

# ACT Reference Framework



National and Kapodistrian  
UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS

IEP MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, RESEARCH AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS  
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY



ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ  
Υπουργείο Παιδείας,  
Ερευνας και Θρησκευμάτων



GOBIERNO DE ESPAÑA  
MINISTERIO DE EDUCACIÓN Y FORMACIÓN PROFESIONAL



cnesco  
conseil national  
de l'évaluation  
du système scolaire

MINISTÈRE  
DE L'ÉDUCATION  
NATIONALE ET  
DE LA JEUNESSE



PARIS SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS  
ÉCOLE D'ÉCONOMIE DE PARIS

UNIVERSITÉ  
de Cergy-Pontoise

Fundación Europea  
Sociedad y Educación  
European Foundation  
Society and Education

Department  
for Education

BRITISH  
COUNCIL

LSE  
THE LONDON SCHOOL  
OF ECONOMICS AND  
POLITICAL SCIENCE

Funded by the  
Erasmus+ Programme  
of the European Union

Deliverable Title	ACT Reference Framework
Work package Title	WP1 – Experimentation Protocol
Work package Lead	CNESCO – Ministère de l'éducation nationale
Author(s)	Emily Helmeid
Contributor(s)	Ministerial partners
Reviewer(s)	Consortium members
Dissemination level	Restricted to the consortium
Project Number	582958-EPP-1-2016-2-FR-EPPKA3-PI-POLICY
Instrument	Erasmus+ KA3 Initiatives for policy innovation
Start date of Project	28/02/2017
Duration	36 months
Project coordinator	CIEP

## Abstract

This document provides the framework for the construction of the ACT project. It is both a review of the relevant literature informing the development of the ACT protocol and its structure as well as an overview of the context for its implementation in the countries participating in the project. It should be noted that this document is neither exhaustive in scope, nor representative of all fields of research related to citizenship education and teacher training.

The ACT Project intends to be a European project in its conception, implementation and outcomes. Via this document, the project consortium will ensure, from the very start of the project, that the methodology defined for the implementation of civic projects in secondary schools is designed in such a way that it can be easily adapted to the national context and their specific modalities and curricula for teaching and learning citizenship.

## Versioning and contribution history

History version	Date	Modification	Modified by
V1	10/01/2018	Draft version	Emily Helmeid
V2	30/03/2018	Revisions	WP leaders
V3	30/11/2018	Revisions	Emily Helmeid
V4			

## Table of contents

Abstract .....	1
Versioning and contribution history .....	1
Table of contents .....	2
Part 1. Citizenship .....	4
I. What is the impetus for the ACT project? .....	4
Developing competences along with gaining knowledge .....	5
Promoting civic consciousness that goes beyond national borders .....	6
II. What kind of citizenship? .....	7
Finding consensus on active citizenship .....	7
The components of active citizenship .....	11
Conclusion .....	12
Part 2. Education for citizenship .....	15
I. History of citizenship education .....	15
An old concern .....	15
Variations and common features of CE .....	16
Current perspectives for CE .....	16
II. Best practices in citizenship education .....	17
School level .....	17
Classroom level .....	19
Cohort level .....	26
Conclusion .....	27
III. Citizenship education in ACT countries .....	28
England .....	28
France .....	29
Greece .....	31
Spain .....	34
Part 3. Teacher training .....	40
I. Best practices in teacher training .....	40
Duration .....	40
Mode of delivery .....	40
Pedagogy .....	41

II. Teacher Training in ACT countries .....	43
England.....	43
France.....	44
Greece .....	46
Spain.....	48
Part 4. Best practices in impact evaluation .....	53
Considering future generalisation of the programme .....	53
Selecting the sample.....	54
Evaluating the results.....	56
Evaluation instruments.....	59
Conclusion .....	62

## Part 1. Citizenship

### I. What is the impetus for the ACT project?

From Aristotle to Luther, from Smith to Friedman, there is a long history of linking education with citizenship in the western hemisphere. While the definition of an ideal citizen has changed, the overall view that one of the principal aims of education is to prepare young people for active participation in community life has not. In recent years, empirical evidence has shown that increased schooling is related to a whole set of socially desirable related to civic and social engagement such as increased voter turnout, more tolerance between individuals and groups, and greater interest in current events (Bozec, 2016; Campbell, 2006; Kahne & Sporte, 2008).

Recognizing the important role that school plays in promoting democratic values and active citizenship, all Member States of the European Union adopted the Council of Europe's *Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education* in 2010. In the wake of terrorist attacks throughout Europe, the need to support education for citizenship has become increasingly urgent. On 17 March 2015, in response to attacks in Paris in January of the same year, Education Ministers of the European Union signed the *Declaration on promoting citizenship and the common values of freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination through education* (commonly referred to as the "Paris Declaration") which made a call for action at all levels to reinforce the role of education in promoting citizenship and the common values of freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination, strengthening social cohesion, and helping young people become responsible, open-minded and active members of our diverse and inclusive society. The "Paris Declaration" was closely followed by the publication of the 2015 Joint Report of the Council and the Commission on the implementation of the *Strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET2020)* which also reaffirmed the importance of education and training when it comes to "fostering inclusion and equality, cultivating mutual respect and embedding fundamental values in an open and democratic society" (European Commission, 2015). In short, European bodies have been unanimous in their support of citizenship education (CE) and the important role it plays in safeguarding the shared fundamental values which are the foundation of a strong, united and inclusive European Union.

Not only have recent years been marked by a larger number of terrorist attacks, but they have also been characterised by greater visibility for extremist views and populist political parties as well as increasing rates of voter abstention. The need to educate for civic mindedness in European countries has thus also grown in importance. To that end, two aspects of CE could stand to be improved: the priority placed on knowledge transmission over civic competences and the emphasis on national citizenship to the detriment of a more global civic consciousness.

## Developing competences along with gaining knowledge

In the past, CE in Europe has primarily been focussed on developing students' knowledge of national history, political institutions and legal processes. One reason for the exclusion of a more multi-dimensional citizenship from national curricula has been the difficulty it represents to carrying out student assessment (Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), 2010). But in a more general sense, the focus on knowledge transmission simply represents a philosophy on education which saw the student as a receptacle for teachers' knowledge rather than an actor in the learning process. It is the latter view that now dominates reform efforts in western countries.

