syllabus (DoE, 1996) opens the door for students, albeit a limited number of them, to take action around these topics.

6.4.2. Development

Development as a concept area for Action Projects has not been a popular choice. Over the thirteen years of the study it has remained below 5% of all the Action Project titles coded. It was at its highest in 2001 at 4.9% and lowest in 2003 at 2.1%; that said the data suggests that students have engaged in interesting Action Projects around the theme. There is evidence in the data of students investigating aspects of local development, for example there are Action Projects with titles such as *'Proposed redevelopment of Eyre Square'; 'Plans to develop Dun Laoighre Baths'; 'Developing Kenmare Harbour'; Regeneration of Ballymun – a new old community'*. Students have been involved in local campaigns such as 'A *campaign for a new playground'; Operation Zebra Crossing'; 'We need a new Footpath'; 'The Downgrading of Nenagh Hospital'; ''The Impact of a New Tesco on the Local community'; 'The Closing of Rural Post-offices'; 'Investigating fone masts'* and in the early days of CSPE a number of Action Projects looked at the Euro Changeover and the impact of this development on Ireland. Some students each year report on investigating planning, visiting planning offices or

speaking with engineers or town planners – engaging as the Syllabus suggests with elements of development processes in a democracy.

As 'underdevelopment' is contained within the concept of Development (DoE, 1996) some students have focused on this for their Action Project which generally involved fundraising to build or enable development. In certain schools where there is a history of work between it and a region in the developing world, some Action Projects are based on raising funds for further development or student visits abroad to help build schools, orphanages, wells, clinics in these areas. Action Projects that focus on supporting under-developed, or less developed regions of the world have been isolated in the data and are set out below (Table 6.9). Self Help Africa, Trócaire, Irish Aid, Habitat for Humanity and Aids Partnership Africa are included consistently in the data but Bóthar is the most popular organisation mentioned under this concept. At the coding stage of the 40,565 valid titles the predominance of fundraising for Bóthar was evident and information on its popularity and that of all other NGO's was extracted and is presented below.

Table 6.12: Number of Action Projects based on Underdevelopment and specifically those whose focus was the NGO, Bóthar.

Year	Total number of Action Projects on Development	Number of Action Projects on Under-development		Action Projects on Bóthar	Action Projects with other NGO's
2001	160	21	←	15	**6**
2002	124	30	←	26	**4**
2003	63	34	←	12	**22**
2004	126	52	←	34	**18**
2005	155	63	←	46	**17**
2006	149	82	←	49	**33**
2007	115	62	←	19	**43**
2008	99	46	←	34	**12**
2009	148	87	←	55	**32**
2010	117	72	←	34	**38**
2011	145	65	←	27	**38**
2012	131	45	←	26	**19**
2013	133	72	←	38	**34**
Total	1,665	731			

The locations specifically named as the focus of Action Projects in the data include Africa, Afghanistan, Bosnia, Brazil, Burkina Faso, Calcutta, China, Gambia, Ghana, Kitui, Korea, Kosovo, India, Malawi, Moldova, Mozambique, Pakistan, Peru, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tanzania, Tibet and Uganda.

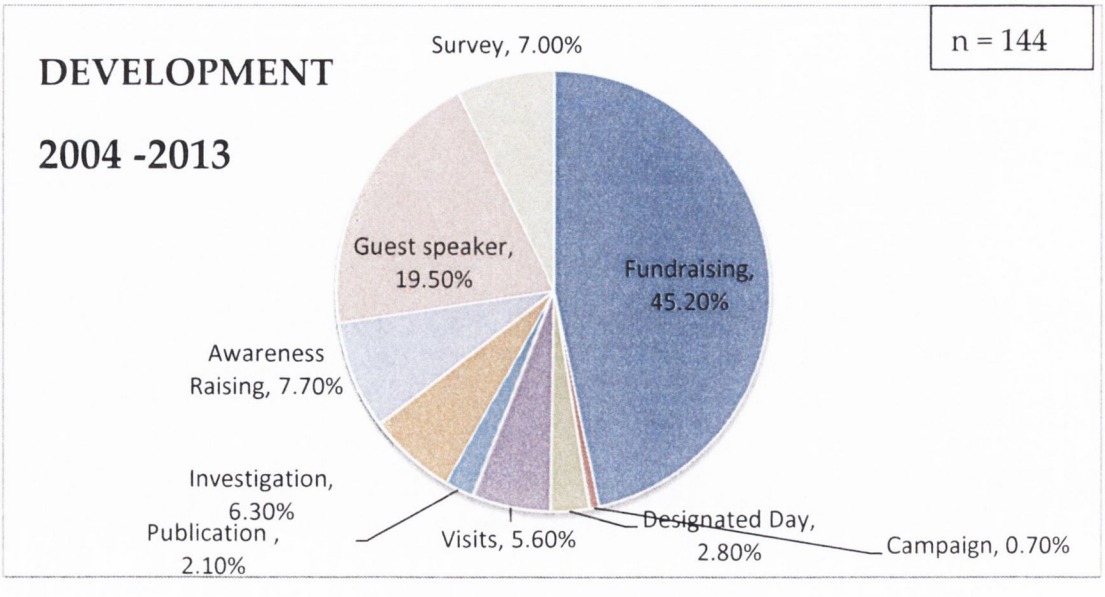


Figure 6-10: Types of Action Projects Under the Concept of Development, 2004-2013.

Table 6.13: Activities Under the Concept of Development (DEV)

Development	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	9.1%	52.2 %	22.2 %	33.3 %	10.0 %	35.7 %	23.1 %	40.9 %	11.1 %	14.3 %	27.1 %
Fundraising+	0.0%	17.4 %	22.2 %	66.7 %	20.0 %	21.4 %	15.4 %	36.4 %	5.6%	9.5%	18.1 %
Visit to	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	14.3 %	15.4 %	0.0%	5.6%	9.5%	4.9%
Visit to +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%
Guest Speaker	9.1%	4.3%	11.1 %	0.0%	50.0 %	14.3 %	30.8 %	4.5%	27.8 %	4.8%	14.6 %
Guest Speaker +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.5%	11.1 %	19.0 %	4.9%
Student Council	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Student Council +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Survey	0.0%	4.3%	33.3 %	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	15.4 %	0.0%	0.0%	14.3 %	6.3%
Survey +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.8%	0.7%
Mock Election	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Mock Election +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	11.1 %	0.0%	1.4%
Publication +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.6%	0.0%	0.7%
Investigation	9.1%	21.7 %	11.1 %	0.0%	20.0 %	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.3%
Investigation+	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Designated Day	36.4 %	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.8%
Designated Day +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Campaign	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%
Campaign +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Awareness Raising	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.5%	5.6%	23.8 %	5.6%
Awareness Raising +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	16.7 %	0.0%	2.1%
Other	27.3 %	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	3.5%
n =	11	23	9	3	10	14	13	22	18	21	144

The activities represented are again dominated by fundraising which accounts for 41.5% of all actions based on this concept in the 4,000 analysed. Fundraising is the only activity represented consistently in each year of the study. In 2007

Fundraising and Fundraising '+' plus another activity accounts for all the 3 (100%) titles randomly occurring in the total of 400 titles that year. Other actions include organising petitions, exhibitions, producing leaflets to raise awareness or to support a campaign.

6.4.2.1. Commentary

Development as a concept within CSPE is very clearly defined in the syllabus and has as its focus the ways in which change is managed and planned, with particular reference to the democratic processes around change (DoE, 1996). Some students involve themselves in action around such issues, particularly in the context of local development. The wide catchment area around many urban schools may be reason why so many of the local development action projects are focussed on local development in rural settings where the sense of community is often stronger.

Underdevelopment and the developing world provide a different context for action. Ireland has a long history of work in less developed countries so it is not surprising that some students find a focus for action in these areas: what it is more surprising that the level of such engagement is relatively low.

It could be argued that Action Projects based on under-development issues may have a rights and responsibilities or human dignity focus. In this study if any aspect of development was alluded to in the Action Project title data, it has been coded as such; if the context was a rights one then the Action Project was coded under Rights and Responsibility. In the interviews with Hammond, (2010), Regan, (2010) and McCarthy (2014) it was clear that CSPE has its origins, in part, in the Development Education movement. Concern about the 'big' issues of social justice, discrimination and inequality informed the development of the syllabus, including the aims of the subject, the core concepts and the Action Project itself (Hammond, 2010; Regan, 2010; McCarthy, 2014).

The relatively low take up on the concept of Development as evidenced in the data might be construed as a failure of sorts but when it is combined with action that has a focus on human rights and concern for human dignity, then as a general area that is loosely based on Human Rights, is well represented in the data (see Table 6.9).

Table 6.14: Combined total of concepts with a focus on Rights and Responsibilities, Human Dignity and Underdevelopment.

Years	Rights and Responsibilities	Human Dignity	Under-development	Total
2001-2013	10,147	3,409	731	14,287 (35.2%)

n = 40,565

Westheimer and Kane (2004:242) emphasise 'the vision of the justice-oriented citizen shares with the vision of the participatory citizen an emphasis on collective work related to the life and issues of the community'. Participatory citizenship according to Audigier (2008:43) '...is a matter of ensuring that each [citizen] can take his place in society and contribute to its development at whatever level it may be beyond the political act of voting.' Taking action around the concept of development 'can help pupils to make the connection between learning and acting locally to thinking globally' (QCA, 1998:37). The data suggests that many students exploring this (and related concepts) are developing connections with the wider world.

Finally, Action Project titles on sustainable living, and the responsibility of the citizen to the planet, have been coded in this Chapter under 'Stewardship'. As a result the low numbers identified here may be accounted for by the fact that what might be considered as development has featured in other concept areas.

6.4.3. Interdependence

While the number of Action Projects around this concept is very low, the concept of Interdependence has increased in popularity over the duration of the

study, ranging from 3.6% in 2001 to 6.3% in 2013 (see Table 6.3). There was a surge in interest noted in this concept in years when there was a European Treaty referendum or European election. Mock Elections based on Europe are coded here under this concept and not under the concept of Democracy

The European dimension of citizenship education has been a focus of some attention over the years of the study (see Chapter 3) and the data concerning the popularity of Europe as the focus of Action Projects has been extracted and is presented below in Section 6.7.

Similarly the focus on Fair Trade as a topic relating to interdependence has also made an impact on the popularity of this concept area. The prominence of the Fair Trade movement as the basis of Action Projects under this concept was identified at the coding stage and the specific data regarding its popularity is presented separately (see section 6.7.)

In the table below the areas shaded in blue indicate the various types of activities undertaken from 2004 -2013 by students who undertook their Action Projects in this area, the raw data is presented in Appendix K.

Table 6.15: Activities Under the Concept of Interdependence (I)

Inter Dependence	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	0.0%	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%
Fundraising Plus	0.0%	21.4%	33.3%	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	20.0%	6.7%
Visit to	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.3%	5.0%	5.0%	24.1%	0.0%	6.7%
Visit to +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Guest Speaker	8.3%	21.4%	50.0%	9.1%	40.0%	37.5%	40.0%	30.0%	0.0%	0.0%	23.5%
Guest Speaker +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	6.9%	0.0%	2.0%
Student Council	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Student Council +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Survey	8.3%	7.1%	0.0%	9.1%	30.0%	6.3%	10.0%	5.0%	3.4%	0.0%	7.4%
Survey +	0.0%	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	31.3%	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%	40.0%	6.7%
Mock Election	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Mock Election +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Publication Plus (+)	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Investigation	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	45.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.0%
Investigation Plus (+)	0.0%	7.1%	16.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%
Designated Day	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	10.0%	27.6%	20.0%	8.7%
Designated Day +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.4%	0.0%	0.7%
Campaign	16.7%	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.7%
Campaign +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%
Awareness Raising	16.7%	14.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%	35.0%	15.0%	34.5%	0.0%	17.4%
Awareness Raising +	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	20.0%	0.7%
Other	16.7%	7.1%	0.0%	27.3%	20.0%	0.0%	10.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	7.4%
n=	12	14	12	11	10	16	20	20	29	5	149

Guest speakers invited into schools account for the largest proportion of actions around this concept - accounting for 25.5% of all Action Projects from 2004-2013. They reached a high of 50% in 2006 and 40% in 2008 and 2010. The Guest Speaker activity is the one that is best represented under the concept. Guest Speakers include MEPs, advocates for Fair Trade Ireland and members of the Irish and UN Peace keeping forces. International bodies such as Amnesty International and others dealing with issues of human rights have been categorised under Rights and Responsibilities.

Designated Days account for 9.4% of activities during 2004-2013 and they either focus on promoting Fairtrade Fortnight/a Fairtrade Day or celebrating Europe Day on the 9th May. The 'Visits' out of school which are recorded in 2009 to 2012 are based on visits to the European Parliament Information Centre (EPIC) and Action Projects such as *'Our Class Trip to a Multinational Company'*.

The most common investigation reported concerns the way in which students are connected to the wider world through common consumer goods such as clothing, sports-wear and toys made in foreign sweatshops and sold in Ireland.

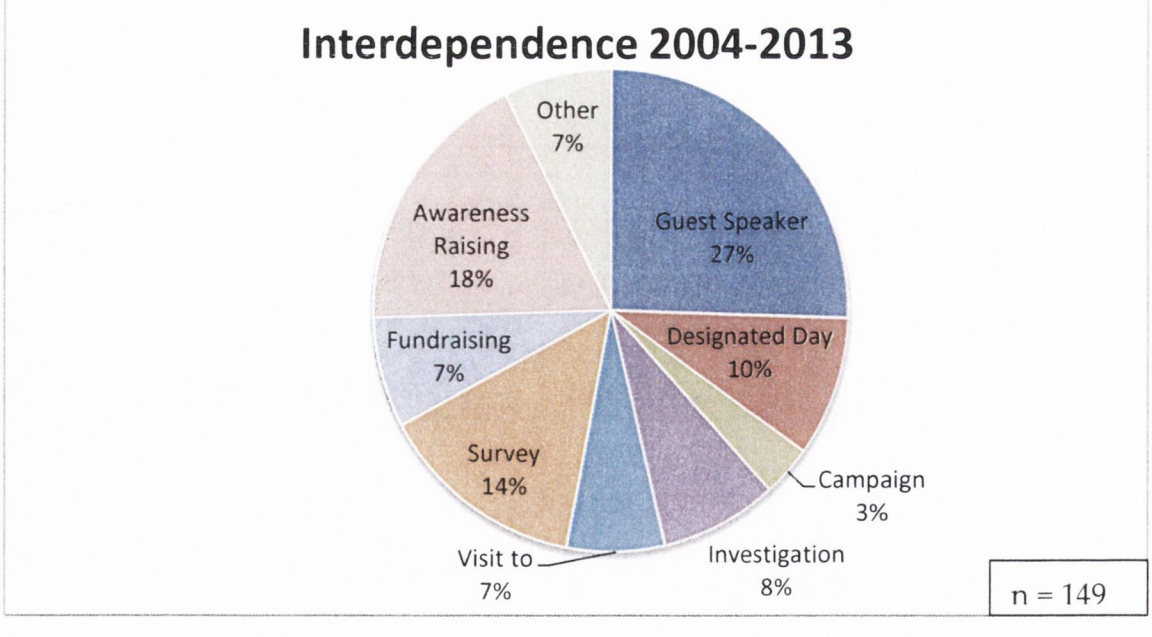


Figure 6-11: Types of Action Projects Under the Concept of Interdependence

The above diagram shows the breakdown of the types of activity that students engaged in from 2004-2013 and the three areas of Guest speaker, Awareness Raising and Survey are most popular with students.

6.4.3.1. Commentary

The concept of Interdependence is perhaps the most complex of all the CSPE core concepts. The interconnectedness of the world is a difficult concept for students to engage with - especially in the one period a week available for teaching CSPE on most timetables. Osler and Starkey (2005:22) argue for education for the 'cosmopolitan citizen' who has 'a way of being a citizen at any level, local, national regional, global.' This view is based on ideas of solidarity with fellow human beings wherever they are in the world, the ubiquitous global citizen. Such thinking is in line with the CSPE Syllabus (DoE, 1996) and the four domains of CSPE. Understanding the interdependent world in which we live is key to developing in students a sense of their being citizens of the world. Interdependence as a CSPE concept focuses on global citizenship and 'the wider world' (DoE, 1996). This global perspective is to be found in part in the other core concepts - stewardship where the planet and global environment is important, the human dignity of all people, the rights and responsibility of every human being, democratic government beyond the nation state and issues of development at home and abroad have a reach beyond the discrete concept of Interdependence itself.

Although education systems in general, including the Irish one, have taken on a world-based, global outlook across may subject areas, Davies, Evans and Reid (2005) warn of the inadequacy of simply adding an international flavour to citizenship activities and content. Unger (1975), Miller, (2000) and Young (2004) make the point that it is only after citizenship has been established and consolidated at a local level - and confidence developed there - is there any hope that the citizen can make an impact at a transnational level. The

confidence to engage at a global level comes second. Miller (2000) goes so far as to assert that the choice which faces the citizen is bi-polar, either nationalism or cosmopolitan citizenship - but not both.

There is still a strong emphasis on the national and on self-interest in the practice of citizenship. Many people default to a position of acting in ways that ensure the best outcomes for themselves, their own families and their local communities (Garratt & Piper, 2010). In this study this is reflected in the emphasis on the local and the national in the Action Projects presented for assessment in the Junior Cert. – when there is engagement with the 'wider world' evident it is mostly done through the medium of local or national bodies. The global perspective is also found in many concepts with a focus on fundraising, or fundraising '+' plus another activity, evident in many Action Projects recorded in the data.

On a more pragmatic level one reason which might account for the low percentage of Action Projects conducted around this concept is that Interdependence is often the last concept to be addressed in the three year cycle of teaching CSPE. In the timescale model used by the CSPE Support Team (n.d.) Interdependence is recommended as the last concept to be covered. Similarly in textbooks (*Make a Difference,* 2011; *One World,* 2010) Interdependence is the final concept explored. It is arguable that the final concept addressed in Third Year is not likely to be the focus of an Action Project as there would be insufficient time available for undertaking action and writing-up the report around it.

6.4.4. Community

Bennett (2003:13) makes the point that 'A promising beginning to any civic learning experience is to empower the learner to find issues in their immediate communities that seem important to the people with whom they live and associate.' Such a philosophy underpins the inclusion of 'Local Community' as

one of the domains of CSPE. However, Action Projects around community issues have declined in interest and popularity over the duration of the study. As a category for coding Action Projects, community was added to the list of core concepts to facilitate coding such activities which were emerging in the data as *'A survey and producing a booklet on facilities for young people in our community'*; *'A Day in the Life of a Local Community'*; *'Raising Awareness about Community Services'*; *'A DVD About our Town'*. These Actions are very much in keeping with the focus of CSPE and the importance placed in the Syllabus (DoE, 1996) on students developing a sense of belonging. This is fundamental to giving young citizens the motivation to take action.

Community is one of the four domains of citizenship identified in the Syllabus (DoE, 1996). Designating it as a separate category in analysing the data allows for the identification of the types of activity noted above. The decline in the number of students engaging in these community based actions is difficult to quantify as students sometimes frame their titles more firmly within one of the seven core concepts (for example, local development has been coded under the concept of Development). A title such as *'Our Community Clean-up'* was coded under 'Stewardship' or *'Vandalism in our Community'* would be included under the concept 'Law'.

In the table below the coloured areas indicate the types of activities undertaken each year from 2004 -2013. As the numbers are very small here, actual numbers of Action Projects rather than percentages are used.

Table 6.16: Activities Under the Concept of Community (C)

Community	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	3
Fundraising +	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Visit to	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	4
Visit to +	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Guest Speaker	2	1	1	0	1	0	5	2	1	0	13
Guest Speaker +	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3
Student Council action	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Student Council action+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Survey	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Survey +	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Mock Election	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mock Election +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Publication	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Publication +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Investigation	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Investigation +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Designated Day	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Designated Day +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Campaign	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Campaign +	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Awareness Raising	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Awareness Raising +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	3
n =	10	7	2	8	4	0	7	3	7	0	48

In many other concept areas, community involvement and community issues were embedded within Action Projects that were more clearly focussed on one of the other seven core concepts.

6.4.5. Substance Abuse

As previously mentioned the area of 'Substance Abuse' was identified early in the coding process and Action Projects under this concept area were separately coded. In the early years of CSPE a range of action projects were presented for assessment where Social, Personal and Health Education was clearly the focus of the action: this was a cause for concern and as a result students and teachers were discouraged from engaging with such topics. Action Projects on like *'The side effects of substance abuse', 'Caring for your lungs'; A Safe Diet'* were specifically

discouraged in favour of more citizenship focussed activities (SEC, S11/02 & SEC, 2005).

The success of the DES/SEC information campaign, supported by the CSPE Support Service is evident in the decline in the number of students doing SPHE Action Projects. In the four years of the study 2008, through to 2011 only 0.1% of Action Projects were based on the topic of Substance Abuse.

Table 6.17: Percentage of Action Projects on Substance Abuse, 2001-2013

YEAR	Action Projects based on Substance Abuse	Actual number of Action Projects
2001	3.6%	117
2001	1.4%	39
2003	0.9%	27
2004	0.8%	25
2005	0.9%	30
2006	0.4%	13
2007	0.6%	18
2008	0.1%	3
2009	0.1%	2
2010	0.1%	2
2011	0.1%	4
2012	0.3%	11
2013	0.5%	16
	n = 40,565	

Hammond (2010, interview) mentioned that CSPE was designed not to include personal health issues: 'One of the big decisions we made at the time in the NCCA decided that SPHE and CSPE would not be merged into one area'. It is clear from the actual number of titles in this area over the course of the study, 307 out of a total of 40,565 that this objective has been realised. Holding a line regarding these themes has allowed the core concepts in the syllabus to become the drivers of action for CSPE students.

6.4.6. Outliers

Each concept has a number of Action Projects recorded that are clearly relevant to citizenship education and which come under the heading of 'Other' in the Pro-forma CSPE Report on an Action Project Assessment Booklet (SEC, 2013). These topics have been classified as outliers as they are usually once-off Action Projects and are very few in number. The type of action undertaken is what makes these Action Project outliers - they are within the CSPE syllabus. The actions are covered by the 'Other' option in the Report on the Action Project pro-form booklet.

They include such actions as *'Burying a time-capsule'; 'A CSPE Table Quiz Against the Boys School'; 'CSPE Exhibition on Human Rights in the Local Library'; 'Raising the European Flags and meeting our European Twins'; 'Teaching Citizenship Education in the local Primary School'; 'Planting trees in the school grounds'; 'Young Citizens write letters to the papers and contact the media'; The Big Clean Up'.* These Action Projects could have been coded under raising awareness but as they did not include this perspective in the title it was deemed reasonable to include them under 'Other' in this study. The outlier Action Project titles are not indicative of radical action and are similar in their parameters to those recorded in other concept areas.

6.5. Action Projects Outside of the Syllabus

Some Action Project titles in the data suggested that they were outside of the syllabus, for example *'Fitness Awareness Day'* or *'Sleeping habits in my school'*. The actual number of titles under this category is also very small, 103 out of 40,565 (see Table 6.1). Apart from 2001, 2002 and 2007 they hardly feature in the range of titles submitted for assessment, with none recorded at all in 2009 and 2013. Overall the number of Action Projects outside of the syllabus has declined with only 3 such Action Project titles recorded in the final year of the study.

In addition to this the title of the Action Project submitted by some students indicated a project with no action for example *'The GAA'; 'The Life and Times of Michael Collins'; 'A History of the Salmon Weir Bridge.'*. 'Action' is the key word in Action Project so these more traditional style projects are not what the syllabus requires. These types of project have also disappeared from the titles listed over time in the data generated.

6.5.1. Commentary

It is unfortunate, and one could argue, inexcusable that teachers would be unaware of the parameters of CSPE. It is the role of the teacher to support the student undertaking an Action Project and to correct a draft of the Report that students submit for assessment.

There should be no Action Projects outside of the syllabus being presented by students as all the supports for teaching the subject both official Guidelines, the Syllabus and online material from the State Examinations Commission, the Professional Development Service for Teachers (PDST), the Association of CSPE Teachers (ACT) and commercially produced textbooks, clearly describe Action Projects.