As citizenship education has gained prominence in the public debate in Europe, efforts have been made to evolve citizenship education to better account for changing times and expectations. Indeed, the Eurydice Brief, *Citizenship Education at School in Europe 2017*, on the state of citizenship education in Europe confirms that European countries have all begun to implement curricula designed to develop the competences associated with active citizenship: interacting effectively and constructively with others, thinking critically, acting in a socially responsible manner, and acting democratically (De Coster & Sigalas, 2017). If this report is any indication, European public authorities have come to acknowledge the importance of developing both knowledge and skills when it comes to citizenship education.

In a multivariate, multilevel, multi-country analysis of the contribution of education to secondary-school students' citizenship outcomes, the Centre for Research on Education and Lifelong Learning (CRELL) shows that students' civic competences can mostly be attributed to individual characteristics and out-of-school factors (Isac, Maslowski, Creemers, & van der Werf, 2014). Nevertheless, the authors find that certain factors at school can have a positive impact on the acquisition of citizenship skills by students. These factors "are related to stimulating a democratic classroom climate in which free dialogue and critical debate on controversial political and social issues are encouraged, nurturing positive interpersonal relationships and creating opportunities for students to learn and practice democracy" (*Idem.*).

Incidentally, the challenge for any European education system is to take a diverse group of students and create a learning environment that reaches and engages each unique individual in the pursuit of a common set of learning objectives. In this sense, adopting a multi-dimensional approach to citizenship education is a necessary step but not a sufficient one. The key is to identify and prescribe policies and practices that can be implemented to create the sort of learning environment that may have a real possibility of improving students' citizenship outcomes.

In view of what is known and with the aim of further developing the research on what is not known, the ACT project is focussed on fostering teaching practices that promote openness, inclusion and engagement for the purpose of developing students' knowledge and skills as well as promoting the shared values that define the European Union.

### **Promoting civic consciousness that goes beyond national borders**

While CE certainly contains a national component, it should not end there. Familiarity with the national anthem and history of one's country is important for constructing one's identity, but it is not enough for determining how one will engage with and participate in areas of public concern. Moreover, it limits citizenship to a concept that applies only to one's country. According to Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito (2010), today's youth claim a sense of belonging not only to their nation, but also to their schools, their cities, the European Union and the world. CE must therefore be adapted to accommodate this world view and the realities of a globalised world, as well as to encompass local and global concerns alike.

The various common declarations made by European countries as mentioned above reflect the will to further develop the dimensions of CE that extend beyond national borders. Without denying national specificities, EU countries demonstrate a desire to insist on their commonalities, on the conception of citizenship that connects each country and is a necessary condition for integrating the European Union. It is therefore a question of insisting on shared values, such as respect for human rights and democratic freedoms, without keeping students from learning about their countries' unique history and patriotic symbols.

Until now, each member state has more or less dealt with this challenge in its own way. If the afore-mentioned problems are of any indication, however, this strategy has its limitations. The shortcomings inherent to current curricula for CE provide a roadmap for cooperation at the European level through which member states can work together to respond to this shared challenge.

The ACT Project intends to be a European project in its conception, implementation and outcomes. The project consortium will ensure, from the very start of the project, that the methodology defined for the implementation of civic projects in secondary schools is designed in such a way that it can be applied to any school system, easily adapting to the national modalities and curricula for teaching and learning citizenship.

-----

*Should the ACT project achieve its objectives, it will most certainly contribute to advancing the European policy agenda on education as its principal objective is to better equip teachers to create a learning environment that is conducive to the development of citizenship outcomes among students. In that sense, the project responds to one of the challenges posed by the 2015 Joint Report of the Council and the Commission (European Commission, 2015)... in which "inclusive education, equality, equity, non-discrimination and the promotion of civic competences" are defined as a new priority area for further work up to 2020.*

## II. What kind of citizenship?

Consensus in the European Union on the importance of CE revolves around a specific vision of democracy as one that is ‘participatory’ in nature (see De Coster & Sigalas, 2017). Participatory democracy (in contrast to ‘procedural’ democracy) aims not only to maintain the *right* to vote and participate but also to guarantee and foster *effective* participation (Westheimer & Kahne, 1998). Applied to CE, this vision of democracy translates into the need for young people to be taught how to shape and change the societies in which they live. In essence, CE should teach young people how to become ‘active citizens’ who take part in and take responsibility for the communities (local, national, supranational, global...) in which they live through civic and political engagement and participation in areas of public concern (Bee, 2017; Hoskins and Mascherini, 2009).

At the European level, the term ‘active citizenship’ first appeared in an official capacity when it was included in proposals for the European Commission Lisbon 2010 strategy, in the context of developing a competitive knowledge society and greater social cohesion (European Council, 2000). The term was used to indicate a way of empowering citizens to take part in their communities, to acquire a sense of belonging and to adopt democratic values and intercultural awareness (European Commission, 1998). Since then, it has reappeared in official documents on multiple occasions, including in the preface to the executive summary of the 2015 Paris Declaration, though its definition tends to vary.

### Finding consensus on active citizenship

#### *Knowledge and values*

The 2012 Eurydice Report identifies three main themes around which national curricula in Europe are organised: the national socio-political system; societal issues; and the European and International dimension (European Commission / EACEA / Eurydice, 2012). Human rights, democratic values, equity and justice are the most common sub-themes taught in European school system when it comes to knowledge of the national socio-political system. Contemporary societal issues most often include tolerance, discrimination, cultural diversity and sustainable development. European and International content focusses largely on economic, political and social issues that extend beyond the national border as well as history, culture and literature. National curricula often address questions of identity and belonging.

The Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education emphasises the importance of teaching values on almost every page. The 2012 and 2017 Eurydice Reports on citizenship education argue for the promotion of democratic values in national curricula. While incorporating values into the curricula may be a challenge for policy makers and educators in Europe, the values themselves may be derived from those which are at the heart of the creation

of the European Union<sup>1</sup>: human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and non-discrimination. In a world in which the democratic experience is being severely tested, the promotion of shared values takes on new levels of importance. Schools in democratic societies cannot neglect this essential element of active citizenship education.