The data suggests that teachers and students over time have come to know the CSPE syllabus and now understand its parameters. It makes it all the more of a pity that just as the subject is bedding down, radical changes are being proposed.

6.6. The Impact of Topical Events

The data does not overtly provide reasons for the various trends in the results for each concept. However, certain current and topical events impact on the titles presented from year to year and the number of students presenting Action Projects on these topics reflects this. In the years of an election or referendum, there is a rise in the number of Action Projects that reflect an interest in the

democratic process; or when a disaster occurs, like the Tsunami in Asia, the 9/11 attacks in the USA, the earthquake in Haiti and the like, these events become the subject of Action Projects.

It is important to bear in mind that when a national or world event occurs, and becomes the focus of Action Projects in CSPE, it can have a bearing on the statistics in the year it occurred and/or in the following two years. Action Projects can be undertaken in any of the three years of the Junior Cycle so for example, following 9/11 some students undertook Action Projects like collecting signatures for a book of condolence and if they did this while in First Year then they could be reporting it for the Junior Cert exam in 2004. Similarly when the Special Olympics took place in Ireland in 2003 some students were still writing about their involvement in the Games for their Action Project report submitted in 2005.

Table 6.18: Topical Events that Impacted on Titles

Years	Event	Concept impacted
2001 (2002, 2003)	9/11 Terrorist attack	Rights and Responsibilities
2001 (2002, 2003) 2002 (2003, 2004)	Nice Treaty	Interdependence
2010 (2011/12)	Haiti Earthquake	Rights and Responsibilities Human Dignity
2005 (2006, 2007)	Tsunami	Rights and Responsibilities Human Dignity
2003 (2004, 2005)	The Special Olympics	Human Dignity
2008 (2009, 2010) 2009 (2010, 2011)	Lisbon Treaty	Interdependence
2007 (2008, 2009)	Big Ballot	Democracy
2002 (2003, 2004) 2007 (2008, 2009)	General Election	Democracy
2007 (2008, 2009)	The Power of One Campaign	Stewardship
	The freeing of Aung Sang Su Kyi	Human Dignity, Human Rights
	The freeing and Presidency of Nelson Mandela	Human Dignity, Human Rights
	EU Enlargement	Interdependence
2011, 2012, 2013	Express Yourself Exhibition	Human Rights Human Dignity

The engagement with topical and current events is to be welcomed and is evidenced across a range of concept areas. It was intended in the original conception of CSPE (Hammond, 2010; McCarthy, 2014 and Regan, 2010) that students would engage in society at large. The Carnegie Corporation (2003) similarly highlight the importance of putting a real life perspective on what happens in class. It is fitting that citizenship education involves students in Action Projects that connect the classroom with the 'real world': the data suggests that such engagement is happening. The impact of local, national and global events on what happens in the CSPE classroom that in turns motivates

students to get involved in action is appropriate. Law is the only core concept not represented in the above table as no current event topics were recorded under this concept.

Comments on the topical issues in the table above have addressed in the corresponding concept section of this Chapter.

6.7. Themes and Trends within Concepts

In the process of categorising the Action Project titles, it became apparent that there was a re-occurrence of certain emphases in actions within core concepts. These trends were identified and the data was extracted as a means of clarifying the nature of the actions in which students were engaging. Three of the most common have been extracted and are presented below.

6.7.1. Animals Rights, Fairtrade and Europe

The dominant sub-group of titles to be found in the data are titles relating to Europe and Fairtrade under the concept of Interdependence, and Animal Rights/Welfare under the concept of Stewardship. The table below shows (in red) a deconstruction of the core concept to separate out the above themes.

Table 6.19: Dominant Sub-themes within Core Concepts (indicated in the shaded areas)

Year	Rights & Responsibility	Stewardship	Stewardship animals	Democracy	Law	Human Dignity	Development	Inter-dependence	Fairtrade (I)	Europe (I)	Community	Substance Abuse	Outside the Syllabus	Total
1	954	672	112	495	308	177	160	58	2	60	105	117	27	3380
2	798	457	115	499	309	134	124	48	18	106	84	39	16	3020
3	849	411	120	550	314	265	63	63	25	92	79	27	5	3120
4	891	425	146	634	396	340	126	72	43	30	81	25	1	3380
5	974	325	194	577	451	214	155	68	39	44	88	30	29	3360
6	870	274	201	645	517	224	149	33	78	32	42	13	7	3280
7	669	318	252	667	607	343	115	29	67	36	55	18	2	3360
8	736	262	240	661	555	210	99	63	89	21	51	3	7	3140
9	614	297	283	796	677	292	148	54	100	18	46	2	0	3460
10	713	263	300	687	612	258	117	73	99	36	34	2	3	3340
11	698	242	389	741	528	327	145	68	67	30	50	4	3	3400
12	687	252	364	764	567	277	131	31	57	16	16	11	0	3280
13	694	170	417	633	535	348	133	10	62	17	23	16	3	3160
	10147	4368	3133	**8349**	**6376**	**3409**	**1665**	670	746	538	**754**	**307**	**103**	

n=40,565

The popularity of these themes is presented in below in percentage form. It is noticeable that the areas of animal rights and animal welfare have increased in popularity over time, peaking in the last year of the study at 13.6% of all titles coded in this year. Action Projects on Europe on the other hand have remained very low and when the Fairtrade and Europe Action Projects are removed from the Interdependence concept, very little else is happening in this concept area.

Table 6.20: Three Sub-themes in the Action Project Data in Percentage Terms of the Overall Action Project Titles Coded 2001-2013

n=40,565	Animal Issues	Fairtrade	Europe
2001	3.4%	0.1%	1.8%
2002	4.2%	0.7%	3.9%
2003	4.2%	0.9%	3.2%
2004	4.5%	1.3%	0.9%
2005	6.1%	1.2%	1.4%
2006	6.5%	2.5%	1.0%
2007	7.9%	2.1%	1.1%
2008	8.0%	3.0%	0.7%
2009	8.5%	3.0%	0.5%
2010	9.4%	3.1%	1.1%
2011	11.8%	2.0%	0.9%
2012	11.5%	1.8%	0.5%
2103	13.6%	2.0%	0.6%

This data in diagrammatic form is presented below.

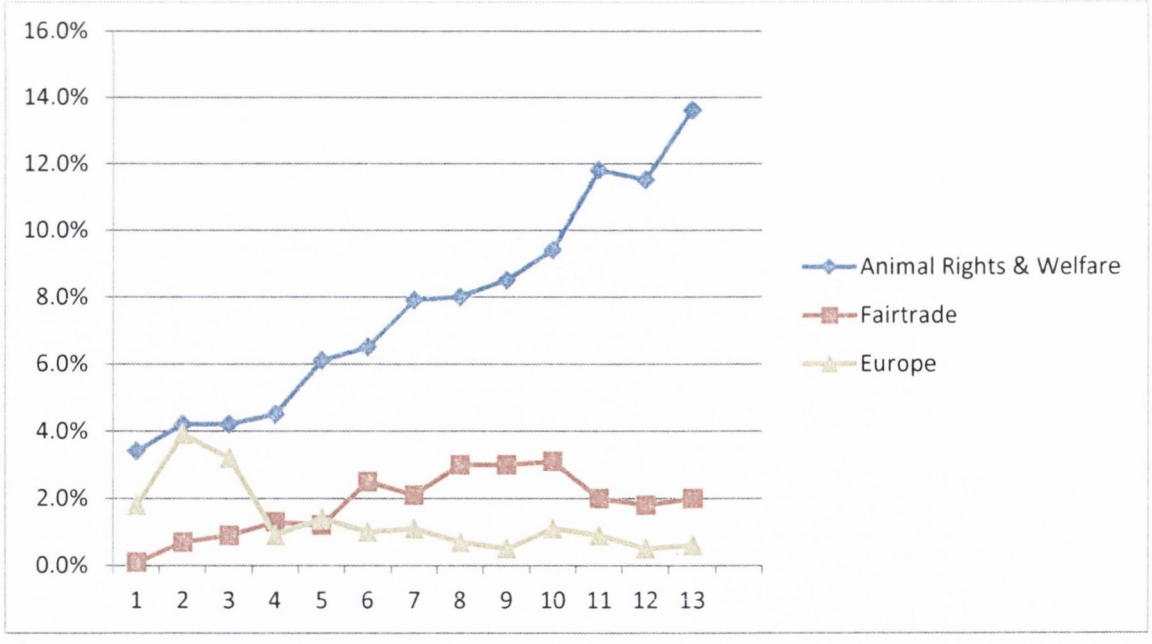


Figure 6-12: Sub themes with Core Concepts

What is interesting about these figures is the trend indicated under each category. It is noticeable that interest in animal rights and animal welfare has increased in every year of the study. Initially in 2001 it represented just 3.4%

and had increased to 13.6% by 2013. From 2010 onwards the total number of Action Projects that had a focus on animals was in excess of all other themes coded under Stewardship combined. Typical Action Projects dealing with this topic involve visits to animal shelters, fundraising for animal welfare, publications (booklets) on caring for animals, visits to the Zoo looking at endangered species and the ethics of keeping animals in captivity. There is often fundraising involved in such Action Projects.

It would be very easy to denigrate Action Projects that have animal welfare, or perhaps visits to a Zoo as their focus. Some of these may be overly simplistic in nature but in terms of the Syllabus (DoE, 1996:12) such actions may enable students to understand 'our role in relation to the natural world...' and the consequences of the 'unnecessary depletion of resources'.

What is critical is that the transfer of learning in terms of skills, awareness and critical discourse acquired while doing an Action Project is enabled and facilitated though further action, activities and purposeful learning.

Similarly Action Projects in the theme of Fairtrade, which were barely represented in 2001 (only 2 Action Projects), have by 2006 become the dominant area of activity around the concept of Interdependence. Typical activities here focus on raising awareness and the setting up of a Fairtrade facility in a school – often focussing on selling Fairtrade goods during Fairtrade Fortnight or the Big Swap Campaign. Guest Speakers on the topic of Fairtrade are also popular in the data.

Europe as the focus for action can be explained by the involvement of students in the European democratic process, often in tandem with similar events happening at the time, EU enlargement, European elections or European Treaty referenda. With the emphasis on European citizenship, especially since the Maastricht Treaty (1992), it is surprising that so few Action Projects focus on

this area. However as mentioned previously, it is a topic that is often taught towards the end of the three year Junior Cycle and so may be covered too late in the course for an Action Project to happen around it.

6.8. Conclusion

What stands out from the analysis of the data, in comparison to the published literature on the active participatory aspect of citizenship education, is that the model in CSPE is unique in formulating a means whereby engagement in some form of active citizenship is an inescapable part of the experience of citizenship education for all students. It is not something that students *might* engage in, it is a planned aspect of the teaching and learning in the subject. When topics such as HRE, EDC, ESD are addressed in the literature, lofty objectives are identified as critical to the education of the citizen. These objectives are centred by-and-large on classroom-based pedagogies; the exploration of case-studies and a predominance of active learning in experiential learning settings where discourse and debate are generated. The belief is that such learning will foster citizens who are capable of responding in an active engaged way around these critical areas. CSPE goes a step further by involving students in action that means closing their textbooks and in almost all cases looking beyond the classroom.

In the Action Project the vision of active citizenship has found a potential home. The concepts that CSPE is built on, and the various types of activities reported by students in the Junior Certificate examination, are testament to the fact that CSPE offers students an opportunity to engage in matters of concern to them as young citizens. The depth and value of the active experience is the next concern.

While analysis of the data reveals genuine action by students, the scope of the activities undertaken gives rise to a number of questions - Are the types of action represented in the data comparable with the type of action that support

active participatory citizenship? Do they indicate that the aims of CSPE are being met? Have Action Projects become formulaic and if yes, does that matter?

In a course that is 70 hours long, taught over one time-tabled period a week, where seven concepts have to be studied and students have to engage in two Action Projects over the three years of the course, the possibilities for action of great depth are restricted by the model itself. There are real constraints on the possible experiences open to students doing an Action Project that are determined by such things as the time available for CSPE on the timetable, the age profile of students at Junior Cert level, the ability level of students and the lack of specialist teachers and limited teacher expertise. As Action Projects are a co-creative, co-constructed intervention, the role of the teacher as mediator of the learning and his/her perceptions are critical to the learning opportunities available to students. Similarly the views of students on the value and learning through active citizenship are important. The following chapter investigates the views of both of these groups.

CHAPTER 7. TEACHER AND STUDENT PERSPECTIVES ON THE ACTION PROJECT IN CSPE

7.1. Introduction

In order to capture the voice of Civic, Social and Political Education students and teachers, a questionnaire was administered to these groups. At a round of in-service which was targeted at experienced CSPE teachers, a questionnaire was administered to all participants. Subsequently a similar questionnaire was administered to students to capture their perceptions and points of view.

The teacher questionnaire sought to identify what type of learning teachers think is acquired by students doing Action Projects and what challenges face CSPE teachers in relation to the Action Project. How teachers view the weighting of marks in the assessment of the Action Project was explored and the teachers' views on the training and support they have received for doing Action Projects were sought. Students too were asked to reflect on the learning and challenges of doing Action Projects and they were asked for their opinions on the weighting of marks in favour of the Action Project in the State Examination in CSPE.

Permission was sought from the National Co-ordinator of CSPE at the time to disseminate the questionnaire. It was administered by the in-service team to all those present at the end of four different in-service days.

In the first part of the chapter, the data from the questionnaire is presented. The same headings as those in the questionnaires are used here, with both an explanation and commentary on the emerging findings at significant points throughout the chapter. Both student and teacher data are presented in the same sections and tables for ease of comparison where possible.

The second part of this chapter presents a discussion of the main themes arising from the integration of the data from both the longitudinal and questionnaire studies.

7.2. Background details

A total of one hundred and eleven teachers responded to the CSPE Action Project questionnaire over four in-service venues: Dublin, Limerick, Sligo and Portlaoise. The majority of respondents to the teacher questionnaire were women, replicating the gender bias in teaching in general – though more than a fifth (23 out of 111) of the total participants in the study were male. The gender balance of the respondents is set out below:

Table 7.1: Respondents: Gender

Female:	86
Male:	23
Not specified:	2

n=111

Targeting a round of national in-service ensured that the respondents to the questionnaire were representative of all types of schools in the Irish education system at present, with the largest representation in the voluntary secondary school sector (42%), see table 7.2 below.

Table 7.2: School Types: Teachers

Type of school	All Boys	All Girls	Mixed Gender	Gender not Specified	Total
Voluntary Secondary	16	18	9	5	48 (43.2%)
Comprehensive	0	0	5	1	6 (5.4%)
Community School	0	1	14	2	17 (15.3%)
Community College	1	0	11	0	12 (10.8%)
VEC School	0	0	12	0	12 (10.8%)
Private Secondary	2	6	5	0	13 (11.7%)
Other: • Prison Service • Traveller Centre • Youthreach	1	1	1		3 (2.7%)

n=111

7.2.1. Schools Represented: Teachers

- Most respondents (69, 62.1%) were working in schools with between 301 and 800 pupils.
- 12 (10.8%) respondents were working in schools with numbers in excess of this, and the largest school represented had 1,200 pupils.
- Of the 29 (26.1%) respondents in schools where there are fewer than 301 pupils, three are educational centres (a Prison Service, a Youthreach Centre and a Centre for Traveller Education) where the numbers are predictably small and in the latter two, represent 20 and 25 students respectively.
- Only one respondent did not specify a school size.

7.2.2. Schools Represented: Students

Student respondents were from four schools, one in Dublin, Cork city, Waterford and in rural Cork. All students were in Transition Year and had presented an Action Project in the previous year for their Junior Cert. assessment in CSPE. The type of schools represented by students is set out below: one teacher who had hoped to access 30 pupils, in reality could only

access one CSPE class, hence the 18 responses (out of a possible 18 students in a single class) in that school.

Table 7.3: School Types: Students

Schools Represented	Gender	Total
Voluntary Secondary	All Boys	31
Voluntary Secondary	All Girls	18
VEC School	Mixed	30
Community College	Mixed	30

n=108

There is a good representative mix in the type and location of schools in the student respondents to the questionnaire.

7.2.3. Teacher Experience

As previously indicated, the round of in-service was targeted at experienced teachers of CSPE and co-ordinators of the subject, it was therefore anticipated that there would likely be a weighting of long-service in terms of the years of teaching experience and in teaching CSPE specifically, among respondents. However, the teachers who attended the in-service were not all experienced teachers, neither in terms of their years in teaching in general or specifically in the number of years' experience that they had in teaching CSPE.

Respondents indicated that they had a range of teaching experience from 3 months to 36 years of experience. The experience in specifically teaching CSPE ranged from 3 months to 11 years; at the time 11 years represented teaching the subject since 1998. Those teacher respondents with the most experience were not always those who had a long service in the teaching of CSPE.

- 4 teachers with an excess of 25 years teaching identified themselves as 'new to CSPE' and as having never undertaken an Action Project;
- 41 (36.9%) teachers identified themselves as having just begun teaching CSPE;

- 29 (26.1%) teachers had never undertaken an Action Project and therefore did not report any Action Project titles. 2 of these respondents identified Action Projects in which they were currently engaged.
- 5 teachers had 10 or more years' experience of teaching CSPE.

Overall the picture that emerged is in line with the view that CSPE is taught by an indistinct range of teachers (Harrison, 2006; Jeffers, 2008; Murphy 2008). It was not anticipated that such a substantial number of attendees at the in-service would present with so little experience of CSPE as the training had been organised for and targeted at CSPE Co-ordinators and experienced teachers. This seemed to impact on the ability of some teachers to respond to all items in the questionnaire.

7.3. The Action Project

Teacher respondents were asked to list three Action Projects that they had completed. Only 26 (23.4%) listed three, although 72 (64.8%) respondents listed at least one. When analysed using the original rubric that had been applied at the quantitative phase, (see Appendix I), the following pattern emerged.

Table 7.4: Analysis of Concepts Covered in Action Projects Listed

Concept	Questionnaire % (No. of APs)	Longitudinal study %
Rights and Responsibilities	29.3% (44)	25.0%
Democracy	23.3% (34)	20.6%
Stewardship	18.6% (28)	18.5%
- stewardship alone	*11.3% (17)*	*10.8%*
- and specifically on animals	*7.3% (11)*	*7.7%*
Law	11.3% (17)	15.7%
Human Dignity	4.6% (7)	8.4%
Interdependence	5.0% (8)	4.8%
Development	0.6% (1)	4.1%
Miscellaneous	7.3% (11)	
Community	-------- 0	1.9%
Substance Abuse	-------- 0	0.8%
Unsuitable	-------- 0	0.3%
	n =150	n = 40,565

The data here are in line with those from the quantitative study and the four most popular concepts for Action Projects across both data sets are Rights and Responsibilities, Democracy, Stewardship and Law. The order of popularity is also the same. However, the concept of Development emerged as the least popular concept in the teacher questionnaire; this was not the case in the quantitative phase where Action Projects on themes of supporting the building of houses, hospitals, schools and orphanages and the digging of wells, often in less developed countries, were always represented annually in the longitudinal data.

A total of 11 (7.3%) responses were classified as Miscellaneous due to their imprecision, they included such titles as 'Fundraiser', 'Information Day', 'Poster Campaign', 'Local Charity'. None of the Action Projects from the questionnaire were in the category of Community Action Project, none focussed on substance abuse and none were outside of the syllabus (Unsuitable).

Similarly, the students who answered the questionnaire were asked to name the title of the Action Project that they had done and submitted for their Junior Certificate examination. All 108 had done a group Action Project with their respective entire CSPE class group. These actions were:

- A School Talent Show in aid of Special Olympics (Human Dignity)
- A Visit from the Local Amnesty International Education Officer (Rights and Responsibility)
- A Visit to the Houses of the Oireachtas (Democracy)
- Organising Elections for the Student Council (Democracy)
- Fundraising for the Local Donkey Sanctuary (Stewardship)

The Action Project titles given by the teachers and the students replicate the longitudinal data. The similarity of the titles across all three sources provides evidence of congruence and allows for triangulation of this data.

7.3.1. Organisation of an Action Project

Marshall, (1950), Kerr (2005), Osler (2008), Brown & Fairbrass (2009), Cogan and Derricot (2012) and many others posit that schools have a duty to educate students to become active adult citizens. Kennelly and Llewellyn (2011) particularly note the emphasis placed by curricula in the 21st century in neoliberal democracies on active engagement. The Action Project in the CSPE syllabus aims to provide the opportunity for an experience of active citizenship for students, albeit within the context of their age and the limitations of time pressures that one period a week places on learning, in particular on participative activities.

In Chapter 4, Section 4.4, the process for organising an Action Project was outlined. The *Guide to Action Projects and Their Assessment* (DES, 2005) together with the Syllabus for CSPE (DoE, 1996) provides clear guidelines, and instructions for this task.

The model and processes for engaging action within the Action Project are very flexible; they include opportunities for class, group or individual action projects; a wide range of possible topics and methods where students are expected to take real responsibility for the roll-out and outcomes of their Action Project, and finally there are two parallel reporting formats. The study aimed at deconstructing the elements involved in taking action and exploring these with teachers and students.

57 (51%) of the teacher respondents indicated that their classes do a single class Action Project while a further 17 (15%) have indicated that they use a mix of models.

Table 7.5: Organisation of Action Project

	Total
Class Action Project:	57
Groups within the class:	5
Mixture of approaches:	17
Individual:	0
No answer:	3
Never did an Action Project **	29

n=111

** ***NOTE**: Although 39 CSPE Teachers in the questionnaire had not completed an Action Project, 10 of them answered all questions.*

Similarly, student respondents indicated that they had completed a class Action Project with their respective CSPE classes. Among the respondents in this study, no teacher or student indicated that they had done an individual Action Project, however, this does not mean that this format is never used. The Action Project which involves the class in a single action is reported as the most popular presentation, (Harrison, 2002) and the responses made by CSPE teachers and students in this study bear this out.

7.3.2. Selection of an Action Project

The intention of the CSPE Syllabus (DoE, 1996) and the Guidelines (DES, 1998 & 2005) around undertaking an Action Project is that it is student-led and arises from student interest - so as to encourage students to be more responsible and participative. In order to establish if this occurs in classrooms, teachers were asked to indicate how the Action Projects that their students had engaged in had been selected. Responses are set out in Table 7.6 below.

Table 7.6: Selecting Action Projects

Who selects?	
Students select it	20
Teacher selects it	6
Textbook	0
Content led	9
Teacher has a favourite one	2
Mixture of approaches	43
Never did an AP	29
No response	2

n=111

Most respondents (43, 38.7%) claim to use a mixture of approaches when selecting a focus or topic, although only 20 respondents said that their students always select it. Very close to this group are the 9 respondents who identified that their Action Projects generally arise out of the content being studied. These latter two approaches would be in line with the CSPE Guidelines (DES, 1998 & NCCA, 2005) which encourage this route into action.

It is interesting that no teacher admitted to doing an Action Project arising from a textbook though copious pages are allocated in all CSPE text-books to providing ideas, hints, guidance and steps for taking action. The use by teachers of a 'favourite' Action Project that they repeat with their students is not in line with good practice and removes from students the opportunity to identify their own area of interest. In terms of student participation it leaves them at the

bottom of Hart's (1992) ladder where action that is adult/teacher-led leaves student involvement at the level of 'tokenism'. Similarly the 6 teachers who selected the Action Project for their students are denying students, for whatever reason, the opportunity to choose their own cause or issue.

It has to be acknowledged that the 9 teachers who selected 'content led' may also be directed by student interest in a particular area of the course and following this avenue for the class Action Project – this route to action is also suggested in the Guidelines (2005). However, it is hard to say what level of student control over decision-making is in this approach.

7.3.3. Grouping for an Action Project

Action Projects are designed to give students experience in active citizenship, and students are encouraged to take responsibility for the organising of the action. It is common for students to organise teams, groups or committees in order to carry out whatever tasks are required by their chosen action. It is a method encouraged in the *Guide to Action Projects* (DES, 2005), where teachers are encouraged to empower students in all the decision-making aspects of doing an Action Project. How these groupings come about is of interest in exploring the level of student-versus-teacher involvement in the action.

Only 19 teacher respondents indicated that their students always group themselves, while 10 respondents noted that the grouping occurred randomly.

Table 7.7: Grouping Students for Action Projects

How students are grouped	Total
Students group themselves	19
Teacher groups students	13
Random/draw/raffle	10
Mixture of approaches	36
No answer	4
Never did an Action Project	29

n=111

Most teacher respondents (36) indicated that they used a mixture of approaches to grouping students. 13 respondents indicated that they always grouped their students in order to plan and execute the Action Project. While it is acknowledged that classes vary and that teachers may have sound insights into what might constitute a good working group in their class, it is arguable that when a teacher is unable to stand back from the processes around taking action, their students are denied the opportunity to make real decisions, to engage in real learning and thereby develop an understanding of empowerment, all of which are core underpinning principles of CSPE.

7.3.4. Commentary

The more students have control over participatory action endeavours the deeper the experience, and the more meaningful it becomes for them in terms of their learning (Fischman & Haas, 2012). When it comes to providing 'thick' citizenship education, there is an imperative that requires the teacher adopt more of the role of facilitator of learning rather than leader. Harwood (1998) values highly the impartial facilitator who maintains law and order and facilitates student action and interaction. However, the traditional role of the teacher is not one of facilitator of learning and stepping back can be difficult.

The responses of teachers to questions about organising Action Projects indicate a difficulty for some in 'letting go' and handing the reins over to students. With only 20 and 19 teachers, respectively, stating that they always let the students

choose the topic for action and select the groups to carry it out, there is clear evidence of teacher control over these aspects of the task. With only 5 of these teachers always letting their students make both decisions and most teachers (27) using a 'mix' of approaches to both tasks, (which suggests that sometimes students are making the choices), it would seem that the intention of the Syllabus (DoE, 1996) and *Guidelines for Taking Action* (DES, 2005) are not being met.

In terms of Hart's Ladder of Participation (1992), the re-distribution of power is an important point of departure for students in the shift from 'manipulation' and 'tokenism' to at least some shared level of decision making that has learning value for them. Adults need not be absent, Treseder (1997) maintained that some level of adult engagement is inevitable and indeed desirable when young people are involved in action. Vygotsky (1978) too acknowledged the importance of adult guidance; however, at the very basic level of organising groups and selecting topics there seems to be a definite role for students to take responsibility.

Why is this not happening? The fact that only some teachers use a student-directed method suggests that giving over control and responsibility to students is not easy. Other possibilities are that some teachers feel intensely the responsibility of the exam and that if students do as they are told, a good grade is guaranteed. Harrison (2008) notes the challenge experienced by teachers in handing over responsibility to students and even reports levels of anxiety for teachers standing back on the day the Action Project happens.

Comments made by teachers at various stages to open-ended questions suggest that they feel the weight of the assessment process in CSPE. Lack of knowledge around the process of the Action Project and a poor understanding of the assessment process might also lead teachers to think that they need to be in

control. A teacher of CSPE is called to be a facilitator for students engaged in action, a mentor, advisor, and overseer, providing guidance and above all encouraging students to reflect on their decisions and actions, ensuring that learning outcomes are recognised and evaluated (Harrison, 2008).

In school today many decisions are removed from the hands of students. Curricula and syllabi are nationally designed and where there is scope for choice more often than not it is the school or the teacher who makes the decisions, (i.e. choosing texts, setting tasks, organising the learning experiences). The Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) endorses the right of children (under 18) to have a voice and to be consulted/included.

As reported in this study, for some teachers there is a fine line to walk between advisor and director, and many factors impact on the roll-out of Action Projects in different school/classroom conditions. There is a culture of dependency and predictability in education where teacher knowledge dominates, and the pressure of the examination system writes the rules of engagement. It requires a shift in thinking and perspective by the teacher, the student and the system for students to be more empowered (Quinn, 2012; Bielenberg, 2008). Even in the area of CSPE where there is explicit instruction to teachers to share responsibility for learning and to enable students, it is only consistently happening in less than a quarter of the respondents surveyed in this study.

Verhellen (1999) points out that young people are citizens in the here and now. He says that they have the right to make their own decisions and the responsibility to act accordingly. He notes that they have the capacity to do just that and teachers need to be able to move off the stage and let them get on with it. There is evidence from the data that a sizable number of teachers are beginning to move in this direction as revealed in the number of these who use

a mix of teacher and student led projects. However, despite these encouraging signs, there is still work to be done in this area in Irish classrooms.

7.4. Perceptions of Action Projects

While the longitudinal study tells the story of what it is that students are doing for their Action Projects - and in what concept areas their action is focussed - it does not reveal what benefits, if any, accrue to students and what challenges this type of learning may pose.

Both the teacher and student questionnaires sought to identify their individual perception of the benefits, or otherwise, of engaging in Action Projects. The statements used are based on the case proposed in the literature for the teaching of citizenship education and the importance of active learning and active engagement by students. The lead-in sentence for students was simplified to ensure understanding and it read 'Action Projects benefit young people and are good for them because...'.

A series of statements were presented to respondents to elicit their perceptions: the option was given for them to tick True/False/Unsure in relation to each statement and to add additional comments at the end. Each of the statements is set out below with the total responses by the teachers indicated on the first line of each table (n=111 for teachers); the second line records the responses of the students (n=108). In almost all cases where 'No Answer' was recorded, the teacher respondent had not completed an Action Project and was in his/her first year of teaching CSPE.

The first set of statements relate to the likely benefits to students of engaging in an Action Project.

Table 7.8: Skills of Active Citizenship: Teacher and Student Responses

Students learn the skills of active citizenship					
True 91	False 1	Unsure 5	No answer 13	True/Unsure 1	n=111
True 79	False 7	Unsure 21	No answer 1		n=108

There was a very clear response to this statement: clearly most teachers (91, 82%) and students believe that doing Action Projects enables students to develop the skills needed for active citizenship. It is noticeable that the 'Unsure' response was used more often throughout the questionnaire by students than by teachers, while the 'No answer' in the teacher responses emanated also exclusively from teachers who had never done an Action Project.

An even larger number of teachers and students agreed that students benefit from doing an Action Project in terms of learning how to work as a team.

Table 7.9: Teamwork: Teacher and Student Responses

Students learn how to work as a team				
True 97	False 2	Unsure 0	No answer 12	n=111
True 96	False 6	Unsure 6		n=108

Most Action Projects are team effort (SEC Chief Examiners Report, 2009). It is noteworthy that both sets of respondents, teachers and students, believe that the Action Project supports the acquisition of teamwork skills. The Guidelines (NCCA, 2005) suggest the use of teams or groups or committees to facilitate the organisation of the action and suggest the division of responsibilities to ensure that all students have a role to play.

Table 7.10: Adult/Future Skills: Teacher and Student Responses

Students practice skills they might need as adults				
True 92	False 1	Unsure 5	No answer = 13	n=111
True 84	False 15	Unsure 9		n=108

In the light of the focus placed in citizenship education literature on the importance of preparing students *for* citizenship as thinking, active, confident

citizens, it is interesting that such a high level of respondents, 84 students and 92 teachers, believe that doing an Action Project enables students to practise the skills needed for their future lives as adults. Only one teacher respondent said that it did not do this, and she was a teacher with two years' experience and one year of teaching CSPE. She recorded 'true' for all other statements and did not explain her 'false' rating here.

The next statement was the lowest ranked benefit to students of undertaking an Action Project with only 67 (60.3%) of teacher respondents and 63 (58.3%) of students thinking that it enabled students to make real decisions.

Table 7.11: Decision Making: Teacher and Student Responses

Students make real decisions				
True 67	False 11	Unsure 19	No answer 14	n=111
True 63	False 22	Unsure 23		n=108

The similarity in their viewpoints is interesting. In the light of the fact that 23 teachers noted that they select the groups for Action Projects, or randomly select them, and a further 36 noted that they use a combination of approaches when deciding on groups to carry out the Action Project (see tables 7.6 and 7.7), it would reinforce the point that a sizeable number of teachers are not yet ready to hand over control to students doing an Action Project. The student responses bear this out with 45 responses either 'Unsure' about making real decision or indicating that they did not see Action Projects in terms of empowering students to make real decisions ('False'). These responses were across all four schools as follows.

Table 7.12: Decision Making: Student 'False' and 'Unsure' Responses

Students from:		False and Unsure Responses
Voluntary Secondary	All Boys	8 out of 30
Voluntary Secondary	All Girls	8 out of 18
VEC School	Mixed	12 out of 30
Community College	Mixed	17 out of 30

The 19 'Unsure' teacher responses came from respondents with a mixture of experience – 4 had never completed an Action Project, 5 had completed at least three and the remainder had named either one or two Action Projects they had completed with their students. Twice as many students than teachers gave this statement a 'false' rating suggesting a definite belief held by these respondents that students were not making the decisions.

Table 7.13: Real-World Engagement: Teacher and Student Responses

Students engage in real-world learning				
True 89	False 1	Unsure 8	No answer = 13	n=111
True 76	False 9	Unsure 22	No answer = 1	n=108

The stated aim of the Action Project is to engage young people beyond the textbook and usually beyond the classroom with real-life issues and experiences (DES, 2005) and the importance of such learning has been endorsed by many others including Birdwell et al. (2013) and Fiske whose philosophy of 'learning in deed' finds a reality in the Action Project. 89 (80%) teacher respondents and 76 (70%) students agreed that the Action Project enables students cross the threshold to engage at the real-world level. This is a key element in terms of the thick model of citizenship education enshrined in CSPE and a strong indicator of support that this aspect of CSPE is working well in school.

Another important aspect of the Action Project is that it involves all students in the class or group in the action: according to the Guidelines (DES, 2005) for taking action every student must have a role in the action. In the *Report on an*

Action Project booklet provided by the State Examinations Commission and submitted for assessment, every student must describe his/her individual role in the process. The responses made by the teachers (below) to this statement indicate that the majority 72 (65%) think that this inclusive intention is indeed happening, although it should be acknowledged that 12 teacher respondents did not agree, and a further 14 were unsure. Students, more so than teachers, agreed that the inclusion of all is a benefit with 83 (77%) of them believing this to be true.

Table 7.14: Inclusive of all Students: Teacher and Student Responses

Action Projects include all students in the group				
True 72	False 12	Unsure 14	No answer 13	n=111
True 83	False 14	Unsure 9		n=108

Two additional comments were made with one teacher noting that it is 'not always a benefit' and the other making the point that 'sometimes students are not aware of the value of their part in the larger group task'. No student made an additional comment here.

The judgements made by respondents regarding the benefit of doing an Action Project as a means to making learning more interesting were very positive, with only two teachers disagreeing.

Table 7.15: Interesting: Teacher and Student Responses

Interesting: Action Projects make learning more interesting				
True = 92	False = 2	Unsure = 4	No answer = 13	n=111
True = 83	False = 12	Unsure = 13		n=108

This is in keeping with the 'other benefits' comments volunteered by respondents, specifically regarding the added value of the Action Project to teaching CSPE. When the 13 teacher respondents, all of whom have never done an Action Project are excluded, then a total of 94% of respondents agreed that this was a more interesting way of learning.

Table 7.16: Develops Character: Teacher and Student Responses

Character: Action Projects help to develop character				
True 87	False 5	Unsure 5	No answer 13	n = 111
True 74	False 18	Unsure 13		n = 108

The teacher respondents here were in agreement that engaging in an Action Project had the benefit of developing student character. In the student questionnaire the term 'character' was explained with the words 'responsibility/awareness/spirit' included in brackets at the end of the statement. Students too expressed a positive belief in the value of the Action Project to develop character.

Table 7.17: Social Justice: Teacher and Student Responses

Social Justice: Action Projects make students more aware of social justice issues				
True 82	False 0	Unsure 14	No answer 15	n = 111
True 78	False 10	Unsure 19	No answer 1	n = 108

Issues of social justice are at the heart of citizenship education and no teacher disagreed regarding the benefit to students of acquiring awareness around such issues by undertaking an Action Project. 14 (12.6%) teacher respondents were unsure about this and once again these were a mix of new and experienced teachers. Similarly students agreed that this is part of the learning in doing an Action Project with 78 (72%) rating it as 'True', 29 students were either 'unsure' about this point or said this it was 'false' and one student left it blank. One student who had given a 'true' response commented that 'Students can raise awareness for social justice issues and other people hear about it,' demonstrating an understanding of the impact of action beyond the classroom.

The following table summarises the 'True' responses given by teacher and student participants to the statements around the benefits to students of doing an Action Project.

Table 7.18: Number of 'True' Responses: Teacher and Student Responses

Benefits: 'True' responses	Teachers		Students
Learn to work as a team	97 (87%)		96 (89%)
Interesting way to learn	92 (83%)		83 (77%)
Practice skills for adulthood	92 (83%)		84 (78%)
Learn the skills of active citizenship	91 (82%)		79 (73%)
Real-world learning	89 (80%)		76 (70%)
Develops character	87 (78%)		74 (69%)
Learn about social justice	82 (74%)		78 (72%)
Involves all in the group	72 (65%)		83 (77%)
Students make real decisions	67 (60%)		63 (58%)

Although the teachers and students have different ratings for some benefits, they both have the same top ranked benefit – 'Learn to work as a team' and the same lowest ranked benefit 'Students make real decisions'.

The difference between teacher and student ratings is attributable to the number of 'False' and 'Unsure' responses made. These cut across every statement. It is noticeable that students gave a significant number of 'Unsure' responses to many statements, while teachers were less inclined to give this rating (see table 7.19). The highest number of 'Unsure' responses from students was around the statement concerning the benefit of students making real decisions which suggests that these students did not feel empowered in their Action Project experience.

Table 7.19: Number of 'Unsure' Responses: Student and Teacher Responses

Benefits: 'Unsure' responses	Students	Teachers
Learn to work as a team	6	0
Includes all in the group	9	14
Practice skills for adulthood	9	5
Interesting way to learn	13	4
Develops character	13	5
Learn about social justice	19	14
Learn the skills of active citizenship	21	5
Real-world learning	22	8
Students make real decisions	23	19
in each case above	*n = 108*	*n = 111*

Similarly the student 'False' responses were highest in the area of making real decisions as part of their doing an Action Project (table 7.18).

Table 7.20: Number of 'False' Responses: Student and Teacher Responses

Benefits: 'False' responses	Students	Teachers
Learn to work as a team	6	2
Learn the skills of active citizenship	7	1
Real-world learning	9	1
Learn about social justice	10	0
Interesting way to learn	12	2
Involves all in the group	14	12
Practice skills for adulthood	15	1
Develops character	18	5
Students make real decisions	22	11
in each case above	*n = 108*	*n = 111*

7.4.1. Other Benefits

When asked to identify any other benefits of doing Action Projects, 18 responses were provided by teachers. These were categorised into the following 5 themes.

Table 7.21: Other Benefits: Teacher Responses

Type of comment:	Number of teachers
It gives personal validation to students	5
It's a fun way to learn	4
Lets them connect with contemporary issues	3
It has 'added value' benefits for teaching	2
Helps students to develop confidence	2

The main skills identified were skills of communication, teamwork, responsibility and skills in general. These comments were made by teachers with a range of teaching and CSPE experience. The 'fun way to learn' comments compare the 'more interesting way to learn' comment previously endorsed and as a benefit of taking action can sometimes be overlooked.

33 student respondents also identified 'other benefits'; some of their comments focussed particularly on the actual Action Project that they had undertaken, for example, one student said 'Mine made me aware of the intellectual difficulties of people in my area and how they should not be treated any differently', another noted that 'They provide a better evaluation of students skills than the actual exam given', and also in relation to the exam another noted that it 'Helps students to remember material for the exam because of the practical learning'.

More students (33) than teachers (16) included comments and these comments are categorised below. There were some similarities and differences with the teacher in the points expressed.

Table 7.22: Other Benefits: Student Responses

Type of comment:	Students
It is easier to understand and remember than book learning	8 comments
Learn how the country works/how to vote	6
Learned about new people and places/go places	6
Learn to take responsibilities, get involved	5
Develop hands-on skills e.g. leadership, communication, self-confidence for later life	4
It helps students who are not so academic	2
Remember more when doing it than watching	2

There is a strong sense from the comments made by students that they are very aware of the learning potential of Action Projects. Both teachers and students identified the way in which doing an Action Project develops self-confidence and other skills. It is the students (in two different schools) who noted that Action Projects are good for the 'not so academic.' One student made an interesting comment that 'It gives you a small feeling of actually doing something'. This is a telling insight into the ability of the Action Project to empower students.

Notably too, 10 students focussed on the Action Project making learning easier than learning in other formats.

7.4.2. Commentary

Looking at the goals of education in the very broadest sense includes not just teaching students 'how to' but also involves providing opportunities for students to practice and to use in 'real-life' situations, the skills they will need to act as citizens today and tomorrow (Ichilov, 2013; Audigier, 2008; Fiske, 2001; Marshall, 1950) and to develop the disposition, the character needed to inform their thinking and give them the confidence to act (Arthur, 2005; Althof & Berkowitz, 2006).

The responses of students and teachers to the statements of benefits above endorse the value of an active participatory citizenship education that goes beyond the classroom. In terms of skills development, disposition, knowledge and understanding of the real world and issues within it, both teachers and students agree that the Action Project experience opens the door for students to deeper, 'thicker' learning. This is evident from the range of 'true' responses to the statements presented which is consistently high, ranging from 60% to 87% for teachers and 58% to 89% for students.

However in terms of decision making, and teachers sharing this task with students, both student and teacher responses suggest that this element of engaging in action is not always shared. Both Hart (1992) and Arnstein (1967) note in their respective typologies, that when adults do not share power and the decision-making role with young people, then the level of youth participation is negatively impacted.

7.4.2.1. Development of Skills

The shift in emphasis to the development of skills - over the simple acquisition of knowledge - is a fundamental feature of *Junior Certificate Framework* (NCCA, 1993). Furthermore, it is stated explicitly in the CSPE Syllabus (1996) that one of the primary aims of the course is to enable students to develop the skills needed for active participation. Its primacy over the simple acquisition of knowledge, as is the case for 'thin' citizenship education, is clearly stated. The DES Guidelines (1999 & 2005) include examples of the type of skills that students might acquire and develop over the course of an Action Project, such as the skills of effective communication, or negotiation or social skills or ICT skills. Similar examples are to be found in the *Introduction to CSPE* produced by the Professional Development Service for Teachers (PDST, 2011).

The fact that Action Projects enable students to develop teamwork skills and to learn how to work as part of a team is clearly endorsed in the rankings by both sets of respondents. These are key life-skills, valued in the work-place, in society at large and essential for effective citizenship (ANCSS, 2001; Ross, 2008).

Teachers agree that the Action Project is benefitting students and meeting the skills objective set out for the subject. This is a critical dimension of citizenship education and fundamental to instilling in the future generation of adults the skills that will enable them to act. If the focus is on education *through* and *for* citizenship, then the acquisition of relevant skills is the key (Kerr, 1999). No more than students of English learn the skill of essay-writing by writing essays, so it is that tomorrow's citizens learn the skills of active citizenship by taking action that involves the use and the development of such skills. In terms of life skills, the ability to work as part of a team has high value. Various teaching approaches, most notably co-operative learning, set out to instil skills of collaborative teamwork, collective responsibility, individual and group accountability (Johnson and Johnson 1999).

At the other end of the scale the issue of who is making the real decisions when it comes to Action Projects is raised again as teachers and students have placed this as the lowest ranked benefit. A majority of respondents in both groups (60% teachers and 58% students) have agreed it is a benefit but this can also be read as 40-42% do not believe that students are benefiting from this aspect of engaging in an active participatory citizenship education experience. As with the issues raised earlier regarding who chooses the Action Project and who groups the students, we return to Hart's ladder (1992) and the issue of tokenism or real youth participation.

The references by teachers to contemporary issues in the Action Projects that their students had done and by students in comments about having the

opportunity to learn 'about places and about things that are going on' and people such as Ban Ki Moon are interesting in the light of what Hammond (2010), McCarthy (2014) and Regan (2010) noted were the aims of the subject - to connect students and classrooms with the real world. Audsley, Chitty, O'Connell, Watson and Wills (2013) writing about the British experience of citizenship education comment on the 'disconnect' between society and the school, while Niemi and Junn (1998) identify the need for real world experiences rather than the 'naïve view' that glosses over reality and is contained in some textbooks in the USA. The longitudinal data contains many examples of real world engagement in each and all of the core concept areas.

Citizenship education is typically seen as being very important in terms of producing the citizens of tomorrow (Bell, 2004; Peirce & Hillgarten, 2000), educating those who will be the next generation of adult citizens, voters, activists, environmentalists, volunteers and leaders. It is interesting that respondents believed that doing an Action Project enables students to acquire the skills needed for their future as adults. From the evidence of this study, Marshall's (1950) notion of shaping the future adult is realised in active, responsible citizenship.

7.4.2.2. Social Justice

The key figures in the development of the CSPE curriculum cited the Humanities as their common experience; they brought this rather than political science to bear on its development and in the process helped to shape the syllabus. The concept of social justice was one of the underpinning criteria, a 'big idea' that informed the foundation of CSPE (Regan & Hammond interviews, 2010). In the 1990s such issues as liberation theology, development education, social justice were high-profile issues (McCarthy, 2014). For the developers of the CSPE curriculum, all of whom had contact with Trócaire, and had been involved in development issues in the Global South, raising

awareness of social responsibility in the face of social injustice was embedded in the subject (Hammond, McCarthy & Regan, Interviews 2010 & 2014), as were other key issues like sustainability, poverty, human rights education, education for democratic citizenship. The data from both phases of this study suggest that students are really engaging with issues of social justice and over 70% of students and teachers agreed with this statement, all of which suggests that this aim of the study has been realised.

Many Action Projects in the longitudinal study were founded on topics of social justice and the CSPE State examination paper (written paper) would have such issues on it every year. The area of social justice is where many of the NGOs who are represented in the data as the focus of guest speaker action, fundraising, visits, awareness raising and campaigns are located. Social Justice is the hallmark of these organisations. A trawl through the various CSPE text-books on the market reveals that social justice issues such as poverty, homelessness, inequality, discrimination, exploitation and racism are all issues that are explored in detail mainly through the use of exemplars, stories and an exposé of the work of NGOs in the field.

In the light to all the exposure to aspects of the concept of social justice, I suggest that the 'false' and 'unsure' responses recorded from students (10 (9.2%) and 19 (17.6%) respectively) arise because of the very broad and unfamiliar nature of the term.

7.5. Teacher Perceptions of the Challenges of Doing Action Projects

A second set of statements were provided that focussed this time on the challenges that Action Projects pose for teachers and students. Once again the literature on citizenship education was drawn on to inform the development of these statements, together with local knowledge of what is perceived as the challenges facing CSPE teachers and students taking action. Overall it is

noticeable that the responses given were more mixed than the previous data set on the benefits of Action Projects.

The top line of each table represents the responses of the full cohort of teacher respondents (n=111) while the bottom line represents the responses of the students (n =108). The responses to statements are set out below.

Table 7.23: Motivation Issue: Teacher and Student Responses

Motivate: It is difficult to motivate students to get involved					
True 43	False 32	Unsure 18	No answer 17	Sometimes 1*	n=111
True 69	False 25	Unsure 14			n=108

**One additional respondent chose none of the above options but wrote 'Certain students only'*

Motivating students to get involved and taking on the role and responsibility of the active learner can pose difficulties for some teachers. 43 (39%) respondents agreed that motivating students is indeed a challenge for CSPE teachers. Only 32 (29%) respondents indicated that they did not have a difficulty in this area.

The one teacher respondent who said 'certain students only' suggests that some students are easily motivated while others are not, and this might encapsulate the 43:32 True/ False ratio overall. A substantial number didn't respond or were unsure. On the other hand 64% of students (69) believe that it is difficult to get students interested in taking action, with only 25 (23%) students saying the opposite. The term 'motivated' was replaced with 'interested' on the student questionnaire to ensure that they understood the question.

Table 7.24: Role Issue: Teacher and Student Responses

It is difficult to find a job for everyone					
True 65	False 20	Unsure 9	No answer 16	Unsure/sometimes 1	n=111
True 68	False 36	Unsure 4			n=108

The assessment instruments for reporting on an Action Project in the Junior Cert require that students give an account of an individual task that they did.

This places an onus on teachers and students at the planning stage to ensure that each student has a role to play and a job to do in the Action Project. 65 (58.5%) teacher respondents agree that this is a difficulty with only 20 (18%) who did not see a challenge for teachers here. A majority of students (63%) also saw the challenge posed in ensuring everyone has a role to play in the Action Project.