### *Capabilities and skills*

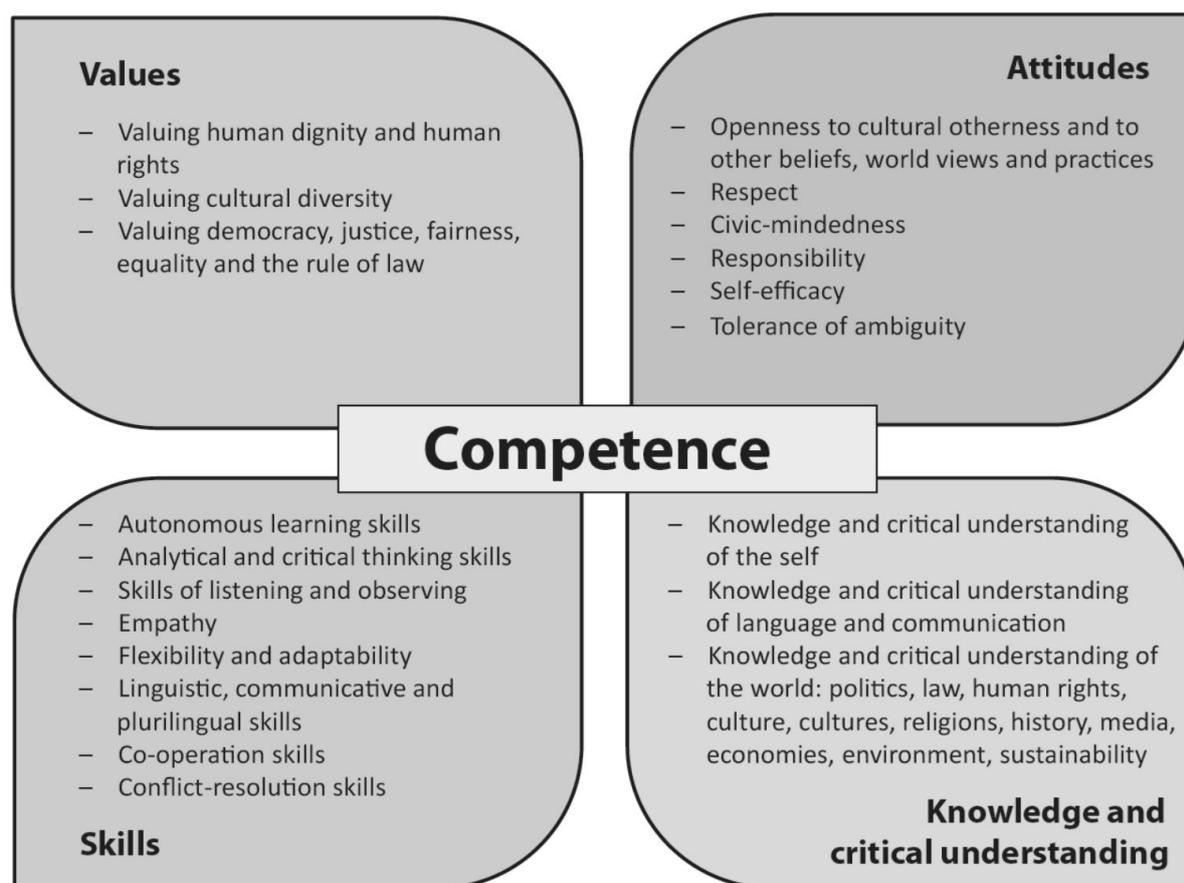
Though they may be armed with the theoretical knowledge of how one can concretely exercise citizenship, students must still possess the necessary skillset to put this knowledge into practice. In *The Idea of Justice* (Sen, 2011), Amartya Sen expounds on the need to develop ‘capabilities’ or the ability to act. This ability implies a sort of transformation of knowledge (theoretical and concrete) into effective power. Many obstacles can stand in the way of this transformation: auto-censorship, lack of confidence, the conviction that nothing can really change... To that end, some have spoken of the need for *active* or *transformative pedagogy* (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 2014) which would in turn entail *active* or *transformative citizenship education* and require a more dynamic approach to teaching and learning.

In fact, being able “to value” human dignity, cultural diversity, democracy, equality, etc. and “to act” in a socially responsible manner and “to think critically” are all skills stemming from the knowledge, values and attitudes promoted by the European Commission’s current model for active citizenship education. According to the Council of Europe (2018), “an individual is deemed to be acting competently when he or she meets the demands, challenges and opportunities that are presented by democratic and intercultural situations appropriately and effectively by mobilising and deploying some or all of the following competences” (Figure 2).

---

<sup>1</sup> [https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/eu-in-brief\\_en](https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/eu-in-brief_en)

**Figure 1. The 20 competences for democratic culture**



Source: Barret (2016) from Council of Europe Publishing

The 2017 report *Citizenship Education at School in Europe* indicates that many European countries begin fostering by teaching children to “interact effectively and constructively” with one another when they are in elementary school. Skills for “thinking critically, acting democratically and acting in a socially responsible manner” are generally taught once students are in secondary school. It is evident that national policy makers have made strides in evolving the focus of CE in this area, but the increasing importance of far right populist movements in Europe suggests that it is not possible to “breathe easy” on this point. Shared democratic values are the heart and soul of the continued vitality of the European Union.