Table 7.25: Topic Issue: Teacher and Student Responses

It is difficult to pick the right topic				
True 47 *	False 37	Unsure 12	No answer 14	n=111
True 65	False 31	Unsure 12		n=108

**One teacher respondent also wrote 'True, boundaries are too wide'*

It is surprising that in the light of all the guidance available for taking action, that finding the correct topic for doing an Action Project is identified as being difficult. The comment that the 'boundaries are too wide' was made by a teacher who is new to the subject, in her second year of teaching and in her first year of teaching CSPE. The high rate of student agreement with this statement suggests that students see themselves in the role of picking the topic in the first instance. The 65 'true' student responses here came across all school data sets.

Table 7.26: Textbook Issue: Teacher and Student Responses

The textbooks are no good					
True 31	False 41	Unsure 22	No answer 16	Some 1	n=111
True 39	False 31	Unsure 21	No textbook 17		n=108

This statement was designed to capture an often made remark by teachers regarding the quality of school text-books. 31 teachers felt that the textbooks were inadequate but 41 respondents felt that they were good, though a further 22 (19.8%) were unsure as to how good CSPE textbooks are, breaking down as 11 experienced and 11 new teachers of CSPE.

In the case of the students, one school does not use any textbooks; the remaining students are about 50/50 regarding their views of textbooks.

Table 7.27: Reporting on the Action: Teacher and Student Responses

Report: Students with learning difficulties find Report writing problematic					
True 74	False 3	Unsure 18	No answer 15	Sometimes = 1	n=111
True 76	False 17	Unsure 15			n=108

74 (67%) of teacher respondents and 76 (70.4%) of students identified this challenge as the greatest one that faces them in relation to Action Projects. This statement had the highest response rate of all in terms of challenges facing both teachers and students.

It is interesting that in both data sets there is agreement in ranking this as the greatest challenge. This suggests that the write-up of the Action Project for the written CSPE State examination in the subject is more challenging than the actual undertaking of the action. However, it is not surprising; many students with learning difficulties have no difficulty when it comes to taking action, taking responsibility and getting involved but the literacy skills needed to write about this are a totally different set of skills. In assessing the Action Project by means of a terminal written examination, an additional element -which is clearly problematic for some students and teachers - has been overlaid on the action.

As the cohort of teachers who teach CSPE are not drawn exclusively from any one subject area, many CSPE teachers do not have a literacy background themselves. This may be a significant factor in this response and asking respondents for their subject background would have been an interesting piece of profile data to have acquired for comparison purposes here.

Table 7.28: Time for Doing Issue: Teacher and Student Responses

The time for doing an AP is very tight				
True 50	False 35	Unsure 10*	No answer 15	n= 111
True 35	False 61	Unsure 12		n=108

**One additional comment 'Unsure - if you start early enough it's ok, otherwise it's very difficult'.*

The fact that CSPE has usually only one period a week on the timetable has been cited in the study as a challenge in terms of getting the course covered and in completing an Action Project (Jeffers, 2008). It is a point that features strongly in later self-generated responses by teachers. 50 (45%) respondents agree that the time is very tight but 35 (31.5%) have indicated that the time frame is not a challenge for them.

Student responses here are at variance to teacher comments: the majority of them 61 (56%) did not see time as a challenge – this may be because the time was managed for them by their teachers to a greater extent.

When asked about the time for writing up the Action Project, the largest response group of teachers (46, 42%) thought that this was very tight while a majority of students (55, 51%) did not. These responses suggest that students may be using their once-off personal experience of the assessment process to answer this question, having just completed their Junior Certificate, while teachers may be generalising about the task in a more general way. Sometimes too it is the teacher who manages the timing of assessment, and so takes on the stress of meeting deadlines. The data suggests that time is emerging as an issue among the teachers more so than students.

Table 7.29: Time for Writing Issue: Teacher and Student Responses

The time for writing up an AP is very tight				
True 46	False 30	Unsure 20	No answer 15	n=111
True 45	False 55	Unsure 8		n=108

Time is emerging as an issue among teachers and less so for students; this suggests that the responsibility for the timing may be taken over by teachers with students just working within the set parameters. When comparing the two sets of responses around the issue of time it is noticeable that double the number of teachers respondents indicated that they were 'unsure' regarding this challenge of writing up an Action Project in comparison to having the time

to actually do the Action Project. The emphasis in the data suggests that it is the examination element which poses the greatest challenge. This might be said of most subjects in school; there is a dichotomy between studying any subject on the one hand and taking an examination in it on the other. Studying poetry or history or a language for example, and writing about it in examination are very different tasks.

It is worth noting that the 10 'Unsure' respondents in the 'Doing an Action Project' response and the 20 'Unsure' in the 'writing-up' response are all new, or relatively new to CSPE and none had completed an Action Project. Only three students gave an 'unsure' rating to both statements indicating that they did not regard time as a challenge. The following table ranks the 'true' responses made by students and teachers. They are ranked according to the greatest challenges identified by the student respondents.

Table 7.30: Number of 'True' Responses: Teachers and Students

Challenges: 'True' responses	**Teachers**	**Students**
Students with learning difficulties find Report writing problematic	74 (67%)	76 (70%)
Finding a job for everyone	65 (60%)	68 (64%)
Time for **doing** an Action Project	50 (45%)	35 (42%)
Selecting a topic	47 (42%)	65 (61%)
Time for **writing-up** an Action Project	46 (41%)	45 (36%)
Difficult to motivate/interest students	43 (39%)	69 (64%)
Textbooks are not adequate	31 (28%)	39 (36%)
in each case above	*n = 111*	*n = 108*

Fifteen to seventeen teachers did not give any response to the statements regarding challenges: all of these had never done an Action Project.

7.5.1. False and Unsure Responses

The number of 'False' and 'Unsure' responses cut across every statement. It is noticeable that students gave a high number of 'False' responses to the statement in relation to time for doing Action Project (see below table 7.31). Subsequently, the issue of time was noted and highlighted in the open-ended responses given by many teachers at the end of the questionnaire.

Table 7.31: Number of 'False' Responses: Student and Teacher Responses

Challenges: 'False' responses	**Students**	**Teachers**
Time for **doing** an Action Project	61	35
Time for **writing-up** an Action Project	55	30
Selecting a topic	31	37
Textbooks are not adequate	31	41
Finding a job for everyone	36	20
Difficult to motivate/interest students	25	32
Students with learning difficulties find Report writing problematic	17	3
in each case above	*n = 108*	*n = 111*

A false response suggests that the respondent did not rate this issue as a challenge.

The number of 'Unsure' responses from students and teachers were quite low and interestingly the rating of responses was the same for both groups except for the final issue where more teachers than students were unsure of the challenge posed in terms of writing up an Action Project (see Table 7.32).

Table 7.32: Number of 'Unsure' Responses: Student and Teacher Responses

Challenges: 'Unsure' responses	Students	Teachers
Textbooks are not adequate	21	22
Students with learning difficulties find Report writing problematic	15	18
Difficult to motivate/interest students	14	18
Selecting a topic	12	12
Time for **doing** an Action Project	12	10
Finding a job for everyone	9	4
Time for **writing-up** an Action Project	8	20
in each case above	*n = 108*	*n = 111*

7.5.2. Other Challenges

Respondents were asked to include any additional challenges that face those engaged in Action Projects. 19 teacher comments were presented altogether and significantly 10 of these focussed on the issue of time, citing 'time constraints', 'timetabling restrictions', and 'insufficient hours' as big challenges. Other comments focussed on workplace issues such as 'finding a classroom suitable for active learning', 'managing different groups all engaged in different activities in different places in the school', 'choosing a topic' was mentioned again, as was the issue of the difficulties posed for 'weak students' and 'non-National students'.

One respondent, new to teaching CSPE, noted the challenge posed by 'classmates who did not want to co-operate with each other' and another noted that some students 'do not like working in groups'. Two teacher respondents also harked back to the examination issue and remarked on the challenges posed by the assessment format and difficulties encountered in 'accessing and completing the Report on an Action Project'; as the booklets referred to here are free to download on the State Examinations website and a reminder letter to that effect is sent each year, this teacher seems not to be informed of the supports available. On examination of the data what is surprising is that this

teacher has 22 years teaching experience, is 11 years teaching CSPE and has recorded 3 recent Action Projects undertaken with students. Lack of essential knowledge among teachers would be a concern, though it is only one teacher who made this point in this study and generalising from this comment would not be valid.

Table 7.33: Challenges Identified by Teachers

Other Challenges	No. of Teachers
Timetabling/Time	10
Group work/ getting students to co-operate	2
Weak students/Students with EAL needs	2
Writing up the Report	1
Multi-tasking	1
Choosing the 'best topic'	1
Getting a RAP or CWAB to practice with	1
Finding a suitable classroom for active work	1

A total of 42 comments were made by students in response to the invitation to identify other difficulties around Action Projects. Some focussed on personal issues in doing and/or writing-up their own work such as 'Difficult getting all the info you need' or 'Sometimes it is hard not to be biased if you're helping an organisation' and 'Copying between students and a lack of material for the report on the project was a difficulty'. A number of other general categories were identified as follows.

Table 7.34: Other Challenges: Students

Other challenges identified	No. of students
One class a week/not enough classes	15
No textbook (in school with no textbook)	8
People not doing their jobs	4
Getting students interested/focussed (Motivation issue)	4

There is clear overlap evident in the student and teacher additional comments based on their perceptions of the challenges that face them in undertaking

Action Projects, this is most evident in the identification of the time constraints felt by both sets or respondents accounting as it does for 10 out of 19 (53%) teacher responses and 15 out of 42 (36%) student responses.

7.5.3. Commentary

Both students and teachers are aware of, and have identified, the challenges presented in engaging in Action Projects in the light of the time available for them, one period a week in most cases. This point has been emphasised by others (see Harrison, 2008; Murphy, 2008; Jeffers, 2008; Hammond 2010).

Both teachers and students commented on the practical issue of the person who is not 'doing their job'. The reality of coping with this issue in the context of group work is a good example of how Action Projects provide real-world scenarios with which students have to cope. Resolving such dilemmas is critical to a successful Action Project and as every student must include an account of his/her role in the Action Project in the Report booklet, there is an imperative to find a solution. The study did not address how (or if?) the challenges identified were overcome

7.5.3.1. Engaging Students

The issue of motivating students, getting them interested and focussed was identified by students and teachers in this study as a challenge. Haste (2004) noted that the combination of the practical with theoretical knowledge is a means of engaging students, yet getting students 'interested' is an area where students in particular believe that there is a difficulty. In the rating task on the questionnaire, 64% of students and in the additional comments received (4 students) motivation has been alluded to as a problem. The dis-engagement by many young people from society, apathy, indifference and a lack of a sense of belonging have been identified as the drivers of citizenship education (Ichilov, 2005; Kennelly & Llewellyn, 2011; Ainley, Schulz & Friedman, 2013).

As student participation is a key aim of the Action Project methodology, motivating students to get involved, taking the role of active learner can be a difficult task for teachers (Murphy, 2008). Teenagers may not be drawn to taking action having little or no opportunity to do so in their past educational experience; they may be at a remove from topical or social issues and may not realise the power they have as citizens today (Verhellen, 2004a). Interestingly in the first data set on the benefits of doing an Action Project, 92 (83%) teachers and 83 (77%) students thought that it made learning more interesting; there is a clear disconnect between the two different phases of the learning cycle in undertaking an Action Project, getting students interested, and finding the actual experience interesting.

In many ways the education system itself rewards the acquisition of knowledge, traditionally learned in more passive ways, over the acquisition of learning through experience (Lawy & Biesta, 2006). That is not to say that teachers don't aspire to enable their students to acquire the knowledge, develop the skills and dispositions for responsible adulthood where students achieve their potential- but the system itself with its emphasis on terminal written examinations and a points-race for third level places impacts on students and the value they place on what appears to be less serious learning (Gleeson, 2008). When it comes to education for active participatory citizenship there are a certain set of skills needed which students may need to develop or acquire in order to engage in action. It is part of the task of citizenship education, and the CSPE teacher, to empower and realise these competencies. This study has identified that Action Projects enable the skills of active citizenship; both teachers and students confirmed this (see table 7.8). This is also a primary goal of the CSPE Syllabus (DoE, 1996).

7.5.3.2. Timetabling

The timetabling model for teaching CSPE, one 35 to 40 minute period a week, is the context for the organisation of Action Projects. Both teachers and students in the study identified time-pressure and timetabling as an issue. Within the limited timeframe for CSPE the opportunity for action is somewhat restricted: the Guidelines (DES, 2005) may suggest models for cross-curricular action and ways of overcoming the time constraint of one period a week but the responses made in the study about the single period for the subject suggest that the only model in operation is the discrete one CSPE period. If factored into that then are issues such as teachers only having their CSPE class for the one subject (as one teacher put it 'Teachers given a different class every year makes it difficult to know and form relationships with students'), lack of teacher continuity from one year to the next, and teachers coming new to the subject with little knowledge of its parameters, then 40 minutes a week on a timetable is going to be a challenge.

Second level education in Ireland is subject based and teachers are subject specialist, and registered as such. A type of citizenship education that asks teachers to step outside of that model needs support. One 40 minute period a week may be seen as an add-on to the real work of the teacher in his/her subject specialist area. This whole model impacts on the low status of the subject (Harrison, 2008). The syllabus (DoE, 1996) requires two action Projects over the three years of the Junior Cycle: it encourages a cross-curricular approach but does not suggest whose responsibility it is to make that happen. While citizenship education occurs in many spaces, specific active participation has to be planned, organised and executed. This takes time.

The Action Project titles in the longitudinal study suggest that time to go on trips or host guest speaker or hold fundraisers is accessed beyond the discrete CSPE timetable period but teachers in particular are challenged again by the

time available for students to write the report on their Action Project which will be submitted for assessment in the Junior Certificate Examination. The call for citizenship education to have a profile outside of the discrete period on a timetable (QCA, 1998; Jeffers 2008; Harrison, 2008) is credible and urgent.

7.5.3.3. Reporting on an Action Project

As an assessed subject on the curriculum, unlike citizenship education in other jurisdictions, CSPE students have to present their work as part of the state examination process. This element of the subject, as with other subject area subcultures, influences the role of the teacher and impacts on the teaching and learning process (Bean, 2011). Time and again teachers mentioned in their responses the tension that exists between students taking action and then writing about that action when it has been completed. Both teacher and student respondents note that writing about the Action Project poses a real challenge for students with literacy and learning difficulties, including students for whom English is not their first language.

Teachers are under pressure to prepare students for the assessment and as the CSPE Action Project report written outside of exam conditions, carries 60% of the total mark, teachers have an added responsibility to know what students should be presenting. This responsibility was evident in the challenges viewed by teachers: few commented on challenges regarding 'doing' Action Projects but the writing up element was clearly an identified challenge for them. In particular preparing students to reflect on their learning as part of the pro-forma assessment booklet was identified as being an area of real difficulty. Reflection on action is innovative in formal assessment models: I could not find anything similar in other jurisdictions in that formal sense. It requires a higher order type thinking that teachers need to understand, teach and facilitate.

The particular context of CSPE as an assessed subject within the system is also of importance as a student's final grade is presented on the statement of results in the Junior Cert examination. Exam pressure makes the time-limited nature of the subject of more concern. Although the examination system provides support in the shape of pro-forma booklets to guide the reporting stage, and the write-up itself happens in the classroom not the examination hall, this aspect of the Action Project was ranked as the greatest challenge for teachers and students. Teacher guidance of this process is expected (Guidelines, DES, 1998: DES, 2005), so teachers identifying this as a difficulty suggests a lack of understanding of the process and /or a lack of skill in working with students who have learning difficulties in the area of report writing/literacy. The taking of action and the reporting of action are very different tasks: in the assessment of Action Projects there is a forced coming together of these two elements.

The data suggests that the assessment model likely impacts the scope of the actions undertaken in that they need to fit into the pre-ordained format for reporting. The findings in the longitudinal study, where there is a consistent emphasis on the safe, easily written-up action could be explained in part by the Report product impacting the action process.

CSPE is the only Irish Junior Certificate examination set at a common level, but all the arguments that were there at the development stage of the subject still apply. The examination grades the written report on the active participatory element of the subject awarding an A, B, C, D, E, F and No Grade to the account of the action presented. While this could be construed as being against the very nature of an inclusive education model, the aim of the assessment mode is founded on the belief that the assessment would ensure that the subject would be taught and given a status not enjoyed by its predecessor subject, Civics (Hammond, 2010; McCarthy, 2014).

7.6. The Weighting for the Action Project in the CSPE Examination

McCarthy (2014) noted that it was always the intention to reward the active engagement of students in Action Projects by awarding 60% of the overall marks to the report on the Action Project presented in the State Examination. Both Regan (2010) and Hammond (2010) confirmed this deliberate decision to acknowledge the participatory citizenship project in the terminal examination. This weighting (60%) is unique in the Irish examination system; while other subjects such as Home Economics, Science and Religion also award a percentage for project work by students in these subjects, none give 60% to this component in the assessment.

Both teacher and student respondents were asked to consider this weighting and to comment on the 60% in total awarded to the Action Project. 10 teachers gave either no response or said that they didn't know/had no opinion. Of the remaining 101 respondents 69 (69%) indicated that they felt the weighting was just right. 29 teachers thought it was too much and 3 thought it was too little. All 10 teacher respondents who felt that the 60% weighting was 'too much' were new to CSPE and had never done an Action Project with their students.

The majority of students too were in favour of the 60% weighting for the Action Project with a very similar pattern or response from both groups evident.

Table 7.35: The Weighting of Marks for the AP in the Junior Cert Exam

	Teachers n=111	Students n=108
Just right	69	70
Too much	29	35
Too little	3	3
No answer	10	0

Those who thought that the weighting was not right were invited to suggest an alternative. The following suggestions were made:

Table 7.36: Alternative Action Project Weighting

Number of respondents suggesting LESS than 60%	Alternative %
1 student suggested	55%
12 teachers suggested 19 students suggested (The Modal suggestion)	50%
2 students suggested	45%
9 teachers suggested 11 students suggested (This would invert the current rating.)	40%
1 student suggested	35%
2 teachers suggested 1 student suggested	30%
1 teacher suggested	0%
5 teacher respondents made no alternative suggestion	
Number of respondents suggesting MORE than 60%	
3 teachers suggested (1 each) 3 students suggested (1 each)	70%, 80%, 100% 70% 70% 90%

Respondents were also invited to make comments regarding the weighting in the CSPE examination, only one teacher who said the balance was 'just right' commented saying that it 'Gives students a good opportunity to get a good grade'. One student also commented 'You put all the hard work into the Action Project so it's only fair that it gets the most marks'.

Of those who said that 60% was 'Too much', four teacher comments were made in which respondents noted that 'So much time is spent on other aspects of the course the Action Project might not cover the work covered especially for weak students whose English might be poor', '60% is too high to allocate to any one particular area. Pupils want to focus on the written exam' and 'they do a lot more in class besides the Action Project'. One respondent felt that 'Students feel

that having covered the 60% there is no need to study for the exam.'! These comments reflect the exam emphasis which influences some teachers more than others. Of the respondents who said the 60% was too little, none provided a rationale for his/her suggestion.

No student added a comment or reason if they had suggested an alternative percentage.

7.6.1. Commentary

Within the context of a terminal Junior Certificate examination, where each individual exam candidate must present an account of his/her own role in the process of the Action Project, the assessment model itself demands that each student has a part to play and this is validated in the model. Ensuring that all students are included and have a task to complete runs the risk of being a type of pseudo-action if tasks are meaningless - or if students are simply being asked to fit in as 'actors' and to replicate behaviour that adults deem appropriate (Hill et al., 2004), yet in their responses teachers and students suggest that they approve of the way in which the marks are awarded in CSPE.

Nugent's study in 2004, in the early days of CSPE asked a similar question. He found that 56% of the students he surveyed felt that the 60% rating for the Action Project was 'about right' and 63 (74%) of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed with it (Nugent, 2004:160/161). In this study both the teachers and the students come down significantly on the side of the 60% weighting as being 'Just right'. The overall responses from both data sets suggest that keeping the balance in the subject, while favouring the action component, is what works best. Interestingly only one teacher thought 100% should be awarded to the Action Project.

Only one person from the total of 219 who took part in answering the questionnaires suggested that the Action Project should not receive any marks

in the assessment of CSPE; this was a CSPE teacher of 5 years' experience, who gave the titles of three Action Projects she had completed: she did not explain her response and was an outlier in the data.

7.7. Support for Undertaking an Action Project

The teachers attending the in-service were asked if they felt that they had sufficient supports for engaging in Action Projects and they responded as below.

Table 7.37: Satisfaction with Level of Support for Undertaking an Action Project

Response	Total
Yes	49
No	36
Sometimes	6
No Experience	1
No Answer	19

61 (54.9%) comments were made to explain the rating given by respondents. In general those who did not feel supported called for more in-service, 13 (11.7%) respondents also made comments to the effect that they lacked the information needed to undertake their Action Project or were new to the subject and 2 commented on being 'left alone' to work with 'colleagues not always interested or helpful.' Once again the issue of time was mentioned by 3 respondents, and one respondent also pointed to the turn-over of teachers in CSPE as being a factor that led to a lack of support and collegiality in the CSPE Department in the school.

Teachers were asked to explain their answer here and a large number (22, 19.8%) of these who felt that they had sufficient support cited the in-service that they had received as the reason why they felt supported. 7 respondents also cited their colleagues and 'other teachers' as providing support to them. Two respondents specifically noted that textbooks gave them the support they

needed, while 7 other respondents identified resources, 'websites, articles' and guidelines in general as the source of their support.

One respondent commented further on the fact that 'Other teachers seem to think that it is no big deal'. This comment looks at the issue of support, less from the point of view of in-service and the DES, and similar to the point made above, has a more in-house focus to it. Similarly where positive comments were made, the focus was on both the value of the formal in-service provided and the support received by some teachers from other more experienced CSPE teachers in their schools.

Those who made negative comments (16 teachers) complained about the difficulty getting on to induction courses in September that were heavily over-subscribed, the need to photocopy practice RAP booklets each year, 'the lack of information on the 'Reflection' section of the RAP', and the lack of detail regarding how the RAP is marked. The latter comment was made by a teacher who indicated that she had never viewed the online published marking scheme.

A number of comments (30 teachers) focussed on the importance of in-service with comments such as 'In-service should be made available to allow all teachers of CSPE to attend. In schools with many CSPE teachers this is not always possible' and another indicated poor practice in school such as 'CSPE teachers in my school get thrown in one year and out the next. CSPE classes are used to fill in gaps in the timetable'.

15 of those who made comments were newly appointed to teach CSPE and their comments are of interest. 10 of them cited in-service as being an important support, with 5 of them commenting on the particular in-service day that they had just completed as being 'very helpful'. One noted that she received support from other teachers though this was not the experience of all: another noted that she felt CSPE was a subject 'given to new younger members of staff who are

largely left to deal with the task themselves'. One teacher in her second year of teaching and teaching CSPE commented that she would have appreciated help in September and another noted that 'as a new teacher ...I am somewhat in the dark as to what I am supposed to do and how to go about it.'

7.7.1. Support for Writing-up the Action Project

Acknowledging that a different type of support is needed to guide students through the writing-up of his/her Action Project, participants were asked if they felt that they had sufficient support for doing this.

When it comes to preparing students for assessment in Action Projects a larger number of participants (49) were more satisfied with the support they have to do an Action Project than the level of support available for writing up the Report (29 teachers).

Table 7.38: Teacher Satisfaction with Level of Support for Writing-up Action Projects

Response	n=111
Yes	29
No	38
Yes and No	1
Sometimes	5
No Answer	35
Don't Know	1
Unsure	2

Altogether 37 (16%) comments were made by respondents and again the positive ones refer predominantly to the value of in-service, the Guidelines, the internet and textbooks. 4 respondents singled out the support that they receive from school colleagues in preparing students for the examination in CSPE. The issue of time constraints was mentioned again, as was the challenge of working with students who have learning difficulties.

Eleven respondents explained their answer in terms of the support that they felt they had. On the positive side there was an acknowledgement of the support

received in school, from the 'excellent Guidelines' and from in-service 'where all questions are answered'. Difficulties identified included 'a lack of detail regarding how the Action Project is marked' and 'the need to photocopy the RAP for practice purposes' (identical response in previous section); one teacher cited the need for support in working with students who have 'language difficulties'. One respondent also noted that CSPE has a 'required language and jargon' that needs to be acquired and learned.

The emphasis on the examination was evident in many comments - 2 respondents asked for examples of good practice in filling out the Report. 'Again a bit of a vacuum, teacher really on his own with no obvious qualification for doing the task' and 'Some of the questions etc seem unclear. At the end of the day the teacher is the one responsible for the student earning the best possible marks.' One comment was made by a teacher with 10 years teaching experience in her first year teaching CSPE that 'I am lucky enough that there is an experienced teacher in the school has good resources material' though one respondent commented at this point 'Don't know of any support system'.

In particular 4 teachers commented on how difficult it was to teach students how to reflect and what level of reflection was required at the reporting stage.

Finally one respondent called for some system of affirmation 'on how well it was done'. The examination itself could be construed as a comment on the suitability and effectiveness of the Action Project done by students but the issue of affirmation is an interesting one in the light of the level of engagement and organisation required to facilitate an action and to guide students to the completion of a report. In the way in which education systems are organised, this type of affirmation or feedback is not the norm.

7.7.2. Training and Support

Anticipating that the attendees at this in-service would be experienced CSPE teachers, the most common supports available for CSPE teachers undertaking Action Projects were listed and respondents were asked to indicate which of these they availed of. Most respondents ticked more than one support even those teachers who were only at the beginning stage of teaching CSPE:

Table 7.39: Supports used by Participants in Relation to CSPE Action Projects

Supports	n=111
Guidelines	15
Co-ordinator	31
Examiner in Junior Cert exams	4
Pre- service	59
In-service	63
Textbook	24
No Answer	17

28 (25.2%) respondents identified using only one from of support as set out below. Respondents were additionally invited to name any other form of support used. 4 identified other teachers in the school who mark the exam and one respondent named the Regional Development Officer from the CSPE Support Service.

61 comments were made to explain the rating given by respondents. In general those who did not feel supported called for more in-service, 13 respondents also made comments to the effect that they lacked the information needed to undertake their Action Project or were new to the subject and 2 commented on being 'left alone' to work and 'colleagues not always interested or helpful.'

Once again the issue of time was mentioned by 3 respondents as an issue in getting support from colleagues; one respondent also pointed to the turn-over of teachers in CSPE as being a factor. This practice often refers to a new CSPE

teacher taking up a class in Third Year and having to acquaint him/herself with the students, oversee the undertaking and writing of the Action Project report, one in which they were not involved, and then prepare students for the written examination. This practice has been identified in the literature (Harrison, 2002; Gleeson, 2008) and in previous research (Nugent, 2004; Murphy, 2008).

The picture presented regarding knowledge of supports available is of concern as CSPE is not a new subject on the curriculum anymore. In reality, model Action Projects and a range of sample reports are readily accessible in most textbooks and in the exemplars included in the Chief Examiner's Reports on CSPE (SEC, 2005 & 2009) published by the SEC and available on the internet. The CSPE Support Service (part of the PDST) has exemplars, tips and guidelines on its web-site too as does the CSPE Teachers Association ACT on its website.

This lack of knowledge around the available supports has been a feature of a number of responses made throughout the questionnaire and such comments are not confined to those teachers who are new to the subject. In spite of the efforts of the support services and the DES there still seems to be an information gap and a sense from some teachers that they are ploughing a lonely furrow.

7.7.3. Commentary

The comments made by teachers point to a lack of systematic pre-service training in CSPE and teacher views in this study are in line with the views of teachers whose training did not prepare them to teach the complexity of modern citizenship to diverse students in multi-layered educational systems. (Bickmore, 2005; Cochrane-Smith, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 2004; Thornton 2005)

When asked about support for CSPE many of the teacher responses focussed on the CSPE examination and not on undertaking Action Projects per se. Assessment in the Irish Educational system has traditionally been centred

around a terminal written examination and so the challenge presented by assessment based on an action component is quite radical. State examinations are usually taken by all students under exam conditions in designated examination centres, so students writing up material outside of such exam conditions, and being awarded 60% of the total mark, poses a new challenge for teachers. For teachers with experience within the system for a long time it requires the development of a whole new set of skills and a change in how they conceptualise their work. The need for support for this change was a feature of the implementation phase of CSPE in the 1990s, although Hammond (2010) was disappointed with the final model and funding available for that purpose at the time.

Over time the supports for teaching CSPE, including how to support students to undertake action lessened and so it is only to be expected that some teachers new to the subject feel the need for additional support and guidance. The trickle-down effect of up-skilling some teachers in the belief that they will in turn up-skill their colleagues have not been facilitated in schools as evidenced in this study. Comments by respondents suggest that while some teachers receive support from fellow teachers, this is not done in an organised way. It is possible that schools may not have the capacity for this.

It is very likely that newer teachers (after 2007) on the other hand may have studied CSPE themselves as a subject for their own Junior Certificate and will therefore have a personal knowledge of the subject, including the Action Project. Whereas there is no guarantee that this was a positive experience, these beginning teachers bring a broad understanding of CSPE which provides a sound base for engaging students in their own CSPE classrooms. In the questionnaire, many of these young teachers did not provide an opinion as they had yet to complete an Action Project with their students.

7.8. The Practical Difficulties in Undertaking Action Projects

Finally teacher respondents were asked to identify the main practical difficulties that teachers face in doing Action Projects with their students. Many named more than one difficulty as they perceive it, and some re-iterated the challenges to undertaking Action Projects outlined above. Comments have been grouped and the following themes emerged.

Table 7.40: Difficulties Identified by Teachers in Relation to CSPE Action Projects

THEME	No. of times mentioned
Time	33
Organisation of Action Project	33
Motivating students	21
Writing up the Report	14
School Administration of the subject	6
Special need students	6
Negative attitudes (school staff)	5
Student absenteeism	4
Mixed ability groups	3
Discipline issues	2

Below are representative comments made around these themes. It is clear from the comments made that many teachers feel very strongly about the issues that they face in doing Action Projects and in the wider context about teaching the subject CSPE:

- **On the issue of time:** Comments on the challenge of doing Action Projects were made such as 'Time constraints.' Or 'Having only 40 minutes per week.'
- **On the problem of motivation:** for example, one teacher noted: 'Motivation coupled with perception that the subject is a doss.'

- **On organisation:** With an emphasis on the practicalities of organising Action Projects, comments included: 'Dividing class into teams each with relevant tasks, time and space restraints.' 'Picking the right action project, giving everyone a good job' and 'Making sure all students submit individual work - many can't work on their own initiative.'

  Under the heading of organisation a number of teachers noted the difficulty of 'Thinking of a topic which would be stimulating, all inclusive, manageable yet also benefitting students as active citizens' and 'Linking the type of class you have to specific tasks or Action Projects. Selecting one Action Project idea from several possibilities.' 11 (33.3%) respondents commented on choosing/picking the right topic; this endorses the earlier finding that there is a large teacher input into what is meant to be a student-led task.
- **On writing up the report of the Action Project:** one teacher made the point that a difficulty was the 'Wording of the report to ensure marks awarded. Often the doers of the action project can be weak at writing.'
- **On the issue of the role of administration:** a comment was made that: 'Continuity in classes, i.e. having a class one year and not the next or inheriting classes in third year.' Some teachers voiced frustration with comments such as 'Taking on a 3rd year class that you've never taught or don't know - their teacher is no longer in the school, you've never taught CSPE and you have to have the project done for Christmas!' and 'Motivation, lack of class contact, I only see my second years for last class on Thurs. [I] can't even learn the names in this situation.'

  The issue of teacher confidence around the Action Project was addressed directly by a respondent who noted as a challenge 'To be confident that the project has enough action in it, perhaps time constraint and making sure it is relevant and useful', while another wrote 'Fear that it will all turn out to be an awful mess'.

Under this heading also the following comment addresses a real issue for a teacher who notes she had '...no experience prior to starting school year, late time table, not knowing about classes until the beginning of Sept and being new to the subject.' And a teacher who points to negative attitudes in her school to the subject: 'Time, one class a week, poor attitude (staff/students) know that CSPE is not up there with other exam subjects'.

- **Students with special learning needs** were mentioned: for example; 'Helping, directing weaker students in writing up reports and finding jobs for everyone.' And then the challenge posed by mixed ability classes: 'Mixed ability classes, non-Irish pupils, time on timetable, apathy among students/ teachers.

Many comments covered a number of bases such as discipline issues 'Student behaviour. Absent students. Motivation of students' and the problem posed by absenteeism in a one-period a week subject, especially as the Action Project is rolling out 'Weaker students find it difficult to write up, absent students miss parts.'

And finally yet another respondent echoed a similar comment made previously that the greatest difficulty she encountered was 'Being thrown into the deep end with little or no training on how to teach the subject.' This comment is similar to one recorded by Murphy (2008) who found that in some schools teachers received little of no support prior to teaching CSPE. The research undertaken by Murphy (2008) was focussed on CSPE and not on the Action Project. Earlier work by Redmond and Butler (2003), which was responded to by the NCCA (2003), has also highlighted the challenge of the allocation of teachers and providing support and professional development opportunities for them.

7.9. Summary of Questionnaire Data

The first part of the chapter reported the perceptions of CSPE teachers and students in relation to their experiences of active participatory citizenship and on the reality of engagement with the real world outside of the textbook and the classroom. It noted the challenges and difficulties from the perspective of the two main actors and found that they shared many similar views on the issues raised.

The spectre of the exam was strongly present in many of the comments made suggesting that this element of the subject puts some teachers under pressure. Furthermore as the facilitator of action, the supports, training and guidance that teachers receive may be critical to their understanding - not only of the examination – but of the whole raison d'etre of Action Projects.

Commenting at the weighting given to the Action Project in the Junior Certificate exam, it is clear that both students and teachers are strongly in agreement with the value placed on the active element of the subject. For teachers there are still many difficulties and obstacles to be faced both in teaching CSPE and in undertaking Action Projects with their students.

In the second part of this chapter the data from the two elements of the study are considered side by side, and a number of dominant themes are discussed in relation to the research question of what it is that students are doing for their Action Projects and how this is impacting on their learning for citizenship.

CHAPTER 8. DISCUSSION

8.1. Introduction

The purpose of this research was to explore the nature of the Action Projects that students have been submitting for assessment in Civic, Social and Political Education over a thirteen year period and to identify what trends, if any, are emerging. In the light of these the aim of the study was to see if the initial purpose of the Action Project was being realised.

There were two key areas in the longitudinal study, an analysis of the titles of the Action Projects undertaken between 2001-2013 and an analysis from 2004-2013 of the actual type of actions in which students were engaged. Over the years of the study a large archive of data was generated and this will be discussed in the context of the findings presented in this chapter.

A second aspect of the study was to survey CSPE teachers and students who have insider experience of CSPE. Capturing the student and teacher voice in relation to the Action Project was designed to illuminate the statistical data derived from the longitudinal study and to elicit their perceptions of the Action Project. The Action Project is itself at the heart of CSPE (Harrison, 2002); statements made in official documentation – the Syllabus 1996, the Teacher Guidelines (DES, 1998 & DES, 2005) and interviews with those who led its development, Hammond, McCarthy and Regan, agree that this Junior Certificate subject has as its primary aim the development of active participatory citizenship which is precisely what the experience of an Action Project is designed to provide.

8.2. What Matters About Action Projects?

Before discussing the overall findings of the study it is important to bring to mind the purpose of the Action Project within CSPE; its success or failure can only be measured against the aims specifically identified for this component of

the course. The Syllabus (1996:8) says that CSPE and the Action Project in particular should prepare students for active participatory citizenship and to 'encourage and develop the practical skills which enable pupils to engage in active, participatory social interaction'.

The DES Guidelines (2005:2) also say that CSPE aims to

> encourage and develop the practical skills which enable students to engage in active participatory social interaction, and to adopt responsible roles as individuals, family members, citizens, workers, consumers, and members of various communities within a democratic society.

What matters therefore is that the experience of citizenship education includes the opportunity for students to engage in a participatory way with the concepts on the course - an experience that goes beyond the traditional experience of the classroom and perhaps the confines of a textbook.

What matters is that students are empowered to act, that alongside skills and dispositions real opportunities for student civic behaviour is enabled. The syllabus is not prescriptive in the nature and scope of student participation in Action Projects, rather it has identified seven core concepts and envisions that student action will arise from the study of these.

It matters that students be given the opportunity to develop and use the skills of participation in democratic society and that students cultivate both a sense of belonging and empowerment - that they are able as citizens 'to see, decide, judge and act' (DoE, 1996:2). CSPE has identified the importance of students learning how to access information when they need it and that they be given real opportunities to make decisions, together with the tools for critical discourse and reflection.

The four aspects of active civic participation identified by Kennedy (2006) - traditional political action; getting involved in volunteer social work; comment

and action to bring about change in social/political/economic conditions and enterprising citizenship are evident in much of what was identified and coded in the longitudinal study, though not in equal measure. A large number of Action Projects were focussed on students accessing information from 'experts' across the concept areas. While this is an aim of the syllabus, it is at the lower end of action engagement. This viewpoint brings me to consider the notion of the range of Action Projects reported in this study.

8.2.1. Then and Now

When CSPE was being conceived the idea behind the Action Project was that it would be wonderful and highly beneficial for students to organise speakers, quiz local, national and European politicians; explore human rights issues and abuses around the world and maybe even do something about them; work with NGOs; investigate local national issues and raise awareness about them; organise to bring their class into the Dáil; get involved in local democracy like school councils and take responsibility for the environment (McCarthy, 2014).

Do the findings of the longitudinal study suggest that this aim has been realised? Yes, the evidence suggests that students are engaging in all of these types of activities and more. At the baseline level, the Action Project is enabling, indeed it is ensuring, engagement by students with the world outside of the classroom, where both the syllabus and the assessment model drive and facilitate that engagement.

However it is also evident from the data that the broader intention of the subject, and the Action Project in particular, seems to be subverted by the selection of 'easy' and 'safe' Action Project topics and the CSPE examination requirements. Analysis of the topics undertaken reveals that they have become predictable, narrow and repetitive in focus: converging around four concepts. This it would seem (Hammond 2010, Regan 2010 and McCarthy 2014) was

never the intention of those who wrote the syllabus, produced the exemplar material and designed the assessment model.

McCarthy (2014) noted

> Maybe because of the age group, yes you would understand the [focus on] animals but it is also 'safe' for the teachers to go into that and they don't want to go into the controversial issues in their locality.

It is also true that the notion that Action Projects should deal predominantly with controversial issues was not included in a specific way in the syllabus when the subject was developed.

When it comes to evaluating the work that students do as education for citizenship in the Irish context then two schools of thought emerge. Is it enough that students are engaging, developing skills and accessing knowledge, across a range of activities? Or should they be doing more elaborate, more controversial-type actions? Are the themes evident in student titles in the longitudinal study too shallow? too mundane? Do they excite or do they resonate of the easy and predictable?

There was no evidence in the Action Project titles of engagement for example, with such topics as

- Media and the citizen (some Action Projects have looked at Cyber Bullying)
- Hard political issues (economy, EU, government/banking crises, college fees, cuts, household charges, unemployment, housing shortages and the like)
- Radical Action such as uncovering the ease at which fire arms can be imported - reported in the Cusack and McSharry (2010) research project.

There was only limited evidence of engagement with controversial issues such as racism, trafficking, teenage road deaths, the Travelling Community, political lobbying, gender issues and homophobia. These results suggest that for many students an adolescents' fund of knowledge around citizenship is impacted by teachers, institutional priorities and social imperatives. In the early years of CSPE when Ireland was experiencing economic success, then Action Projects on refugees, the fortunes of asylum seekers and racism were evident in the data, primarily through visiting speakers coming into schools. Action Projects on these issues have declined in recent years. It is likely however, that the above areas are addressed in the non-action aspect of teaching and learning in CSPE in the classroom, they are in the textbooks and some have also featured on the CSPE written examination paper.

It is interesting that in the light of the predictability of the safe and easy Action Project titles evidenced in the data that so many teachers, and students, commented on the difficulty in choosing the right or the best topic. It suggests that some teachers and students put effort into this task.

When asked for their opinion on the way in which CSPE and the Action Project in particular has evolved, Hammond (2010), Regan (2010) and McCarthy (2014) made the following points.

Hammond (2010):

> Undoubtedly its successes are ....it exists, it's compulsory, students get an exam and take an exam - when you talk to other people from other countries they are genuinely impressed: they think it was incredibly brave!... In broad terms it hasn't been bad in regard to active participatory citizenship - this has been a success - 60% for something that resembles action is a huge bonus. In that regard, I believe that that dimension of it has been broadly successful.

He added:

> We certainly did foresee the involvement of non-governmental organisations, remember those organisations were crying out for a vehicle into formal education.

Regan (2010):

> CSPE has been phenomenally successful but it is not without its flaws... I am not saying that people don't learn... My worry would be that they learn that citizenship is about welfare and what Freire would call it 'assistantialism'. Have we reinforced that view with all of the fundraising projects?

He added

> I do think that the Action Project has been damaged - unfortunately by agencies using the opportunity that the Action Project offered them, they have actually done precisely what CSPE was not intending to do – which is to tell students what to think. All they are doing is replacing the conservative thinking of the old civics with their so called radical thinking which is just the same conservative thinking in a different bottle..... Amnesty mis-uses it, Trócaire mis-uses it, Concern mis-uses it - they reduced learning to obedient action to tell students what to think. This was one of the central flaws of the old civics course... in the past the politicians and the church were the ones who determined what students were to think and they have been replaced by the politically correct – it is a travesty that they are guilty of exactly the same non-educational methodology, reducing complex issues and ideas to simplistic one single action, by-passing the education system and the opportunity to encourage students to think about what is their responsibility and their capacity to change these things and to imagine different responses.

While this quote reflects the personal views of Regan (2010), NGOs would likely take issue with the above statement and McCarthy (2014) presents a different viewpoint when he says:

> The subject [CSPE] to me was never disappointing. The structure of the subject and the structure of the assessment were right and I'm still convinced that it was right. For it to be meaningful – it was right. But, you had teachers who just saw

> it as a timetable filler or couldn't get their head around it and that was killing it.
>
> We had hoped that students would get their teeth into issues, for one thing discussing the politics of the day, and whether that was controversial or not and also looking at the local controversies - like the sewage treatment plant in Galway. Nowadays you would think of them to looking at those Pylons being erected across the country or the water supply for Dublin city...in the context of the time and the Junior Cycle and the in-service, you were hoping that people would see the more active learning methodology as something that could transfer into their own subject...

Here McCarthy is referring to the problem that was carried over from the old Civics course (CEB, 1987), that of non-specialist teachers in the area of citizenship education. As a result the issue of ownership around CSPE remained, leaving the subject adrift on the timetable in the early days and some teacher comments in this study suggest it is still adrift to this day. However, McCarthy also added

> Don't get me wrong, I am not knocking the action that students do either - but I really feel that children at that age are fascinating because they have a real concept of social justice. They pick up unfairness very quickly and they can be extremely fair in their analysis and in the type of emphasis that they want... that is what we were hoping to tap into.

Back then the Action Project was seen as pioneering a new way of learning citizenship, it is perhaps a measure of its success that now it is taken so much for granted that more is expected of it than the syllabus (DoE, 1996), the exemplar material (DoE, 1996) and the official supporting Guidelines (DES 1999 & 2005) indicate.

8.3. The Impact of the Human Rights Framework

There are many paths through the data generated; by using the CSPE core concepts, the findings were made more accessible to anyone with knowledge of

the subject. The evidence in the data regarding what it is that students are doing provides a history of this phase of citizenship education in Ireland; the interaction with topics like *Raising Awareness of the Rights of Asylum Seekers* and *Our CSPE Class Invites a Refugee to Talk to us* capture an element of the social history of the period and were very evident in the early years of the research (2001-2007) but have waned in recent times. The appearance of *Our Class Leaflet on Cyber-bullying* as a new topic of interest also echoes the new issues of today.

While the syllabus is founded on seven core concepts and within four learning domains, CSPE is defined in the Guidelines (DES, 2005:4) as 'a Junior Certificate course in active citizenship based on human rights and social responsibilities'. A further statement (CSPE Support Service, 1998) situates the subject further within a human rights framework when it states that:

> The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child are the two key documents which underpin this course.

In her research Hudson (2006) found that the absence of a framework around participatory citizenship activities had a negative effect on the active citizenship education project she studied with a whole school community in the South Docks in London in 1999. In the case of the current study, the stated human rights and social responsibility framework of CSPE provides the backdrop to the subject and it is therefore not surprising that most of the Action Projects recorded have this rights and responsibilities focus. The research shows that when the Action Projects that are concerned with Rights and Responsibilities, Human Dignity, under-development and Fairtrade are combined, they are by far the most popular areas for participatory activities reported.

Osler and Starkey (2010) noted the importance of an understanding of human dignity and human rights principles in order that issues of social justice for example can be explored and understood. The human rights and social

responsibility context is also a valuable framework for schools – and indeed society – in embedding education for citizenship in the school culture so that it permeates all subjects and all human interaction. It thickens the experience for students in particular.

The importance of the rights and responsibilities framework gives the subject and those teaching and learning it, a context for action. However the emphasis on responsibilities is questioned by some as being part of the neo-liberal agenda, where the citizen is simply being groomed for individual success in a global economy (Rose, 1999; Mitchell, 2003; Sears, 2003; Brown, 2005; Bottery, 2005; Kennelly & Llewellyn 2011). Lawson (2001) posits that the balance between the rights and the responsibilities are 'pivotal' in debates about citizenship education.

Kennelly and Llewellyn (2011:906) found that the most prominent discursive pattern in the Canadian curriculum documents that they reviewed was 'the relationship established between the 'citizen' and 'responsibility'. Action Projects are designed to encourage students to become more responsible – indeed to take on the responsibility for the project itself (DoE, 1996). It is a different kind of responsibility that Giroux (2002) and Bottery (2005) suggest is problematic - that of the modern consumer driven society in which the concepts of 'public good' and of political agency can be relegated to the manipulation of citizens to contribute financially - to being charitable fundraisers.

Some of this largesse mentality was also found in this study. The volume of Action Projects in the longitudinal study that focus on fundraising and fundraising plus another activity is noticeably high around the concept of Rights and Responsibilities. Kristjànsson (2006) noted that generosity is a political as well as a personal ideal and should form part of the education of young people. Coffey (2004) expressed his concern about the manipulation of

young people to contribute to the economy rather than learning more about the innovative and democratic aspects of what being a citizen means.

It is arguable that if students are making the decisions, organising an event, contacting people, using communication, ICT, social media, teamwork, decision-making skills then the actual subject matter that is the focus of the particular action is of lesser consequence according to the Syllabus. However, based on the evidence in the study, I would have concerns that many Action Projects focus on compliant behaviours, including fundraising for charitable causes and that this interpretation of active citizenship is very narrow. Jeffers (2014b:1) notes that 'Deep educational change is a slow process' and while there is a danger of manipulation of students, some teacher comments suggest that teachers are open to letting students take the lead.

It should be remembered that the Irish education system has been criticised for encouraging compliance across all subjects, at all levels; this is further evidenced in criticism of State examinations that require students to provide a regurgitation of knowledge and opinions taught across all subjects (Bielenberg, 2010; Quinn, 2012).

The Action Project is one element of the CSPE course: it is the epitome of the active learning experience; according to the evidence of this study, it challenges teachers to change the way in which they teach and relate to their students. Effective citizenship education impacts classrooms, changes schools by making them more democratic and reflects the current view of children as having agency. Furthermore it impacts society, enabling the development of a more tolerant, inclusive society (Jeffers, 2014a, Irish Human Rights Commission, 2011; Banks, 2004)

It is anticipated that students are exploring not just 'Rights and Responsibilities' but all seven core concepts in CSPE class, using active learning methods over

the three years of the Junior Cycle (Harrison, 2008). According to the CSPE Syllabus (DoE, 1996) it should be the case that students are being challenged to think, to discuss and to engage with a range of issues and activities to support their development as citizens. Active participatory citizenship needs a knowledge base as it needs the development of a disposition to support active engagement. It is noteworthy that both teachers and students in this study acknowledge the power of the Action Project within the constraints of an assessed subject taught for one period a week over three years.