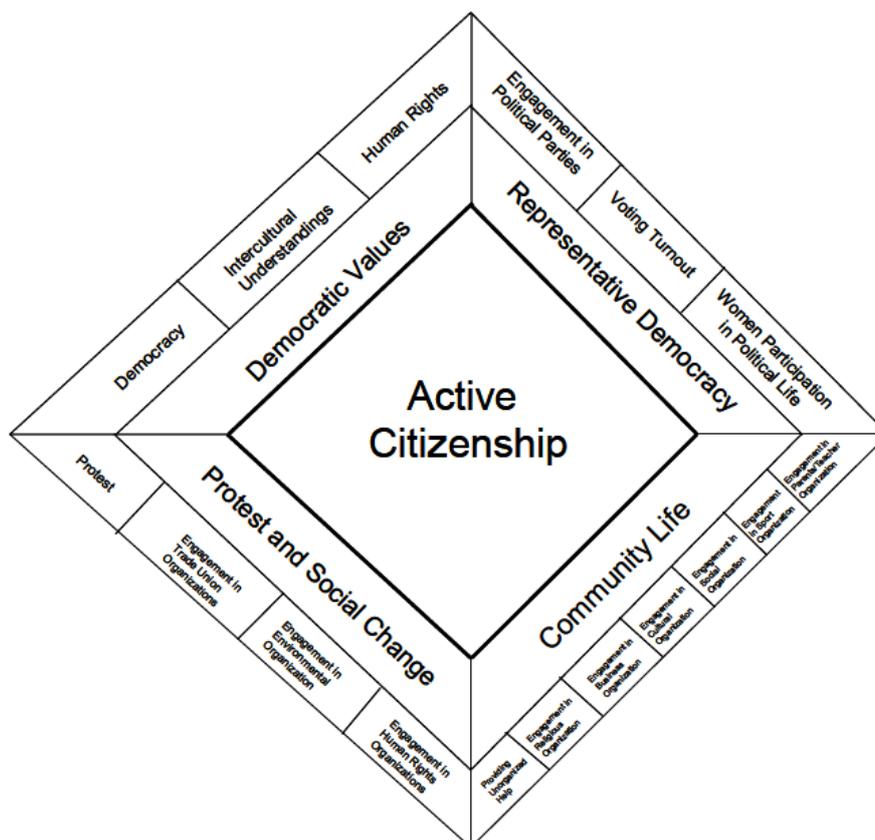
### *Engagement and participation*

Traditionally, CE focussed on knowledge of socio-political processes, systems and institutions so it is hardly surprising that CE has tended to impact civic knowledge more than civic behaviours (Junn, 1998; Langton & Jennings, 1968).<sup>2</sup> Currently, however, national curricula for CE are much broader in scope and tend to promote the acquisition of knowledge, skills **and** behaviours.

<sup>2</sup> G. Bozec tempers those quite old results and advocates for new studies. As we will see across this text, the use of indicators that go over traditional academic skills will allow this kind of analysis.

There would be no “active citizenship” without action. Hoskins and Mascherini (2009) construct an operational model of active citizenship based on participation in four measurable and distinct dimensions: Protest and social change, Community life, Representative democracy and Democratic values (Figure 1).

**Figure 2. The structure of active citizenship**



Source: Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009

It is not expected that young people will possess the desire and experience to participate in these four dimensions from the start. Nor is it expected that all young people will learn how to participate at home. This is, essentially, the justification for CE at school. According to Bréchon (1995), young people have always been less political and less active than adults because these behaviours are the result of a long process of socialisation. Goerres (2007), speaking specifically about voting, discusses the evolution in the participation rate as a function of the following three effects:

- *Life cycle effect*, which refers to the phase of life one is in and the related constraints this might have on participation;
- *Cohort effect*, which concerns the circumstances of the time during which a given cohort is educated and comes of age;
- *Individual effect*, which regards the characteristics of each individual that promote or discourage active engagement.

CE provides young people with the foundation for being engaged with socio-political life when they are adults. More importantly, it has the possibility of reaching those individuals and cohorts for whom background and context might impede active participation. After all, Plutzer (2002) showed that participation habits begin with a “predisposition” to participate, which is largely shaped by these same circumstance and contexts. To that end, CE can also be seen as a means of equalizing opportunities for engagement to set every young person on the path toward lifelong active citizenship.

### **The components of active citizenship**

As shown above, active citizenship in Europe encourages a specific kind of engagement and participation. It furthermore denotes the acceptance of a certain set of values and demands a particular set of skills. In order to establish concrete objectives and evaluate whether or not these objectives have been reached, it is necessary to break active citizenship down into measurable components. A number of attempts to capture and categorize the key mechanisms of active citizenship have been made.

At the individual level, it has been argued (Audigier, 2000; Feyfant, 2010) that active citizenship comprises three different skill sets:

- *Cognitive skills*, including legal and political knowledge, procedural skills and human rights knowledge;
- *Ethical skills*, which refer to the values that organize one’s relations with others and to the construction of certain identity;
- *Social skills*, indicating the ability to live and cooperate with others as well as to take part in collective issues.

At the country level, Hoskins and Mareschini (2009, originally found in Hoskins, 2006) classify levels of active citizenship via a composite indicator that differentiates between four measurable dimensions:

- *Representative democracy*, which includes indicators available at the State level such as voter participation, gender parity in national parliament and participation in political parties;
- *Protest and social change*, which denotes “uncoerced collective action [organised] around shared interests, purposes and values” (Hoskins, 2006);
- *Community life*, which refers to “community support mechanisms” and are less “overtly political” in nature;
- *Democratic values*, which include the importance of human rights as well as equality, nondiscrimination, intercultural understanding and tolerance.

At the international level, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2014) proposes the construction of a composite indicator at three complementary levels:

- *Societal level*, which refers to how democratic a country is and how open it is at the macro level;
- *Supplier level*, which concerns the provision and nature of education and training for global citizenship;
- *Receiver level*, which refers to individuals and their 'civic identity, values, skills and knowledge'.

In short, the conceptual framework for assessing active citizenship can be organised around a number of different dimensions depending on the level at which one wishes to analyse the outcomes.

### **Conclusion**

Bee (2017) differentiates between two different conceptualisations of active citizenship. The first is a top-down process through which public institutions *practice* the promotion of "civic and political engagement, in order to shape participatory processes". The second is a bottom-up process through which civil society actors *demand* their rights by engaging and participating in civic and political domains. In a way, the ACT project embarks on both of these pathways at the same time, as it aims not only to improve the provision of active citizenship education by national education systems but also to develop young people's skills so that they can choose to engage in society themselves.