8.3.1. Addressing Big Ideas

It was the intention of those involved with the development of the course to include 'big ideas' on the syllabus (Hammond, 2010 and Regan, 2010). As Regan commented earlier:

> There was the notion of grand ideas, the big ideas ....justice, stewardship they were big ideas. People were saying 13 year olds? and we were saying "why not?" and remember they also allowed for flexibility in learning.

There is evidence in the Action Project titles analysed that students are indeed looking beyond their classrooms at big ideas, such as poverty, human rights abuses, ethical consumerism, the global environment, etc. Regan (2010) noted that 'The time is very limited for the big ideas that animate the Syllabus', yet they are very much in evidence in the Action Project titles in this study. So too are the big concepts of Democracy and Law in the life of the citizen. In particular these are the dominant concepts for teaching political literacy and education for engagement within democratic society - though all concepts have a political dimension to them.

They were the second most popular concepts chosen in the longitudinal study. The open-ended, concept-based approach upon which the subject is based does not espouse a hierarchy where some concepts might be deemed more important

than others, rather all seven combine to provide an overarching framework *for* citizenship. In the light of this it is hard to justify condemnation of some action as being less valuable to students. The intention was never to place an onus on students to produce something awesome (though awesome would have been welcomed), rather the aim of the Action Project was to give students the knowledge, skills, confidence and disposition to engage as young citizens (DoE, 1996). The intended flexibility in 'the big ideas' model is also evident in the student titles reported in the study; these have taken many perspectives on the concepts on which action were based.

The human rights, social responsibility, democratic society emphasis in Action Projects was anticipated and determined by the Syllabus (DoE, 1996): the interpretation of these was evidenced in the early and current exemplars of Action Projects provided in the Teacher Guidelines (DES, 1998), and textbooks, and evidenced too in the Action Project titles and activities identified in the longitudinal study. It could be argued that the Action Projects reported in the study are exactly what the Syllabus (DoE, 1996) model wished for.

8.4. Connecting Classrooms with the World

There are those who believe in the need to weaken the boundaries between school and society (Jeffers, 2008), and Wenger (1998:26) makes the point about the 'disconnect' between the world and the traditional classroom. There is an imperative for education to make the connection with real-world issues; to strengthen the learning for students in the application of their learning to real life, to have opportunities to discuss, reflect, make judgements, develop awareness and to hone and the development of relevant life skills.

The CSPE exam instrument expects students to recount in the proforma booklet the people that they communicated with and the how and why of this, ensuring that Action Projects include engagement beyond the individual. The breadth of

Action Projects indicated in the titles suggest that real world issues, some very dramatic like natural/political disasters, some more day-to-day like talking to local politicians are being addressed in CSPE Action Projects.

The rating given and comments made by students and teachers in the questionnaire suggest a level of awareness of the power of the Action Project to engage students in real-world action and to engage in opportunities to develop a range of awareness and skills.

8.5. Subject Co-ordinators of CSPE

A CSPE subject co-ordinator is in a position to raise the status of the subject and identify ways in which the school can become a focus for active citizenship. Opportunities for engaging students in participatory activities like a Student Council, a Green Schools Programme, the An Taisce Spring-clean, a campaign in the local community – or beyond- can be driven by a subject co-ordinator who is responsible for promoting the subject. The thorny issues of training and resources which have dogged citizenship studies in the past, and based on the evidence in this study continue to do so, can be overcome, in part, by a co-ordinator who is aware of the materials available and the opportunities for teachers to train and up-skill.

Fulfilling this type of role as a newly qualified teacher (as was the case for one respondent teacher who is a Co-ordinator), or very early on in a teaching career, or if some-one is teaching the subject for the first time, is a very big ask.

8.6. Thick or Thin Citizenship Education

While the longitudinal study does not reveal the depth of learning in Action Projects, the comments made in the questionnaire suggest that students are active, engaged and doing. This implies that the experience of citizenship education for student in Ireland is a on the thicker end of the citizenship education continuum (See table 3.2). If there are degrees of 'thickness', and I

believe that there are, then it is beyond the scope of the study, to say just what the depth of the experience is for students. However, the strong positive ratings on the benefits of doing Action Projects provided by teachers and students suggest that students are benefitting from active engagement in meaningful and age appropriate ways.

The evidence in this study suggests that the Action Project takes Junior Certificate students beyond the classroom, beyond passive learning, has a skills focus and is founded on a knowledge base because it arises from one of the core concepts. It ticks the boxes for 'thick' citizenship education but it is important not to overstate the Action Project experience in the light of the time and timetabling limits of the subject.

The level of participatory citizenship suggests that the CSPE model of citizenship education is 'thick', this it is not the full story. There was clear evidence of some teacher dominance and control in comments made and in particular in the number of both students and teachers who did not think that Action Projects gave students the opportunity to make real decisions. In such cases the aims of the subject are being thwarted, however well-meaning the teachers are, and the aim of education itself to foster independent thinking and the ability to make decisions is being undermined.

In reality when a class undertakes an Action Project, with the large class sizes in Ireland this could mean, maybe up to 30 students will be engaged in the various parts or stages of the project. The logistics of facilitating this, and within a tight time frame, may go some way to explain teacher-led rather than student-led activity. One challenge for teachers so is to ensure that every student plays a part in the action, while not pre-determining who does what and 'thinning' down the experience.

Similarly, the inclusive philosophy that underpins the notion of collective action within the Action Project is designed to ensure that all students are involved; all have the opportunity to learn within the context of their own learning community. It is one of the features of CSPE and it is based on equal access of all students to the experiences set out in the curriculum, with an emphasis on participatory citizenship to enable a thick citizenship education model to evolve. At variance with this philosophy is the difficulty reported in the study by both teachers and students that when it comes to reporting on the action taken some students are more challenged than others. Alternate reporting options such as audio, video and digital reporting are not being exploited, (SEC Chief Examiner's Report, 2009): the time for CSPE may be the mitigating factor here.

Depending on the nature of the action being undertaken there can be real challenges posed for teachers. These are counterbalanced to a degree by the points made earlier about the benefits of doing an Action Project, which are significant not least because the views were so strongly positively rated by both students and teachers.

8.7. Issues for Active Citizenship Education in the Irish Education System

Both the longitudinal study and the questionnaire findings point to issues that impact on citizenship education at the post primary level in Ireland. Some of these have been identified as issues around both initial teacher education and in-service, teacher appointments and staff turnover; the timetabling of CSPE for only one period a week and the low status of the subject as a result. These have already been identified in the literature (Murphy, 2008; Hammond and Looney, 2000; Harrison, 2008; Jeffers, 2008) and the comments made by respondents in this study suggest that these issues remain.

8.7.1. Time

A lack of time, shortage of time, one period a week: time was the most common self-reported comment made by both teachers and teachers in relation to challenges of Action Projects. It is not an area that the literature addresses specifically other than some researchers (Hudson, 2006) calling for discrete time being needed to support the teaching of citizenship education within the context of whole school approaches and democratic space.

Hammond (2010) noted

> We always liked the idea of the common course but I think if we had our way again, I think we would not go for the short course; of course there were a lot of reasons then - and the overcrowded curriculum. A lot of difficulties that emerged would have been stemmed if it had been a full course...

In the light of proposals that CSPE will cease to be a discrete subject and become an optional short course in the reformed Junior Cycle (NCCA, 2011), it is of concern that with no common course, no matter how brief, not all students will be in receipt of any form of discrete citizenship education in the future. In view of the positive responses from students in this study to CSPE, this seems to be a major blow to citizenship education.

In the future, when the time for citizenship education becomes dispersed across the curriculum, its status will likely be dealt a further blow, and of more concern here is that the narrow window of for active participatory citizenship will be seriously limited.

8.7.2. The CSPE Examination

Regan made the point that 'the subject [CSPE] must be examined if it was to have status' and indeed if there was to be a guarantee that it would be taught. The research undertaken by the CEB (1987) and later by the NCCA (1993) had

identified that the lack of an examination in Civics (from 1967-1999) had been partly responsible for its failure to embed in the system.

As with all subjects, preparing students for State examinations brings pressure and this was evident in teacher comments about the difficulties posed, especially in mixed ability classes, when student had literacy and language difficulties and when time was a factor. Teachers are aware that the onus is on them to prepare students for the submission of either the Report on an Action Project or the Course-work Assessment Booklet for the Junior Cert Examination. McCarthy (2014) noted that 'The Exam system repeatedly crucified the subject' and Hammond (2010) also noted that:

> One of the terrible effects of our exam system is that it leaves so little choice to the teacher and the way in which it limits the teacher. Many genuinely struggle with it and once it settles, 2 or 3 years into the implementation of a curriculum, the grapevine sends around what you can do for this and what you can do for that and people seldom divert from it. One of the great tragedies of our educational system is that it de-professionalises teachers....teachers are not as good at innovating, not as good at creating new learning situations and even less good at having conversations.

The above comments suggest that the examination is perceived by the subject developers as a negative, limiting factor. The formulaic aspect of Action Projects, evident in titles generated in the longitudinal study, was anticipated in the viewpoint expressed above.

The product of an Action Project should be the action, but in reality the report that ensues for the purpose of assessment is skewing the view of the learning outcome and would seem to be shifting the focus away from the process to being able to describe, discuss and reflect on the process.

8.8. Why this is the Right Time for Active Citizenship Education

All of the arguments included in Chapter 3 as to why citizenship education is necessary for all young citizens in society remain relevant today. Indeed in the light of the complexity of modern society together with the acknowledgement of the rights, the power and the vulnerability of children, there is an urgent need to educate all our children in, through and for active participatory citizenship. With new sites of citizenship opening up, there is a need to educate children for being a member of democratic (and not so democratic) spaces in the 21st century.

The new proposed JCSA model with citizenship education where the subject is no longer a discrete one but is dispersed across the curriculum, and the optional, short-course, model of citizenship education will only be available to those students whose schools elect to provide it, is moving away from the thicker form of education for citizenship evidenced in the present study. The new model represents a move back to a thin model with citizenship education diluted across all subjects. At the same time there is still no date set for the implementation of Politics and Society as a Senior Cycle option for all students Jeffers (2014c).

Were Ireland to follow Scotland and enfranchise young people over 16 years of age after the forthcoming referendum (proposed for 2016), it will be interesting to see how this impacts the need for informed, skilled and empowered young citizens capable of individual action. A 'thin' citizenship education with a focus on knowledge *about* citizenship and *about* active citizenship, without real world engagement, falls far short of what society needs for its leaders of tomorrow.

8.9. Conclusion

It is evident that the Action Project is enabling young citizens to engage in an experience of active participatory citizenship as envisaged by the Syllabus

(DoE, 1996) for CSPE. There are elements of a success story here. But it is not always the case; this chapter has found that the Active Project, while it brings many benefits and challenges, is varied in terms of the student experience of participation and the teachers' experience of support and guidance: furthermore it is impacted by the report writing element of the state examination. Finally Action Projects are constrained by the limited time available for the discrete teaching of CSPE with little evidence of cross-curricular activity presented in the data generated in the study.

The next chapter suggests areas for further study arising from the key research findings.

CHAPTER 9. CONCLUSION

> *No one is born a good citizen; no nation is born a democracy. Rather, both are processes that continue to evolve over a lifetime. Young people must be included from birth. A society that cuts off from its youth severs its lifeline.* Kofi Annan (2013)

9.1. Questions Underpinning This Study

It is a basic purpose of education that it prepares each generation of students for life as knowledgeable, aware, responsible citizens, capable of engaging in the democratic society in which they live. What I hoped to find in this eclectic, mixed methods, partial sequential research study is an understanding of how citizenship education (CSPE in Ireland) is engaging with such a task. Specifically it was my intention to find out how the Action Project element of CSPE is being realised as a compulsory element of the Junior Certificate curriculum. I set out to detail what it is that students are doing in their CSPE Action Projects so as to inform the general understanding of this model of student engagement. I hoped to explore also the views of teachers and students on the benefits, challenges and difficulties of doing Action Projects and their experiences of the accompanying assessment procedures.

9.2. A Study of Active Citizenship

Since 1997 CSPE has been a mandatory subject on the Irish Junior Certificate curriculum. While it is accepted that citizenship education takes place in many arenas, CSPE as the discrete subject on the curriculum is the focussed response of the Irish education system to the challenge of providing citizenship education to its young citizens. Participatory action in citizenship education promotes skills, enables critical thinking and discourse, embeds civic values and is a means of learning relevant social and political knowledge (Annette, 2000).

At the heart of CSPE is the Action Project, its centrality is acknowledged in the 60% of the marks that it carries in the CSPE State examination. This emphasis on active participatory citizenship is in line with modern thinking on education *for* citizenship (Kerr, 1999; Lawton Cairns & Gardner 2004; Annette & Mayo, 2010).

All Junior Certificate students presenting for the Irish State Examination in CSPE submit a report on the Action Project that they have undertaken. To date no detailed study has identified the breadth and nature of student Action Projects and this study aimed to fill this gap.

Out of interest, curiosity and a genuine passion for citizenship education, I began in 2001, (in the year of the second National State Examination of CSPE) with the consent of the Department of Education to collect the Action Project titles that were being submitted for assessment. Thus began the longitudinal study. Data were generated over a 13 year period from 2001 to 2013. The analysis of this data concentrated on the core concepts that gave rise to Action Projects and furthermore identified the type of action in which students were engaged.

Then after a number of years a further layer of understanding was sought when a cohort of CSPE teachers had built up experience of what were the innovative opportunities for active citizenship afforded by the Action Project. A questionnaire aimed to examine and analyse their views on the benefits, challenges and experience of engaging with their students on Action Projects. The voice of the student was also sought: Action Projects are premised on student participation and empowerment. A questionnaire asked for their opinion on the benefits and challenge of taking action as part of their citizenship education.

The model of assessment of citizenship education in the State Examination is particular to Ireland and both teachers and students were invited to comment on the weighting given to the Action Project element of the exam.

9.3. The Findings

1. **Trends:** From the data analysed in the longitudinal study it is now possible to say with certainty, due to the size of the research sample, that definite trends are evident in the type and nature of the Action Projects that students are presenting for assessment in CSPE.

- Four of the core CSPE concepts provide the basis of the majority of all Action Projects undertaken. The concepts of Rights and Responsibilities, Democracy, Stewardship and Law are the dominant basis for Action Projects and within this quatrain there is a clear pattern of certain types of action around each concept.
    - The concept of Rights and Responsibilities has guest speakers from charitable organisations and NGOs, fundraising and fundraising with another activity as dominant forms of action;
    - The concept of Stewardship gives rise to many actions based on inviting in guest speakers, including a range actions that focus on animal welfare and that often have a fundraising element to them;
    - Visits especially to the Dáil (Irish parliament) are evidenced under the concept of Democracy together with mock elections often around Schools Councils;
    - Action around the concept of Law is dominated by guest speakers and visits, mainly to courthouses and prisons.
- While these types of actions are evidence of student engagement and indicate connections are being forged between schools and wider society – which is after all what the CSPE syllabus was aiming to ensure, they

are also simple, conformist, safe types of engagement. A restricted view of action was evident in the titles analysed.

- However, from the syllabus point of view it was never the intention to have students involved in high stakes participation but rather to inspire all students to engage in an issue of interest or concern to them. CSPE, and in particular the Action Project, has reclaimed the civic space on the Irish curriculum.
- Fundraising as an activity is recorded significantly in the study, many such actions are accompanied by another one to raise awareness of an issue or to access knowledge around a concept. Fundraising as a form of action project is consistent with the neoliberal view of valid citizen engagement (Kennelly & Llewellyn, 2011).

2. **Contemporary issues:** Topical and current events serve to inform Action Projects and major happenings such as natural disasters, war/major conflicts, high profile political events, evoke a response from students and serve as a basis for Action Projects (see section 6.6)

- The data reveals that the capacity of the Action Project to connect students with the world outside the classroom is being genuinely exploited and action in CSPE is succeeding in bridging that gap. The CSPE Syllabus encourages engagement with current issues and events, both at local and global level and the data reveals that this is happening with actions recorded in all four citizenship domains as outlined in the syllabus (i.e. Individual, Community, the State Ireland, The Wider World). Both students (70%) and teachers (80%) strongly agreed that this is a benefit of doing Action Projects (see table 7.13).
- Action Projects based on topical issues tended to have a focus and a response that is safe, easy and restricted. Such actions as visits out of school, guest speakers, fundraisers, and mock elections that mirror those

actually occurring in reality are ideally suited to the demands of the written report submitted for assessment.

3. **The Examination:** The pattern of Action Projects in the data demonstrates that the assessment of CSPE impacts on the nature of the action in which students engage.
   - The types of action Projects that students present for assessment show an alignment over the years of the study. The types of actions being presented tend to be repetitive in nature and a good fit for the assessment booklet that has to be completed for the Junior Certificate examination. The data suggests that this emphasis on the examination is at the expense of more creative, deep, wide, radical action.
   - The CSPE syllabus fosters action and it is important to acknowledge that the learning, even from safe and easy action, may be significant for students. Take for example inviting in a guest speaker into the classroom around a citizenship theme, this may entail students working as a group, getting permissions, making contact with a potential guest, sending out an invitation, meeting and greeting, chairing and thanking, asking questions, giving context to the visiting speakers, hospitality and venue organisation. The opportunities here for skills development, for discourse, reflection and knowledge are great.
   - The formal assessment of the Action Project by means of the written report in either of the two official reporting pro-forma booklets (RAP or CWAB) impacts the nature and scope of the actions undertaken. Some teachers and students specifically noted the challenges presented in writing up of Action Projects for the State examination though statistically only about a third of each cohort identified this, with interestingly more teachers (41%) than students (32%) noting this challenge.

Weighting: Both teachers and students believe that the 60-40 balance in favour of the Action Project in the CSPE State Examination in the Junior Certificate is appropriate.

- However, teachers feel a lack of training around the task of supporting students in undertaking Action Projects especially in the context of CSPE being examined nationally.
- There is also a range of practical issues that challenge CSPE teachers around the Action Project component of the subject, notably time for undertaking action within the allotted 40 minutes on most timetables; motivating students; the demands of preparing students for examination, especially students with learning disabilities or English as a second language; a perceived lack of support and the low status of the subject in some schools.

4. **The Framework:** Many Action Projects focus on human rights and social responsibility issues suggesting that the human rights and social responsibility framework for the subject has impacted on the choice of topic and the focus of many Action Projects. This framework has also provided a conduit for NGOs coming into schools where they can explore with students a range of social justice issues, can publicise their work, explain the human needs they are attempting to meet and can even benefit from fundraising Action Projects.

5. **Thick Citizenship Education:** The model of 'thin' citizenship education (Kerr, 1999) with its focus on knowledge, and passive learning is not in evidence in the current study of the Action Project in CSPE. The very fact of active engagement in the form of the Action Project positions citizenship education at the 'thicker' end of the citizenship education continuum.

The scope of the study does not allow for the identification of a single position for CSPE on the continuum.

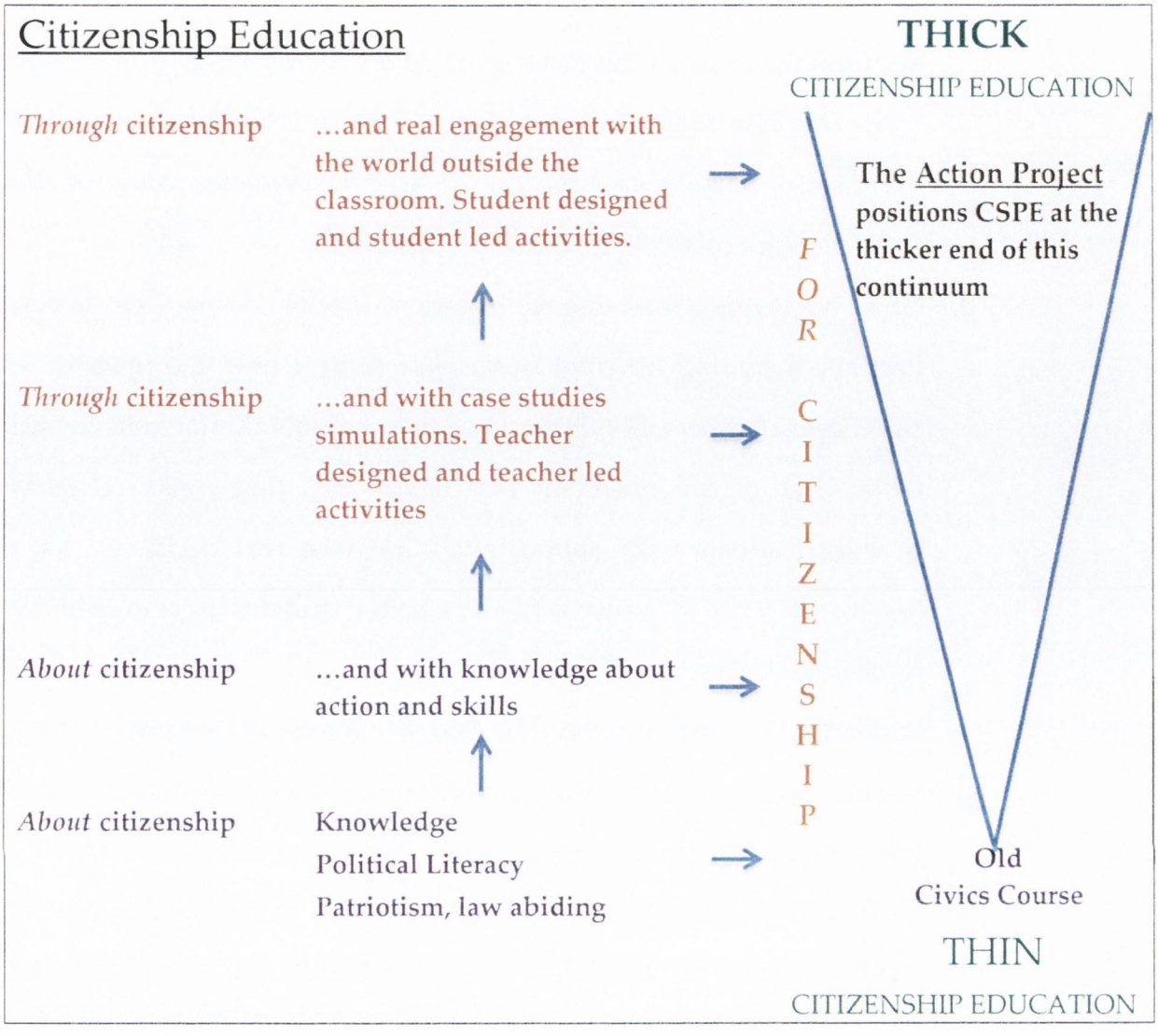


Figure 9-1: The Position of CSPE on the thin-thick citizenship education continuum

- The purposes of the Action Project are being realised, though as mentioned previously the study suggests that the scope of Action Projects in general is quite limited with many titles suggesting that safe, easy and pedestrian, rather than controversial activities are common-place. Not all Action Projects are situated at the very top of the 'thick' citizenship education experience but by its active participatory nature the Action Project encourages learning in that direction.

- Both students and teachers were very positive in their acknowledgement of the benefits of doing Action Projects (see table 7.18). This data suggests that real participation is happening and that the form of citizenship education in Irish schools has many of the characteristics of 'thick' citizenship education.
- However students had diverse experiences while doing their Action Projects, including different degrees of control over the process. A significant number of both teachers and students do not believe (see table 7.31), or are uncertain (see table 7.32), that Action Projects provide students with opportunities to make real decisions. As a result, the level of participation for some students is restricted by teacher control or interference.
- Similarly the study suggests that student experiences are impacted by teacher behaviour. The study revealed that student responsibility is being minimised in some instances. Some teachers (see Chapter 7, section 7.3.1) admitted to making the initial decisions around the Action Project for their students. Conversely some students are exposed to 'real' learning, real participation and control as evidenced in the acknowledgement by teachers that they leave it to students to select their Action Projects and the teams to execute the action tasks. Some students too, acknowledge ownership of the Action Project and identified the challenges for them in making decisions around what to do and how to do it. The majority of teachers use a mix of student and teacher-led activity indicating a sharing of responsibility sometimes

6. **Benefits:** Data from the questionnaires demonstrated that in all cases both students and teachers affirmed the benefits of doing Action Projects, especially around the development of teamwork skills, where almost 90% of

both teachers and students indicated that this was true. They were in agreement too that doing Action Projects enables students to develop the skills of active citizenship, provides students with the opportunity to engage with social justice issues, develops a critical consciousness, fosters the learning of skills for use in their adult life and are both an interesting and inclusive way to learn. The level of agreement around these elements was consistently and significantly high among both groups.