## Bibliography

- Audigier, F. (2000). *Concepts de base et compétences clés pour une éducation à la citoyenneté démocratique*. Strasbourg: Conseil de l'Europe, Conseil de La Coopération Culturelle.
- Barrett, M. D. (2016). *Competences for democratic culture: Living together as equals in culturally diverse democratic societies*. Council of Europe Publishing.
- Bee, C. (2017). Active Citizenship and Its Components. In *Active Citizenship in Europe* (pp. 57-79). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bozec, G. (2016). *Éducation à la citoyenneté à l'école. Politiques, pratiques scolaires et effets sur les élèves*. Paris: CNESCO.
- Bréchon, P. (1995). La France aux urnes: cinquante ans d'histoire électorale. *La documentation française*, vol. 5008.
- Campbell, D. E. (2006). *What is education's impact on civic and social engagement ?* Presented at the Measuring the Effects of Education on Health and Civic Engagement. Proceedings of the Copenhagen Symposium, OECD.
- Council of Europe (2010). *Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education*. Directorate of Education and Languages, Council of Europe.
- De Coster, I. & Sigalas, E. (2017). *Eurydice Brief: Citizenship Education at School in Europe 2017*. Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, European Commission.
- European Commission. (1998). *Education and active citizenship in the European Union* (Office for Official Publications of the European Communities). Luxembourg: European Commission.
- European Commission (2015). *2015 joint report of the council and the commission on the implementation of the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET 2020) new priorities for European cooperation in education and training*. European Commission Brussels.
- European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice ( 2012). *Citizenship Education in Europe*. Eurydice Report. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice (2017). *Citizenship Education at School in Europe 2017*. Eurydice Report. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- European Council. (2000). *Presidency Conclusions. Lisbon European Council, 23-24 March 2000*.

- Feyfant, A. (2010). L'éducation à la citoyenneté. Dossier d'actualité de *La VST*, 57, 1–15.
- Goerres, A. (2007). Why are older people more likely to vote? The impact of ageing on electoral turnout in Europe. *The British Journal of Politics and International Relations*, 9(1), 90-121.
- Hoskins, B. (2006). *Active citizenship for democracy: Report of the second research network meeting*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Hoskins, B. L. & Mascherini, M. (2009). Measuring active citizenship through the development of a composite indicator. *Social Indicators Research*, 90(3), 459-488.
- Isac, M. M., Maslowski, R., Creemers, B. & van der Werf, G. (2014). The contribution of schooling to secondary-school students' citizenship outcomes across countries. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 25(1), 29–63.
- Junn, J. (1998). *Civic Education: What makes students learn*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Kahne, J. E. & Sporte, S. E. (2008). Developing citizens: The impact of civic learning opportunities on students' commitment to civic participation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(3), 738-766.
- Langton, K. P. & Jennings, M. K. (1968). Political socialization and the high school civics curriculum in the United States. *American Political Science Review*, 62(3), 852–867.
- Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). (2010). *Citizenship established? Citizenship in schools 2006/09*.
- Plutzer, E. (2002). Becoming a habitual voter: Inertia, resources, and growth in young adulthood. *American Political Science Review*, 96(1), 41-56.
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J., Fraillon, J., Kerr, D. & Losito, B. (2010). *ICCS 2009 International Report: Civic Knowledge, Attitudes, and Engagement among Lower-Secondary School Students in 38 Countries*. Amsterdam: IEA.
- Sen, A. (2011). *The idea of justice*. Harvard University Press.
- UNESCO (2014). *Global Citizenship Education: Preparing Learners for the Challenge of the 21st Century*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Westheimer, J. & Kahne, J. (1998). *Education for action: Preparing youth for participatory democracy*.

## Part 2. Education for citizenship

### I. History of citizenship education

#### An old concern

Citizenship education (CE) became a common concern among European countries amid changing political currents in Europe during the 1990s. According to Bozec (2016), growing interest in CE meant that it became a major dimension of education policy in 15 of 38 countries and a subject of interest in institutional agendas in 20 of 38 countries (*Idem.*).

This picture is very different from the one established by the first survey made by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) just before the turn of the century which identified the low interest for CE in educational policies (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001). Six contextual and transnational factors can be called on to explain this rising attention to CE (Osler & Starkey, 2006): persisting inequalities and injustices; globalization and population migrations; concern over disengagement and disinterest in civic matters; youth abdication in politics; the rise of racist, violent and antidemocratic movements; and concerns over the consequences of the Cold war and recent democratic transformations (especially in Eastern Europe).

Some researchers, however, go further back in history to find the roots of CE. In the first decades of the twentieth century, the belief that society could be improved by collective and democratic action achieved a wide following among educators in the United States and led to a “social reconstructionist” movement (Westheimer & Kahne, 1998). These reformers focused on teaching students to be “active participants in a democratic civic community, able to envision, articulate, and act on conception for a better world”; and aimed to foster students’ ability to examine social issues and institutions with a critical eye. They lost ground at the start of World War II when expressing nationalist sentiments became more popular than issuing critiques of society. Over the same period (1900-1940), another current of educators promoted experience-based approaches closely linked to social needs. Those theorists “believed that experiential activities could transform student’s political and social orientation toward fighting justice” (Westheimer & Kahne, 1998). They put in place the “core curriculum” which designated specific time to multidisciplinary reflection and actions. There was clearly an ideological current running among the “progressives” bent on reform that downplayed the importance of critical thinking and analysis in favor of emphasizing the importance of getting involved locally. Their vision of a better society led to disagreements with those who preferred a “children-centered school” more focused on each student’s individual fulfilment. The Wright Mills Academic Middle School (United States), also described in detail by Westheimer and Kahne, is one example of a pre-1990 CE programme.

## Variations and common features of CE

From “civic and moral instruction” to “civic education”, from “democratic” to “active” citizenship, CE has evolved with our understanding of the role each citizen can and should play in his or her country. This evolution over time reveals a slight shift in meaning of CE from one which centers around a “political” approach (“civic education”) to one which favors a more “cultural” approach (“citizenship education”) (Feyfant, 2010). The notion of CE has also become increasingly linked to the concept of “global citizenship” – the idea that individuals are not only citizens of the country in which they are born, but also of the world as a whole. This “global” approach to CE emphasizes multiculturalism, tolerance, inclusion and the fight against discrimination. Currently, most countries consider the following elements to be essential content of CE curricula (UNESCO, 2014):

- Development of behaviors informed by individuals’ understanding of the various levels on which they have constructed their identity and the possibility of a collective identity;
- Awareness and knowledge of global social and political issues as well as of universal values;
- Acquisition of cognitive skills such as critical agency and creative thinking;
- Development of non-cognitive skills such as empathy, conflict resolution and communication;
- Promotion of habits which favor the collective good.

The global approach to CE prioritizes shared values and living together.