- With the emphasis on inclusion in the Irish education system, a subject which enables this is fulfilling an important social aim within the context of education and society in general.

7. **Challenges:** Motivating students to engage in Action Projects and the pragmatic task of finding a role for each student in undertaking an action are regarded as challenges by both teachers and students in the study.

- This is the likely outcome of the dominant model of taking action that centres on all students in a class engaging in the same Action Project. While convenience, time constraints and examination pressure are the likely drivers of the model, students (64%) see the difficulty of getting everybody interested as a real challenge, while both students (63%) and teachers (60%) agree that organisational challenges emerge.

Time Factor: A lack of time is a significant factor for undertaking Action Projects and one period a week impacts the extent of the action that students can do.

- Repeated references were made by teachers and students regarding the constraints placed them when it came to taking action by the time available for doing so. While this is a real concern, the syllabus always envisaged a spill-over from CSPE into the broad curricular areas and the

data suggests that this is not happening. As a result, time pressure impacts on the one class period a week devoted to CSPE.

9.4. Major Recommendations

The data generated by the open-ended elements of the questionnaires suggests that real problems with the current model of CSPE are not so much with the subject, its structure, its methods or its objectives, but with the institutional approaches that have placed CSPE in the curriculum margins for one period a week where time challenges, bad practices, poor support and low status abound. When overlaid with the demands of the examination, these combine to impact the scope for action, the depth of action and the possibilities for both students and teachers to engage in thicker forms of citizenship education.

Another task of education is concerned with vocational and career preparation and meeting the economic needs of society, this purpose would seem to be very well served by government support. There are concerted efforts to support, for example, the development of Maths, Science and IT skills to meet the demands of the workplace.

Recommendation 1: There needs to be a similar awareness of the importance of the education of the citizen; the skills of democratic citizenship are critical for the wellbeing of citizens and for society at large. They cannot and should not be neglected. There needs to be a serious commitment to citizenship education as a priority, not an after-thought, for all our students.

The data clearly indicates that there is potential for active engagement by every young student available in the Irish education system today through the Action Project, future plans are putting this engagement, albeit limited or imperfect in some cases, at risk.

Ireland needs a policy around citizenship education that arises from a clear definition of citizenship education itself - there is no definition in the Syllabus

(DoE, 1996), this in turn should be compatible with the overarching purpose of education for all children in the Irish education system.

Recommendation 2: In the light of the proposed changes to the Junior Cycle, a serious review of citizenship education in Ireland needs to happen. Without a designated slot on the timetable and an existence as a discrete subject in the new Junior Cert model, CSPE runs the risk of falling off the curriculum; research (CEB, 1987) in the past has shown that this was the case for the original Civics course. Similarly without an examination in CSPE, it could happen that once again citizenship education will not be taught. Furthermore, it should never be the case that some children receive a gold-standard citizenship education while others do not. The proposed exclusivity of some students taking a course in CSPE and others not, needs to be re-visited.

Recommendation 3: The proposed senior cycle Politics and Society Course needs to implemented, not only because Ireland is out of step with most western democracies in that students cannot study this area as part of their learning at the upper secondary level but also because the proposed model includes an Action Project that builds on the learning and skills acquired in CSPE. While organisations such as the Young Social Innovators and Junior Achievement Ireland offer platforms for students to engage in issues and action, they are no substitute for an education system formally acknowledging and supporting active citizenship in schools.

Recommendation 4: CSPE is due to cease as a discrete subject, curiously just as the 100 year celebrations of the 1916 rising are beginning. In the years remaining before the proposed implementation of the JCSA it is important that teachers continue to get support for Action Projects from the PDST. In particular teachers need to be encouraged, perhaps through a media and information campaign, perhaps with focussed NGO involvement, to move

away from the safe and easy type of Action Project and to expose students to the actuality of living in a world where profound and controversial issues of social justice, conflict and contentious political issues are a reality.

Recommendation 5: A team approach or whole-school approach to teaching citizenship education is needed. Active citizenship education on the curriculum should find an expression in lived practices within the school community and through involvement in community.

Taking action and meeting the diverse needs of students would benefit from a collegial support model: this needs leadership from an informed, enthusiastic co-ordinator supported by the school Principal and continuous professional development opportunities. The appointment of an experienced CSPE teacher to the role of CSPE Subject Co-ordinator would help mentor new CSPE teachers and provide a conduit for the dissemination of key information.

Recommendation 6: Teachers need more CPD to learn how to develop more trust in students' abilities to undertake Action Projects and to learn how to adopt the role of facilitator of learning: teachers need to see themselves as agents of change, a medium and guide for their students. This is critical to students developing the real skills needed *for* citizenship. Teachers need to be equipped with structures that allow for the scaffolding of student action – a blueprint that facilitates the relaxing of the bonds and ties. While I agree with Treseder (1997) that adult engagement is likely going to be a necessary part of participation by young people there is still the challenge of finding the balance, the confidence to let go with faith and hope and to let youth flourish.

9.5. Limitations of the Study

The volume of data generated in this study was such that it meant I had to be selective in the path I took through it. There is a store of additional material beyond the scope (and word count) available.

The context of citizenship education has morphed over the period of the research study. The findings are based on a subject whose "shelf life" is declining. It was the original intention that the study would inform the active dimension of citizenship education in Ireland, however in the near future this dimension will cease to be universal for all students and so the impact of the study will not be as widespread as originally intended. That is not in any way to limit the importance of the findings.

9.6. Recommendations for Further Research

As an almost unexplored territory, CSPE, and the Action Project in particular, offer a wealth of opportunities for further research:

- The three people (John Hammond, Stephen McCarthy and Colm Regan) who were instrumental in the development of CSPE have a rich store of information which might be the focus of a research that charts in detail the history of CSPE: qualitative analysis would lead to a deeper understanding of their story. So too the archive of data around CSPE in the NCCA could be explored in a document analysis study.
- A study that profiles CSPE teachers in terms of their experience and attitude to citizenship education might serve to explain how the model of participatory citizenship education in Ireland has been conceptualised and delivered.
- The learning for both teachers and students could be deconstructed and analysed following completion of an Action Project. Their experiences would be of interest in providing guidance and insights into the process and outcomes. Studies need to happen after Action Projects have been completed so as not to reify the process as often seems to happen in case study research on student action.

- Teachers who studied CSPE themselves while in Junior Cycle could be invited to a focus group to see if having the experience of CSPE has impacted on their teaching of CSPE and on their own identity as citizens.
- Other interest groups who have experience of CSPE and the Action Project could be surveyed or interviewed, including NGOs, School Principals, the CSPE Support Service and in-house CSPE Co-ordinators. Each of these groups has insights, roles and perceptions hitherto untapped.

9.7. The Journey

I once heard someone tell the story of a woman who got up very early one morning to search for a big shell for the storyteller who was leaving to go to another country. She walked miles and climbed over hills and rocks to get to the beach where the big shells were, then she retraced the long journey back. When she gave him the shell he said 'Oh my goodness you shouldn't have, you had to journey so far to get this gift for me', to which she replied 'The journey is the gift...'.

So it has been for me over the past several years as I have climbed over hills and rocks and travelled so many miles in my search for knowledge, insight and understanding of the concept of active participatory citizenship in CSPE. The journey has been the gift.

First as a teacher of CSPE, then as a support-service provider and finally as a researcher I have been fascinated by the Action Project in all its kaleidoscopic wonder. It was as an accidental student that my studies began when out of curiosity I decided to gather information on what students were doing for their Junior Certificate Action Projects. I became fascinated by what I was finding out and a desire to share this knowledge led me on the path to formal study.

The years between first registration on my course of study and the submission of my thesis study have been full of the unexpected. I found articles, books and authors that filled me with wonder, have had conversations that caused me to stop and think, and think again. I have had not one but two supervisors who have caused me to dig deeper, reconsider and only give of my best. As the archive has grown and grown the task of coding and analysis has intrigued and fatigued!

It has all been part of my journey, part of the gift.

9.8. Final Thoughts

Informed citizens who are capable of active participation is the goal of citizenship education and while not idealising this model of engagement, the goal of the Syllabus is realised in the Action Project in Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) in the Irish education system. The Action Project within CSPE is unparalleled in presenting students with the opportunity to engage; it ensures that participation happens with the real world beyond the classroom. This study contributes to the information available on that experience of active citizenship enabled through the Action Project and informs future conversations on citizenship education in Ireland.

Educating young citizens is not about producing the well-balanced, multicultural, politically active, nationally oriented self but is concerned rather with empowering young people in their development of a set of complex skills and dispositions necessary for personal, social and economic success in a global age and inherent in this approach is the empowering of our young citizens to think, to care and to act.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Research instrument used to generate longitudinal data

a. 2001-2004

b. 2004-2013

Sample 20 Action Project Titles

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.
11.
12.
13.
14.
15.
16.
17.
18.
19.
20.

Civic, Social and Political Education: R2004-2013

Sample 20	Action Project Titles	Type
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
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9.		
10.		
11.		
12.		
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19.		
20.		

APPENDIX B

Letter to John Hammond, Colm Regan and Stephen McCarthy

- Including questions used to guide the subsequent interview

Dear Colm/John/Stephen

I am currently working on my PhD in the area of Civic, Social and Political Education and the Action Project in particular. As you know the definitive history of CSPE has not been written and as you were instrumental in the development of the subject I would like to ask you a few questions by way of an 'élite interview' to fill in some gaps in my knowledge.

I have itemised below the questions I think would inform our conversation. I reckon it would take about 30 minutes of your time to go through them. In the light of the dearth of literature in the area of CSPE/Action Project, I would welcome a conversation with you sometime if you can facilitate me.

Many thanks,

Máirín

Questions to ask at Élite Interviews:

1. What philosophies/model informed the development of Civic, Social & Political Education?

2. Who designed the syllabus?

3. What was the role of the NCCA and DES respectively?

4. What was the origin of the Action Project?

5. What was the thinking behind the weighting of 60% for reporting the Action Project in the RAP/CWAB and 40% written paper in the CSPE examination?

6. How were the concepts, domains and themes chosen?

7. Has CSPE met your expectations?

8. My main findings to date are... what do you think?

Thanks again, I look forward to hearing from you. Máirín

APPENDIX C

Letter to National Co-ordinator of CSPE Support Service

w@gmail.com
Mobile: 086

Dublin 14
2009

Dear Conor,

I am currently undertaking research that has as its focus the Action Project in CSPE. I am keen to access CSPE teachers to answer a questionnaire for me that captures some of the practices around the Action Project. I also want to generate data on the perceptions of teachers on this component of the subject. I notice that you have planned a round of in-service for 'Experienced CSPE teachers and CSPE Subject Co-ordinators' and I would be grateful if you could ask those facilitating the in-service to administer this questionnaire for me.

There are five short sections in the questionnaire and I have attached a copy of it for you to preview. It is likely that teachers will need fifteen minutes or so to complete the questions. The questionnaire is completely anonymous, and respondents cannot be identified in the study.

I have also scripted an explanatory introduction for the facilitator administering the questionnaire. (See overleaf).

I feel it is important that the teacher voice is included in my study and would sincerely appreciate your support. Should you need further information, please contact me at the above mobile number or email address.

Many thanks,

Máirín

APPENDIX D

Teacher Questionnaire on CSPE Action Projects

The Action Project - A Questionnaire

Section I. Please tick as appropriate:

Male_____ Female_____ No. of years teaching CSPE_____

Are you the co-ordinator of CSPE in your school? Yes _____ No_____

Type of school in which you work

a) Voluntary Secondary School ___ Community School ___

Vocational School___ Community College ___

Private Second Level School ___ Comprehensive School ___

b) all boys ___ all girls ___ mixed gender ___

No. of pupils in your school (approx) _____

Section 2. Please tick as appropriate:

Name 3 Action Projects (if possible) that you have undertaken with your classes:

1._____
___

2._____
___

3._____
___

Which type of Action Project do you undertake with your students most often?

The whole class do one ___ Individuals do one ___

Groups within the class do different ones ___ A mix of these ___

Other (please specify)_____

How do you select an Action Project?

Students selects it ___ I select it ___

Topics emerge through topics being studied ___ I do one from a textbook ___

I have a favourite Action Project which I repeat ___ A mix of these ___

Other (please specify)_____

How do you organise the teams/groups/ committees of students to undertake the various activities in the Action Project?

I group them ___ Students group themselves ___

Random selection ___ Other (please specify)_____

Section 3: Challenges and Benefits

(a) Please rate the statements below as **True** or **False** or **Unsure**

Action Projects benefit young people because

Students learn the skills of active citizenship _____

Students learn how to work as a team _____

Students practice skills that they might need as adults _____

Students make real decisions _____

Students engage in real and concrete learning _____

Action Projects include all students in the group _____

Action Projects make learning more interesting _____

Action Projects help students to develop character_____

Action projects make students more aware of social justice issues _____

Other benefits_____

(b) Please rate the statements below as **True** or **False** or **Unsure**

The challenges around Action Projects are

It is hard to motivate students to get involved _____

It is hard to find a job for everyone _____

It is hard to pick the right topic _____

The textbooks are no good _____

Students with learning difficulties find Report writing problematic _____

The time for doing an Action Project is very tight _____

The time for writing up the Report is very tight _____

Other challenges_____

Section 4. Please tick as appropriate:

60% of the total marks in the CSPE examination are awarded to the RAP

Is this just right ___

too little ___ if too little, what would be more appropriate? _____

too much ___ if too much, what would be more appropriate? _____

Any comment on your choice?_____

Section 5. Please tick as appropriate:

Do you feel that there are sufficient supports for teachers in the undertaking of an Action Project?

Yes ___ No ____

Explain_____

____

_____

____

Do you feel that there are sufficient supports for teachers in the completion of the Action Project Report?

Yes ___ No ____

Explain_____

___

_____

___

Which of these forms of support have you availed of for completing your Action Project?

Pre-service Training In-Service Training

DES Guidelines A Textbook

Finally, what are the greatest challenges facing teachers around the undertaking of an Action Project?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Many thanks for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Máirín Wilson

APPENDIX E

Student Questionnaire on CSPE Action Projects

Student Questionnaire on Civic, Social and Political Education Action Projects

Please tick the statements below as True or False or Unsure

Action projects benefit young people and are good for them because

The students learn how to work as a team	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
The students practice skills that they might need as adults	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
The students make real decisions	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
The students take part in real world and concrete learning	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
Action Projects include all students in the group	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
Action Projects make learning more interesting	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
The students learn the skills of active citizenship	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
Action Projects help students to develop character (responsibility/awareness/spirit)	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
Action Projects make students more aware of social justice issues	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □

Any other benefits_____

Please tick the statements below as True or False or Unsure

The difficulties around Action Projects are

It is hard to get students to want to get involved	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
It is hard to find a job for everyone	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
It is hard to pick the right topic	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
The textbooks are no good	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
Some students find the Report writing too difficult	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
The time for doing an Action Project is very tight	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □
The time for writing up the Report is very tight	**True** □	**False** □	**Unsure** □

Other difficulties_____

Please put a tick beside what you think is correct:

You know that 60% of the total marks in the CSPE examination are for the Report on the Action Project .

Is this just right? _____

too little ? _____ If too little, what would be more suitable? _____

too much ?_____ If too much, what would be more suitable? _____

Why do you think this?_____

Thank you for filling in this questionnaire. *Máirín Wilson.*

APPENDIX F

Script for Administrators: Teacher In-Service

Dear Facilitator,

Many thanks for agreeing to do this for me (and CSPE).

This questionnaire for experienced CSPE teachers should take about 10-15 minutes to complete.

The script of instructions below is simply to ensure that all ethical aspects of data collection are adhered to and that participants understand the task.

Thanks again.

Kind regards,

Máirín

Script:

Máirín Wilson is doing a study of the Action Project for her PhD and she is looking for teachers' opinions on this component of CSPE. She has made out a short questionnaire for teachers to complete and she is hoping that you will do it now today.

It won't take long to do.

The questionnaire has 5 short sections to it.

The questionnaire is confidential and anonymised so that you cannot be identified in the study.

It is <u>not</u> compulsory for you to do this but your opinions are very important in this study.

Máirín sends her thanks to you.

APPENDIX G

a. Letter to Principal Seeking Permission to carry out Student Questionnaire

b. Letter and Script for Questionnaire Administrators

Tel: 086 xxxxxxxx
w@gmail.com

Dublin 14

November 2013

Dear xxxxxxxxxxxx

I am currently working on research that has as its focus the Action Project in CSPE. I would be very grateful if you would facilitate the administration of a one page questionnaire to one Transition Year class in your school: I have selected this year group as they will have had the recent experience of completing at least one Action Project.

There are three questions in the questionnaire and I have attached a copy of it for you to preview. It is likely that students will need five to ten minutes to complete the questions. The questionnaire is confidential - no student, class or school will be identified in the study.

I have also scripted an explanatory introduction for the teacher administering the questionnaire (See overleaf).

I feel it is important that the student voice is included in my study and would sincerely appreciate your support. Should you need further information, please contact me at the above mobile number or email address.

Many thanks,

Máirín

Máirín Wilson.

For the teacher:

Dear xxxxxxxxx

Many thanks for agreeing to do this for me (and CSPE). This student questionnaire should take less than 10 minutes to complete.

The script of instructions below is simply to ensure that all ethical aspects of data collection are adhered to and that students understand the task.

I would ask that you do not help students in any way to complete this questionnaire.

Thanks again for doing this.

Kind regards, Máirín

Script:

Máirín Wilson is doing a study of the Action Project in CSPE and she is looking for students' opinions. She has made out a one page questionnaire for students to complete and she is hoping that you will do it. It won't take long to do.

The questionnaire has 3 questions in it.

You have to decide in the first two questions if the sentence endings are 'True' or 'False' or you can tick 'Unsure' if you don't know whether they are true or false. At the end of these questions you can add your own comments if you wish, beside where it says 'Other'.

The questionnaire is confidential, that means that your name, your class and your school will NOT be identified in the study.

It is not compulsory for you to do this but your opinions are very important in this study.

Máirín sends her thanks to you.

APPENDIX H

Letter to Parents Requesting Permission: Student Respondents

CITIZENSHIP IN-DEED

PhD Research

by Máirín Wilson, Lecturer in Education.

INTRODUCTION

Your son/daughter will be invited to answer a one-page questionnaire as part of a research study on Civic, Social and Political Education. The study is an investigation into the Action Project element of the subject.

WHAT IS INVOLVED IN THE STUDY?

Your son/daughter will be asked to answer 3 questions, each of which has a number of parts. This will take him/her about 5-10 minutes.

BENEFITS TO TAKING PART IN THE STUDY

Taking part in this study ensures that student opinions and perspectives are included in the research. Others may benefit in the future too from the information gathered.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your son/daughter's name, his/her Class name and School name will NOT be used when data from this study is analysed and presented.

RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your son/daughter has the right not to participate at all.

Permission for a Son/daughter to participate in the research

As parent or legal guardian, I agree that _____ (son/daughter's name) can take part in the research study described in this form.

Parent/Guardian's Signature .....

Date: November 2013

Thank you,

Máirín

APPENDIX I

Rubric used to Codify the Quantitative Material

Thank you for agreeing to apply the rubric below to the 100 titles listed on the accompanying pages.

As you know Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) is a course in citizenship education based on human rights and social responsibility. The syllabus is based on seven concepts: Human Dignity, Rights and Responsibilities, Development, Stewardship, Democracy, Law and Interdependence. These seven concepts are used as the fundamental basis for the coding of the Action Project title data generated in this study.

The definitions of the concepts inform the coding process but as there is overlap between some concepts, this has necessitated that some themes be assigned to a particular concept, for example, the issue of poverty could be classed as a rights issue but as the syllabus includes poverty under the heading of Human Dignity it can be classified as such here.

Human Dignity (Code HD)

This focuses on Action Projects concerning the dignity of every individual as a human being and those actions focussed on the basic needs vital to human dignity.
It includes such issues as

- Poverty
- Right to life
- Health
- Food/Starvation
- Water
- Disability

Action Projects on the work of organisations such as Combat Poverty, Enable Ireland, Hospice Care, other organisations supporting various illnesses, hospitals, Rainbows Ireland, the Special Olympics, the Para Olympics, Guide Dogs for the Blind, Sightsavers, the Anne Sullivan Foundation, the Irish Wheelchair Association.

- Response to some natural disasters on human dignity/poverty basis.

Rights and Responsibilities (Code R + R)

This focuses on Action Projects based on the idea that every individual is entitled to basic social, cultural, economic, civic, religious and political rights. Citizens have a responsibility to respect those rights.

It includes issues such as

- Human rights (UNHDR)
- Children's rights (UNCRC)
- Prejudice
    - Racism
    - Asylum seeker
    - Refugees
    - Stereotyping
    - Travellers
    - Ageism
- Equality
- Homelessness
- Education
- Child Labour
- Child protection
- Bullying (cyber-bullying)

Action Projects on the work of organisations such as Human Rights Watch, Amnesty International, Concern, ISPCC, UNICEF, Barnardos, Operation Christmas Child, and organisations dealing with homelessness, Focus, Ireland Simon.

- Response to most natural disasters on rights basis.

Development (Code DV)

This focuses on Action Projects concerned with the process of improvement, social, economic, cultural and political.

It includes such issues as

- Planning at all levels. (Local, National, Global)
- Supporting the Developing World/Underdevelopment
- Sustainable Development (though this is also a Stewardship issue as development is an operative word it is included here)

The Syllabus also addresses the theme of underdevelopment and
Action Projects on the work of organisations in enabling the development of less developed countries such as Self Help Africa, Bóthar, Niall Melon Trust, other building projects

Stewardship (Code S)

This focuses on Action Projects concerned with the role of the individual and society in relation to the natural world and to the environment at local, national and global level. It also includes the responsible steps taken to preserve and improve it.

It includes such issues as

- The 3 Rs
- Eg erection of pylons, phone masts, wind farms
- The impact of a new motorway, by-pass
- Litter (and the use Plastic Bags)
- Tidy Towns
- An Taisce Spring Clean and other similar Campaigns
- Restoration and Conservation projects
- Pollution
- Care for Animals/Animals Protection and Conservation

Action Projects on the work of organisations such as An Taisce, ECO Unesco, the Green House, Green Schools, recycling organisations, WWF, all the SPCA organisations and animal sanctuaries around the country.

SA: All Action Projects on the theme of animal welfare and conservation are to be coded as **SA.**

Democracy (Code DEM)

This focuses on Action Projects based on the democratic process; exploring and applying democratic citizenship at the level of the individual, the school, the local and the national.

Includes issues such as

- Interaction with key personnel (President, Taoiseach, Tánaiste, Ceann Comhairle, Ministers, TDs, Councillors, election personnel)
- The Dáil
- Political parties.
- The Voting and elections (not EU), school councils
- Army

Law (Code L)

This focuses on Action Projects concerned with the means with which order and common codes of conduct in society are established and protected

This includes topics such as

- The courts system (local and national)
- Interaction with
    - Court personnel such as
        - Judges
        - Barristers
        - Solicitors
    - Garda Siochana
    - Prisons and Reformed Prisoners
- Neighbourhood Watch/Community Alert
- Consumer Law
- Labour Law
- Law in relation to Smoking, Drugs, Underage Drinking, Drinking and Driving, Road Safety.

Interdependence (Code I)

Action Projects concerned with the inter-relatedness of all human life particularly at European and global levels.

This includes Action Projects on topics such as

- The United Nations
    - Peace-keeping work
    - Other UN bodies
- The European Union
    - Elections to EU/MEPs
    - EU bodies
- War/Conflict/Terrorism
- Globalisation (Trade)
- Fair Trade
- Global / International Media

Action Projects on the work of organisations such as UN, EU, Fair Trade Ireland.

IE: All Action Projects with a focus on Europe code as **IE**.

IF: All Action Projects with a theme of Fair Trade code as **IF**.

Community (Code C)

While CSPE is based on seven Concepts it is also incorporates four units of study: unit 2 is 'The Community'. This heading is used to codify Action Projects

that deal with community issues but are not clearly identified with one of the seven concepts above.

They include such topics as
Community events

- A directory of Community amenities for young people
- A directory /guidebook for new entrants to a school

Community services

- The work of the Fire-brigade
- The RNLI

Miscellaneous/Other (Coded O)

These action projects cannot be coded as the title given is too obscure, they include such titles as

- Our Class Action Project
- Lights Camera Action!
- A Stitch in Time…
- Students in Action
- Survey
- A Guest Speaker
- Soccer Marathon
- Non-Uniform Day
- Charity Table Quiz

Outside of the Syllabus (Coded X)

CSPE has a syllabus, Action Projects can be outside of the syllabus if they deal with topics beyond the bounds of the syllabus for example pure History / Geography / Science projects - such as The Life of Michael Collins /The Inuit People/How Electricity Works.

APPENDIX J

Coded List of Titles and Types of Action Project: Pilot

Coded List of Titles and Types of Action Project: Researcher

Civic, Social and Political Education

	Sample 20 — Action Project Titles	Type
L	1. An investigation into Law and Crime in our locality	Investigation
S	2. Help the Environment. There is only one!	Guest Speaker
C	3. Production and distribution of the guide "50 Things to do in Wicklow Town"	Awareness Raising Publication
IE	4. Organising and undertaking EU survey in the whole school	Survey / Questionnaire
D&M	5. The organization of Student councils elections in our school	Mock Election.
R+R	6. Our responsibility to help — Fundraising for the victims of the floods of Pakistan	Cake Sale Fundraiser
DV	7. Finding out about Bother and sending a Cow to Africa	Guest Speaker and follow-up Project
L	8. A visit to Henry St Garda St. and Limerick prison	Visit
R+R	9. Human Rights Awareness Day	Raising awareness and celebration.
I	10. Talks from Michael O'Mahony of the UN Peace Keeping Forces	Awareness and Guest Speaker
R+R	11. Organising a Rock concert for UNICEF and fundraising in the run-up to the event.	Fundraising
D&M	12. A visit to Houses of the Oireachtas	Visit and Interview.
HD	13. Building and sleeping in a Shanty-town overnight to experience that type of life	Raising Awareness.
S	14. Water usage and water wastage in our school	Raising Awareness Campaign
R+R	15. Supporting Amnesty International	Guest Speaker.
SA	16. A visit to the C.S.P.C.A. and charity quiz	fundraiser and Visit
SA	17. Fox-hunting and Animal welfare	Raising Awareness and Exhibition.
SA	18. A visit to Dublin Zoo to learn more about animal conservation.	Visit
HD	19. Hunger, helpless and homeless Awareness day	Awareness Raising
R+R	20. A visit with the Older Generation	Awareness Raising and Visit.

Civic, Social and Political Education: R2004-2013

Sample 20	Action Project Titles	Type
	1. INVITING A SPEAKER IN TO TALK TO US ABOUT THE UNCRC TO INVESTIGATE CHILDRENS RIGHTS	GUEST SPEAKER
	2. A VISIT TO THE DAIL TO SEE DEMOCRACY AT WORK	VISIT
	3. OUR TRIP TO THE DONICEY SANCTUARY	VISIT
	4. ORGANISING A SPEAKER FROM OUR LOCAL AMENITY CENTRE TO COME AND SPEAK TO US ABOUT RECYCLING.	GUEST SPEAKER + RAISING AWARENESS
	5. A CHARITY CAKE SALE IN AID OF NORTHWEST HOSPICE	FUNDRAISING
	6. VISIT TO EU PARLIAMENT (OFFICES DUBLIN)	TRIP
	7. CHILD LABOUR + HUMAN TRAFFICKING	RAISING AWARENESS + EXHIBITION
	8. HOLDING A SCHOOL REFERENDUM	MOCK ELECTION
	9. A VISIT TO ENNIS COURTHOUSE	VISIT
	10. A VISIT TO THE OFFICE OF THE OMBUDSMAN FOR CHILDREN TO INVESTIGATE THE RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF CHILDREN IN IRELAND	VISIT
	11. THE DENIAL OF HUMAN RIGHTS WITHIN THE TRAVELLING COMMUNITY	GUEST SPEAKER (OTHER MORNING)
	12. OUR PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION	MOCK ELECTION
	13. SURVEY AND RAISING AWARENESS OF CYBER BULLYING	SURVEY + RAISING AWARENESS
	14. COLLECTION FOR NIALL MELON FUND	GUEST SPEAKER + FUNDRAISER
	15. RAISING AWARENESS ABOUT LIFE IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY	RAISING AWARENESS + GUEST SPEAKER
	16. THE ORGANISATION OF A 'DIVERSITY DAY' IN OUR SCHOOL - LIVING THE WORLD	DESIGNATED DAY
	17. RAISING MONEY FOR AMNESTY INTERNATIONAL	GUEST SPEAKER + FUNDRAISER
	18. WHEELCHAIR ACCESSIBILITY IN KILLARNEY	RAISING AWARENESS + PRESENTATION TO SCHOOL
	19. ORGANISING A FILM SCREENING AND FUNDRAISER TO PROMOTE AWARENESS OF RACISM TO STUDENTS IN OUR SCHOOL	SURVEY + FUNDRAISER
	20. A CREATION OF A CHOICE OF OUR TOP 10 CONVENTIONS ON THE RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CHILD	PUBLICATION + TALK TO SCHOOL

APPENDIX K

Additional tables:

- Raw data: the concepts on which Action Projects were based (2001-2013)

- Types of action undertaken by students in the 4,000 random samples selected 2004 - 2013.

Raw data on:

- Types of action taken under the concept of Rights & Responsibilities

- Types of action taken under the concept of Law

- Types of action taken under the concept of Democracy

- Types of action taken under the concept of Stewardship

- Types of action taken under the concept of Human Dignity

- Types of action taken under the concept of Development

- Types of action taken under the concept of Interdependence

Raw data for Figure 6.3

Raw data for Figure 6.4

Raw data analysis: the concepts on which Action Projects were based (2001-2013)

YEAR	Human Dignity	Rights & Resp	Steward ship	Stwd-Ani	Devel	Democ	Law	Inter-dep	I/Fair Trade	I/ EU	Comm-unity	Misc	Unsuit	D/A/S	Blank	totals	Less Misc & Blank
2001	177	954	672	112	160	495	308	58	2	60	105	58	27	117	75	3380	3247
2002	134	798	457	115	124	499	309	48	18	106	84	94	16	39	179	3020	2747
2003	265	849	411	120	63	550	314	63	25	92	79	114	5	27	143	3120	2863
2004	340	891	425	146	126	634	396	72	43	30	81	81	1	25	89	3380	3210
2005	214	974	325	194	155	577	451	68	39	44	88	77	29	30	115	3360	3168
2006	224	870	274	201	149	645	517	33	78	32	42	80	7	13	95	3280	3105
2007	343	669	318	252	115	667	607	29	67	36	55	99	2	18	83	3360	3178
2008	210	736	262	240	99	661	555	63	89	21	51	43	7	3	100	3140	2997
2009	292	614	297	283	148	796	677	54	100	18	46	66	0	2	67	3460	3327
2010	258	713	263	300	117	687	612	73	99	36	34	76	3	2	67	3340	3197
2011	327	698	242	389	145	741	528	68	67	30	50	62	3	4	46	3400	3292
2012	277	687	252	364	131	764	567	31	57	16	16	37	0	11	70	3280	3173
2013	348	694	170	417	133	633	535	10	62	17	23	63	3	16	36	3160	3061
TOTS	3409	10147	4368	3133	1665	8349	6376	670	746	538	754	950	103	307	1165	42680	40565

2001	5.5%	29.4%	20.7%	3.4%	4.9%	15.2%	9.5%	1.8%	0.1%	1.8%	3.2%	1.8%	0.8%	3.6%	2.3%	104.1%	100.0%
2002	4.9%	29.0%	16.6%	4.2%	4.5%	18.2%	11.2%	1.7%	0.7%	3.9%	3.1%	3.4%	0.6%	1.4%	6.5%	109.9%	100.0%
2003	9.3%	29.7%	14.4%	4.2%	2.2%	19.2%	11.0%	2.2%	0.9%	3.2%	2.8%	4.0%	0.2%	0.9%	5.0%	109.0%	100.0%
2004	10.6%	27.8%	13.2%	4.5%	3.9%	19.8%	12.3%	2.2%	1.3%	0.9%	2.5%	2.5%	0.0%	0.8%	2.8%	105.3%	100.0%
2005	6.8%	30.7%	10.3%	6.1%	4.9%	18.2%	14.2%	2.1%	1.2%	1.4%	2.8%	2.4%	0.9%	0.9%	3.6%	106.1%	100.0%
2006	7.2%	28.0%	8.8%	6.5%	4.8%	20.8%	16.7%	1.1%	2.5%	1.0%	1.4%	2.6%	0.2%	0.4%	3.1%	105.6%	100.0%
2007	10.8%	21.1%	10.0%	7.9%	3.6%	21.0%	19.1%	0.9%	2.1%	1.1%	1.7%	3.1%	0.1%	0.6%	2.6%	105.7%	100.0%
2008	7.0%	24.6%	8.7%	8.0%	3.3%	22.1%	18.5%	2.1%	3.0%	0.7%	1.7%	1.4%	0.2%	0.1%	3.3%	104.8%	100.0%
2009	8.8%	18.5%	8.9%	8.5%	4.4%	23.9%	20.3%	1.6%	3.0%	0.5%	1.4%	2.0%	0.0%	0.1%	2.0%	104.0%	100.0%
2010	8.1%	22.3%	8.2%	9.4%	3.7%	21.5%	19.1%	2.3%	3.1%	1.1%	1.1%	2.4%	0.1%	0.1%	2.1%	104.5%	100.0%
2011	9.9%	21.2%	7.4%	11.8%	4.4%	22.5%	16.0%	2.1%	2.0%	0.9%	1.5%	1.9%	0.1%	0.1%	1.4%	103.3%	100.0%
2012	8.7%	21.7%	7.9%	11.5%	4.1%	24.1%	17.9%	1.0%	1.8%	0.5%	0.5%	1.2%	0.0%	0.3%	2.2%	103.4%	100.0%
2013	11.4%	22.7%	5.6%	13.6%	4.3%	20.7%	17.5%	0.3%	2.0%	0.6%	0.8%	2.1%	0.1%	0.5%	1.2%	103.2%	100.0%
TOTS	8.4%	25.0%	10.8%	7.7%	4.1%	20.6%	15.7%	1.7%	1.8%	1.3%	1.9%	2.3%	0.3%	0.8%	2.9%	105.2%	100.0%

Types of action undertaken by students in the 4,000 random samples selected 2004 - 2013.

YEAR	F	F +	Vis	Vis +	GS	GS +	SC	SC +	Surv	Surv +	Mock Elec	Mock Elec+	Pub	Pub +	Inv	Inv +	D Day	D Day +	Cam	Cam+	AR	AR +	Other
2004	72	15	42	3	120	9	0	0	23	5	39	1	0	0	14	0	10	0	19	1	12	5	10
2005	43	43	45	8	114	21	8	0	8	13	21	0	0	2	21	7	0	0	8	4	15	13	6
2006	84	35	71	17	79	18	3	4	16	0	12	1	0	0	12	2	3	1	8	0	31	0	3
2007	51	9	62	9	108	19	0	0	17	4	25	2	0	0	17	3	0	0	8	0	33	23	10
2008	24	38	119	15	99	15	2	0	18	4	24	0	3	0	3	1	2	0	2	1	27	0	3
2009	39	25	77	26	92	7	8	0	26	21	20	2	0	0	5	4	15	7	8	3	15	0	0
2010	37	16	84	11	110	17	2	0	10	1	35	0	0	0	10	1	1	0	5	3	50	3	4
2011	59	59	51	7	97	19	7	0	3	11	18	0	2	1	6	2	4	9	1	4	25	2	13
2012	55	13	93	18	90	21	5	0	7	4	12	0	0	2	2	0	13	6	4	2	38	7	8
2013	34	48	91	11	76	32	11	4	6	13	17	2	1	0	1	5	1	5	4	8	28	2	0
Tots	498	301	735	125	985	178	46	8	134	76	223	8	6	5	91	25	49	28	67	26	274	55	57

YEAR	F	F +	Vis	Vis +	GS	GS +	SC	SC +	Surv	Surv +	Mock Elec	Mock Elec+	Pub	Pub +	Inv	Inv +	D Day	Des Day +	Cam	Cam+	AR	AR +	Other
2004	14.5%	5.0%	5.7%	2.4%	12.2%	5.1%	0.0%	0.0%	17.2%	6.6%	17.5%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	15.4%	0.0%	20.4%	0.0%	28.4%	3.8%	4.4%	9.1%	17.5%
2005	8.6%	14.3%	6.1%	6.4%	11.6%	11.8%	17.4%	0.0%	6.0%	17.1%	9.4%	0.0%	0.0%	40.0%	23.1%	28.0%	0.0%	0.0%	11.9%	15.4%	5.5%	23.6%	10.5%
2006	16.9%	11.6%	9.7%	13.6%	8.0%	10.1%	6.5%	50.0%	11.9%	0.0%	5.4%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	13.2%	8.0%	6.1%	3.6%	11.9%	0.0%	11.3%	0.0%	5.3%
2007	10.2%	3.0%	8.4%	7.2%	11.0%	10.7%	0.0%	0.0%	12.7%	5.3%	11.2%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	18.7%	12.0%	0.0%	0.0%	11.9%	0.0%	12.0%	41.8%	17.5%
2008	4.8%	12.6%	16.2%	12.0%	10.1%	8.4%	4.3%	0.0%	13.4%	5.3%	10.8%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	3.3%	4.0%	4.1%	0.0%	3.0%	3.8%	9.9%	0.0%	5.3%
2009	7.8%	8.3%	10.5%	20.8%	9.3%	3.9%	17.4%	0.0%	19.4%	27.6%	9.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.5%	16.0%	30.6%	25.0%	11.9%	11.5%	5.5%	0.0%	0.0%
2010	7.4%	5.3%	11.4%	8.8%	11.2%	9.6%	4.3%	0.0%	7.5%	1.3%	15.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	11.0%	4.0%	2.0%	0.0%	7.5%	11.5%	18.2%	5.5%	7.0%
2011	11.8%	19.6%	6.9%	5.6%	9.8%	10.7%	15.2%	0.0%	2.2%	14.5%	8.1%	0.0%	33.3%	20.0%	6.6%	8.0%	8.2%	32.1%	1.5%	15.4%	9.1%	3.6%	22.8%
2012	11.0%	4.3%	12.7%	14.4%	9.1%	11.8%	10.9%	50.0%	5.2%	5.3%	5.4%	0.0%	0.0%	40.0%	2.2%	0.0%	26.5%	21.4%	6.0%	7.7%	13.9%	12.7%	14.0%
2013	6.8%	15.9%	12.4%	8.8%	7.7%	18.0%	23.9%	0.0%	4.5%	17.1%	7.6%	25.0%	16.7%	0.0%	1.1%	20.0%	2.0%	17.9%	6.0%	30.8%	10.2%	3.6%	0.0%

% of Action Projects over 10 years under each type of action n = 4,000

Raw data on: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Rights and Responsibilities:

Rights and Responsibility	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	44	16	50	33	15	17	21	22	32	18	268
Fundraising +	9	26	9	2	23	7	9	28	6	24	143
Visit to	1	1	1	1	3	1	2	3	5	6	24
Visit to +			1		2	3	4	1	10		21
Guest Speaker	48	54	20	23	19	13	26	21	15	24	263
Guest Speaker +	4	11	4	5	5	1	8	4	9	13	64
Student Council								1	1		2
Student Council +											0
Survey	8	1		5	2	9	2		1	3	31
Survey +		3		1		2		1	4	1	12
Mock Election											0
Mock Election +											0
Publication								2			2
Publication +											0
Investigation	3	6		1	1		2				13
Investigation +		2	2							1	5
Designated Day	1				1	4			1		7
Designated Day +						1			2	3	6
Campaign	4	3		2	2	4	2	2		1	20
Campaign +		1				1	1	2	2		7
Awareness Raising	3	5		12	12	10	9	9	9	9	78
Awareness Raising +	1	5		5				2	1		14
Other	2	1	1				2	1	1		8
TOTALS	128	135	88	90	85	73	88	99	99	103	**988**

n = 4,000

Raw data on: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Democracy

DEMOCRACY	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising			2	1	1					1	5
Fundraising +	1									1	2
Visit to	17	16	32	15	48	40	34	23	32	38	295
Visit to +		1	7	2	9	3	2	4		4	32
Guest Speaker	19	15	11	20	19	17	26	12	16	11	166
Guest Speaker +		2		2	2	1	3	4		2	16
Student Council		8	3	2	2	8	2	6	4	10	45
Student Council+			4							4	8
Survey	4		4		3	5			2	1	19
Survey +	2	3		1	1					1	8
Mock Election	39	21	12	25	24	18	35	18	12	18	222
Mock Election +	1		1	2		2				1	7
Publication											0
Publication +											0
Investigation	1		5	3		1	1				11
Investigation +											0
Designated Day											0
Designated Day +								1			1
Campaign											0
Campaign +	1										1
Awareness Raising		1			1	2	1	2			7
Awareness Raising +	2						1				3
Other					1			2			3
TOTALS	87	67	81	73	111	97	105	72	66	92	**851**

n = 4,000

Raw data on: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Law

LAW	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising				2							2
Fundraising +			1		1	2		2			6
Visit to	16	18	32	33	39	17	25	20	22	28	250
Visit to +	1	3	3	3	1	11	2	1	2		27
Guest Speaker	21	13	15	27	26	26	25	28	27	29	237
Guest Speaker +		2	5	5	4	3	5	1		6	31
Student Council											0
Student Council +											0
Survey	2	2			3	3					10
Survey +								2		4	6
Mock Election											0
Mock Election +											0
Publication					2				1		3
Publication +		1									1
Investigation		2		2			5	4			13
Investigation +		2				1	1	2			6
Designated Day					1		1				2
Designated Day +											0
Campaign					1						1
Campaign +		2									2
Awareness Raising	3	1		1		3	6	4			18
Awareness Raising +	1			3			1				5
Other								2			2
TOTAL	44	46	56	76	78	66	71	66	52	67	**622**

n = 4,000

Raw data on: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Stewardship

STEWARDSHIP	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	5	3	3	5	2	9	4	7	10	9	57
Fundraising +	1	4	3	5	4	6	4	14	1	11	53
Visit to	3	4	2	17	18	10	18	3	18	18	111
Visit to +	2	6	3	5	3	7	3	1	3	6	39
Guest Speaker	13	5	9	10	15	16	11	17	17	6	119
Guest Speaker +	1		2		3	1		6	3	6	22
Student Council										1	1
Student Council +											0
Survey	1	2	4	4	6	8	2	2	3		32
Survey +	1	1		1		14	1	6		2	26
Mock Election											0
Mock Election +											0
Publication											0
Publication +		1						1			2
Investigation	2	3	2	2	1	3	2			1	16
Investigation +		2		3		2		1			8
Designated Day	4			1		4			4		13
Designated Day +						5		5	3		13
Campaign	13	4	7	6			1			6	37
Campaign +		1	1		1	2					5
Awareness Raising	3	5		13	6	2		3	15	11	58
Awareness Raising +		6		7			12			1	26
Other	4	4	2	3	1			5	5		24
TOTAL	53	51	38	82	60	89	58	71	82	78	**662**

n = 4,000

Raw data on: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Human Dignity

HUMAN DIGNITY	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	10	9	16	9	4	2	6	19	6	3	84
Fundraising +	2	4	6	1	8	5		6	3	8	43
Visit to	1	4	1		3	3	2		6	1	21
Visit to +									3		3
Guest Speaker	4	14	9	10	4	8	3	6	5	4	67
Guest Speaker +	2	1	3	2	1	1		1	6	1	18
Student Council											0
Student Council +											0
Survey	4			5	1		2			2	14
Survey +	1	1			3						5
Mock Election											0
Mock Election +											0
Publication										1	1
Publication +											0
Investigation	3	5	1	1		1		1			12
Investigation +						1					1
Designated Day								1		2	3
Designated Day +			1			1		2			4
Campaign						1			3	1	5
Campaign +								1		3	4
Awareness Raising				5	4		3	3	3		18
Awareness Raising +	1	2		8					2	3	16
Other											0
TOTAL	28	40	37	41	28	23	16	40	37	29	**319**

n = 4,000

Raw data on: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Development

DEVELOPMENT	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising	1	12	2	1	1	5	3	9	2	3	39
Fundraising +		4	2	2	2	3	2	8	1	2	26
Visit to						2	2		1	2	7
Visit to +						1					1
Guest Speaker	1	1	1		5	2	4	1	5	1	21
Guest Speaker +								1	2	4	7
Student Council											0
Student Council +											0
Survey		1	3				2			3	9
Survey +										1	1
Mock Election											0
Mock Election +											0
Publication									2		2
Publication +									1		1
Investigation	1	5	1		2						9
Investigation +											0
Designated Day	4										4
Designated Day +											0
Campaign						1					1
Campaign +											0
Awareness Raising	1							1	1	5	8
Awareness Raising +									3		3
Other	3							2			5
TOTAL	11	23	9	3	10	14	13	22	18	21	**144**

n = 4,000

Raw data on: Types of Action Projects under the Concept of Interdependence

INTERDEPENDENCE	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Fundraising		1									1
Fundraising +		3	4		1			1		1	10
Visit to						1	1	1	7		10
Visit to +											0
Guest Speaker	1	3	6	1	4	6	8	6			35
Guest Speaker +								1	2		3
Student Council											0
Student Council +											0
Survey	1	1		1	3	1	2	1	1		11
Survey +		1				5		2		2	10
Mock Election											0
Mock Election +											0
Publication											0
Publication +											0
Investigation	3			5				1			9
Investigation +		1	2								3
Designated Day	1			1				2	8	1	13
Designated Day +									1		1
Campaign	2	1				1					4
Campaign +								1			1
Awareness Raising	2	2				2	7	3	10		26
Awareness Raising +										1	1
Other	2	1		3	2		2	1			11
TOTAL	12	14	12	11	10	16	20	20	29	5	**149**

n = 4,000

Raw data for Figure 6.3

YEAR	Rights and Responsibility	Stewardship	Democracy	Law
1	29.4%	24.10%	15.2%	9.5%
2	29.0%	20.80%	18.2%	11.2%
3	29.7%	18.50%	19.2%	11.0%
4	27.8%	17.80%	19.8%	12.3%
5	30.6%	16.30%	18.1%	14.1%
6	28.2%	15.40%	20.9%	16.8%
7	21.1%	17.90%	21.0%	19.1%
8	24.6%	16.80%	22.1%	18.5%
9	18.5%	17.40%	23.9%	20.3%
10	22.3%	17.60%	21.5%	19.1%
11	21.2%	19.2%	22.5%	16.0%
12	21.7%	19.4%	24.1%	17.5%
13	22.7%	19.2%	20.7%	15.7%

Raw data for Figure 6.4

YEAR	Human dignity	Interdependence	Development	Substance Abuse	Community	Unsuitable
1	5.5%	3.7%	4.9%	3.6%	3.2%	0.8%
2	4.9%	6.3%	4.5%	1.4%	3.1%	0.6%
3	9.3%	6.3%	2.2%	0.9%	2.8%	0.2%
4	10.6%	4.5%	3.9%	0.8%	2.5%	0.0%
5	6.7%	4.7%	4.9%	0.9%	2.8%	0.9%
6	7.3%	4.6%	4.8%	0.4%	1.4%	0.2%
7	10.8%	4.2%	3.6%	0.6%	1.7%	0.1%
8	7.0%	5.8%	3.3%	0.1%	1.7%	0.2%
9	8.8%	5.2%	4.4%	0.1%	1.4%	0.0%
10	8.1%	6.5%	3.7%	0.1%	1.1%	0.1%
11	9.9%	5.0%	4.4%	0.1%	1.5%	0.1%
12	8.7%	3.3%	4.1%	0.3%	0.5%	0.0%
13	11.4%	2.9%	4.3%	0.5%	0.8%	0.1%