At a national level, there are considerable variations in CE curricula in the context of varying histories and cultures. In some countries it is difficult to promote national pride and cultural diversity at the same time. The active citizenship takes on different meanings depending on the political history of the country. Bîrzéa (2005) notes that CE is more likely to be mandatory and a separate course in countries for which the road to democracy has been rocky. Audigier (2004) sums it up by saying that a definition of “citizenship” depends entirely on “time and space”.

## Current perspectives for CE

Context has an undeniable impact on how CE is conceptualised and how its objectives are defined. The rise of extremism, the reality of globalization and the spread of new technologies have resulted in an approach to CE that centres on values-based global citizenship. UNESCO (2014) argues that the growing interest for CE “shows that from now on the role and the goal of education are to create fairer, more pacific, more tolerant and more inclusive societies”. Indeed, the definition of CE currently employed at the European level is as follows:

*“Citizenship education is a subject area which aims to promote harmonious co-existence and foster the mutually beneficial development of individuals and the communities in which they live. In democratic societies, citizenship*

*education supports students in becoming active, informed and responsible citizens, who are willing and able to take responsibility for themselves and for their communities at the national, European and international level.”*  
(De Coster & Sigalas, 2017, p. 3)

This definition of CE requires teaching methods that allow students to practice these values, attitudes and behaviours in the classroom. But in so doing, the conflict between old and new CE must somehow be resolved. One way to forge a path forward is to turn to the findings of scientific research as regards proven practices that are associated with the principal aims of education for citizenship as it is currently conceived.

## II. Best practices in citizenship education

To begin with the basics, it is important to note that one's simple presence in a CE class is not causally linked with better citizenship outcomes. The specific learning opportunities (e.g. open classroom climate, horizontal learning) are what make the difference. This is therefore the focus of what follows.

### School level

#### *School climate*

“Much civic and social engagement is the product of social norms encouraging collective action. Schools are an important institution where such norms are inculcated” (Campbell, 2006). Differences in national contexts affect how much students will engage now and in the future, with their communities, the nation and the world. The challenge for national systems of education is to evolve along with and in anticipation of changing social norms.

According to Dewey (1913), schools should function as democratic communities in order to prepare their students for their future role in democratic societies. Evidence suggests that increased schooling is associated with higher levels of civic and social engagement as regards outcomes such as voter turnout, tolerance, and interest in current events (see Bozec, 2016; Campbell, 2006; Kahne & Sporte, 2008). But in European nations individuals are generally required to go to school until they are 16 years old, it is now the quality of schooling that is the most interesting from a policy perspective. In that sense, measures should be taken to promote a participatory democratic climate, especially as regards the involvement of students in school governance and the quality of student-teacher relationships. Indeed, there is a strong positive correlation between the presence of a positive school climate and various measures such as the intention to participate in politics in the future, political trust and interest, tolerant attitudes, support for equality and human rights (Quintelier & Hooghe, 2013) as well as increasing students' engagement with citizenship-related learning experiences (Homana, Barber & Torney-Purta, 2006). What matters the most is students' *perception* that this type of climate exists in their schools, whether

or not the teachers or principals believe the same (Quintelier & Hooghe, 2013, Ehman, 1970). In schools in which students perceive a positive climate, levels of student engagement are higher (Quintelier & Hooghe, 2013). By contrast, the relationship between teachers' and principals' perception of a positive school climate and student engagement is not significant (*Idem*).

Gauthier and Bissonnette (2017) underline the need to promote a whole-school approach to citizenship education that extends well beyond one course in one classroom and out into the hallways, courtyard, canteen, etc. Evidence from various experiments in this area provide support to this so-called whole-school approach. For example, in one medium-sized secondary school, a school-wide "restorative" program was introduced with the aim of reducing the rate of student suspensions and improving social and moral climate. Under this programme, suspensions decreased from 32.9 for every 1000 students to 10.4 for every 1000 students over the course of four years, from 200 to 2004 (Timperley *et al.*, 2008). In another experiment, teachers were given responsibility for resolving student conflict, whether it occurred inside or outside of the classroom. They were asked to assist students in exchanging viewpoints, making decisions cooperatively, and taking responsibility for their own actions. To prepare teachers to take on these responsibilities, a training was organised that concentrated on conflict resolution, self-reflection and constructive dialogue (Deakin Crick *et al.*, 2004). Both of these experiments resulted in a rise in the types of behaviours and attitudes commonly associated with active citizenship.

### *Participative governance practices*

The role of principals and administrators is key to empowering teachers and including them in the decision-making process at school. Involving teachers in this process is positively correlated with a positive school climate and may contribute to the development of active citizenship behaviors in students (ICCS, 2009 based on Bogler & Somech, 2005). In this sense, Deakin Crick *et al.* (2004) argue for the implementation of a "coherent whole-school strategy including community-owned values". Participative governance practices secure teachers' commitment to their teaching activities and "help the school to understand the variety of student learning needs" (ICCS, 2009 based on Ranson, Farrell, Peim, & Smith, 2005). In short, involving teachers in school governance paves the way for more active engagement on their part and a better school climate overall.

The inclusion of students in school governance has also been shown to enhance students' personal development, empowerment and sense of active engagement as well as the development of citizenship skills such as active listening, negotiation and openness to others' perspectives (Deakin Crick *et al.*, 2004). It is not enough to simply invite students to attend school council meeting. Measures must also be taken to ensure that the voices of student representatives are heard during such meetings and that their opinions are actually taken into account (Deakin Crick *et al.*, 2004). Involving students in the establishment of shared values and important ground rules

for student behavior at school is a “meaningful and pedagogically useful vehicle for citizenship education” (*Idem*). As with teachers, students are more likely to be good citizens at their schools and contribute to a positive school climate if they can be involved in the decision making process.

#### *Links between school and the community*

School is also part of a wider community. Establishing links with this wider community at school can motivate students to be more socially, politically and civically involved and show them a path towards active citizenships when they are adults (ICCS, 2009 based on Annette, 2000, 2008; Potter, 2002; Torney-Purta & Barber, 2004). Studies are consistent in saying that volunteering when one is young is an important predictor of volunteering when one is an adult. Young adolescents develop a “habit” of associational involvement which is imprinted during adolescence and manifests itself over a lifetime” (Campbell, 2006). It has also been shown that sustained participation in community service is positively linked with political knowledge and feelings of political efficacy (*Idem*).

### **Classroom level**

#### *Open classroom climate*

Education, as the principal agent for creating active citizens, should first and foremost focus on fostering an “open classroom climate”. This refers to a classroom in which teachers allow students to have a voice, students express their opinions freely, and both students and teachers engage in open, respectful dialogue even when in disagreement. Teachers also need to cede some of their power/control to students in order to allow them to express themselves and to create an atmosphere of safety, trust and inclusive teacher/student relationships (Deakin Crick *et al.*, 2004). In this respect, the international literature on the relationship between teaching strategies and various measures of civic and social engagement and skills (hereafter CSES) demonstrates that an open classroom climate is *the* causal mechanism behind a whole host of desirable outcomes (Algan, Cahuc & Shleifer, 2013; Campbell, 2006; Quintelier & Hooghe, 2013). These outcomes include increased levels of social capital (*i.e.* the ability to engage with individuals outside of one’s family), a greater capacity for critical thinking, higher reported feelings of internal and political efficacy (“empowerment” in a sense), higher intentions to be civically engaged and improved intercultural competencies. An open classroom climate encourages students to question the world around them. It facilitates oral and written expression, and even appears to compensate for a lack of exposure to political and social discourse in the home.

Evidence (Mutz, 2002; Campbell 2006c) supports the fact that in heterogeneous classrooms, political discussions tend to be dampened because either teachers or students prefer to avoid conflict. This kind of discussions is more likely to happen in racially homogenous classes (Campbell, 2006). Thus teacher education initiatives

must focus on preparing teachers to deal with controversy and help encourage students to overcome their avoidance of controversy in a positive manner, conducive to learning.

It is also necessary to reflect on the kind of teacher training required for the development of a classroom climate that is calm, open and favourable to active citizenship. Gauthier and Bissonnette (2017) claim that, in this case, *explicit* teaching can be very useful. They argue that managing the student behaviour is a process comprised of two steps: prevention and punishment. In this section, the focus is on the first stage, which is arguably the most important. Prevention is the phase during which students are informed of the citizenship behaviours they are expected to exhibit and given the tools necessary to adhere to these expectations. Thanks to a link (reciprocal recognition from the student and the teacher, for example when the teacher welcomes the student in the classroom or gives him the opportunity to speak and be heard), the teacher can explicitly provide 3 to 5 values that must be respected along with a range of behaviours related to these values. As students become accustomed, through repetition, to the behaviours they have been asked to exhibit, they become conscious of their own role in the process (*locus of control*). The aim of explicitly providing students with behavioural expectations and their relationship to citizenship is to make students conscious of the fact that they alone are responsible for their behaviours and attitudes. They have the control.

### *Student-led service learning*

If students are to improve their capacity for critical thought, they must have the opportunity to “observe, imitate and practice” critical agency. Participating in the process of learning helps students derive personal meaning from classroom activities and feel responsible for their outcomes. This is especially the case when activities are focused on issues that are relevant to students’ lives. Research has demonstrated the potential impact that citizenship education can have when it provides opportunities for students to practice the values, attitudes, and actions it purports to promote (Kahne & Westheimer, 2003; Youniss & Yates, 1997; Hart, 2005; Campbell, 2006a; 2006b; 2006c; Kahne & Sporte, 2008). More explicitly, it has been shown that “classroom opportunities with an explicitly civic dimension can develop [students’] sense of civic agency, social relatedness, and political and moral understandings” (Kahne & Sporte, 2008). In addition, there are indications that classroom based civic learning opportunities can offset the impact of neighborhood or home contexts that are relatively inattentive to civic and political issues when it comes to the development of commitments to civic participation (Verba *et al.*, 1995; Kahne & Sporte, 2008).

Service learning projects can have a significant effect on the development of active citizenship in students. Whether voluntary or required, participation in service learning projects can foster a sense of civic obligation, which manifests itself in civically-oriented behaviour (Campbell, 2006). Indeed, it brings practical skills as well

as valuable skills (such as citizenship or charity) (Bonnette, 2006) and a greater awareness of societal issues to students (Howard, King & Markus, 1993). Moreover, as a means of applying knowledge in a real-life circumstance, service learning forces students to adapt to changing situations, a skill that they can use for the rest of their lives (Howard, King & Markus, 1993). In an experiment led by Howard, King and Markus (1993) and designed to improve students' knowledge of social issues via service learning, students largely reported that "they performed up to their potential". This assertion, similar to the Gauthier and Bissonnette's "locus of control", may suggest that service learning can help students take a more subjective view of their capabilities and potential. Beyond a better knowledge of one's self, this study also suggested that the impact of service learning on personal and social awareness continues in the long run. In fact, students involved in the experiment showed a greater interest in "finding a career that provides the opportunity to be helpful to others or useful to society" versus those not involved in the programme. They were also more likely to have the "intention to serve others in need" or "intention to give to charity". This demonstrates that students who have been involved in service learning projects in the past have a desire to continue to be involved in the future.

The link between active learning and active citizenship seems to exist in the common values they share – participation, cooperation, justice, equity and diversity (McManus & Taylor, 2009). Service learning is most effective when it is incorporated into classroom instruction, and more specifically when it is accompanied by reflection on the service that has been performed. In this case, the role of the teacher is particularly important and can be decomposed into framing before, during and after the project.

#### *Framing before the project*

Bonnette (2006) proposes that students be given the opportunity to choose the contents and objectives of their service learning project as a means of getting students invested in the project and communicating between themselves. The role of the teacher in this case is to set students up for success so that they are able to identify the project together and work through any problems that arise during disagreements.

#### *Framing during the project*

During the project, researchers first underline that the project should somehow be related to the content of the class and lectures (Markus, Howard & King, 1993). Indeed, service learning is more effective when it includes class instruction, during which the project can be contextualised in view of making a connection between what students may be doing in their classroom and school and what is happening in the wider world (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001). According to Markus, Howard and King (1993), "when community service is combined with classroom instruction, the pedagogical advantages of each compensates for the shortcomings of the other", knowledge and practice are complementary to one another. The role of the teacher is not only to carry out the instructional aspect of the service learning project but also to

have students continuously reflect on what they are learning both from classroom instruction and project implementation, to help them retain and internalise their new knowledge, values and skills (Bonnette, 2006). Reflection can also be a way for teachers to get constructive feedback from students and to assess them on their participation in such projects.

#### *Framing after the project*

To ensure that the benefits of involvement in a service learning project persist in the long term, research suggests that teachers provide highly structured feedback to students. Such feedback should focus on helping students understand what they have learned from the experience and how they hope to apply what they have learned in the future (Bonnette, 2006).

#### *Reflection and innovative assessment methods*

As previously mentioned, one of the justifications for citizenship education that focusses on knowledge, and no other dimension of active citizenship, is how difficult any other form is to assess. Not only are traditional methods of evaluation inadequate for service learning and project-based learning, but they are also potentially detrimental to acquiring the attitudes, skills and behaviours such learning experiences are trying to promote. Education systems have evolved greatly in the past 30 years, but assessment still tends to focus on ranking students as they compare to one another, and students' grades continue to follow a bell curve separating the "good" from the "bad" (CNESCO, 2016). When it comes to CSES, however, the aim is for *all* students to "succeed". In this sense, assessment methods must take on a different role and therefore a different tone. As mentioned above, it has been found (Ten Dam & Volman, 2004) that the most effective service learning initiatives include ongoing opportunities for students to reflect on what they are doing, why they are doing it, and what they have learned as a result. In addition, student self-grading and peer assessment, provided that teachers have properly prepared their students in this regard, can lead to better learning outcomes for students and help develop reflection as a reflex (Sadler & Good, 2006). Indeed, "this kind of activity represents a change in role for the student, a break with the traditional authority structure in the classroom" (*Idem*).

According to Sadler and Good (2006), it is estimated that students need only one school year to be trained to accurately assess themselves and their peers, in fact arriving at assessments that closely resemble those of their teachers. To avoid the "culture shock" at the beginning of the process, students should be asked to write comments on each other's performance but should not be asked to assign grades to one another. In the beginning, as students become accustomed to this type of assessment, the number of categories on which they are asked to assess themselves and others should remain relatively limited (Sadler & Good, 2006). To allow students to be forthright, the names of the peer graders could also be anonymized. It is also important for the teacher to be aware that "friendship or simply

camaraderie with classmates can cloud the accuracy of peer-grades (Sadler & Good, 2006). Overall, large gains in learning outcomes are observed for students who grade themselves, especially those with weak or average academic performance. No significant gains have been observed as the result of participation in peer-assessment (Sadler & Good, 2006), though this does not rule out the possibility that there are gains in other areas that are less easily measured.

### *Cooperative learning*

Peer support appears to be an effective learning method with multicultural or heterogeneous classes. Putting students with differing abilities into small groups together has been shown to improve the learning outcomes of all students (Allison & Rehm, 2007). Nevertheless, specific attention should be given to students with average academic performance, as they tend to be left out of the peer learning process since they are neither the “de facto” teachers nor the direct beneficiaries. Moreover, the structure of the group should be clear and explicit so that each person understands expectations and the role he or she is being asked to play (Buchs, 2017).

Cooperative learning in small groups has been widely tested and has been shown to provide cognitive, social and psychological benefits as regards memory, motivation for learning, critical thinking, exchange with peers and creativity. It also leads to improved learning outcomes for all students, including those with average academic performance. Working in groups make students share the decision-making process and actively take part in their learning experiences. A global cooperative environment can also enhance cooperation between teachers, trust between students and teachers, and the establishment of common goals (Allison & Rehm, 2007).

Galand (2017) argues that the only type of activity that has been shown to have a significantly positive impact on students’ citizenship is collaborative learning. Research also shows that cooperative learning is beneficial students’ levels of motivation and integration (especially when groups are composed of students from different ethnic, social or cultural origins) as well as effective with regards to improving outcomes related to tolerance, appreciating diversity and respecting differences. Buchs (2017) finds that collaborative learning leads to exchanges between students which can enhance feelings of belonging among those involved and can positively stimulate divergence in opinions between students as a means of learning from one another rather than dividing each other. Nevertheless, Buchs (2017) along with Galand (2017) also underline the fact that collaborative work in the classroom is quite rare; teachers and students are not always convinced of its effectiveness or efficiency. Indeed, a number of conditions must be met for collaborative work to be effective, hence the importance of teacher training in this respect.

Two steps should be taken to set up cooperative learning in the classroom (Buchs *et al.*, 2008, 2012):

- *Students must first be taught how to cooperate:* Teachers and students should work together to build a good environment for cooperative learning. It is very important to raise students' awareness of cooperation and how to do it. Activities should be formulated that have a focus on communication, tolerance, and mutual assistance. Students can then transfer these behavioral templates to other learning experiences. Once students have a clear and objective picture of what cooperation is and how it works, they should be able to work together in an efficient way.
- *Activities must be organized in such a way that they necessitate cooperation for learning:* 5 criteria have to be respected to properly structure a small working group (Buchs, 2008, 2017):
  1. The activity should require a positive interdependence and collective effort, which could not be obtained individually;
  2. Working groups should be small, ideally from 2 to 5 people in order to foster individualized and simultaneous interactions;
  3. The teacher should encourage group effort and foster mutual aid between students;
  4. Each student should hold herself/himself individually responsible and the each person's contribution should somehow be recognized and highlighted;
  5. Teachers should also work in groups and share a common goal, interdependence being a key success factor of collaborative learning.

Finally, cooperative learning fosters informal learning (Scheerens, 2009), which is an important component of the development of active citizenship in students. Informal learning within schools is what is learned, apart from explicit teaching, in the daily experiences of students. In that sense, "the values and norms of school life provide an exercise ground for important dimensions of civic behavior that exist in the society at large" (Scheerens, 2009).

### *Culturally responsive teaching and differentiation*

Research on culturally responsive teaching shows that all culture and language issues should be addressed in civic education in order to be inclusive to every student. Students coming from minorities are more active in their learning activities "when the content and pedagogy of instruction reflect their histories and cultures" (Banks, 2015 based on Lee, 2007). According to Banks (2015), by publicly recognizing as many cultural specificities as possible, culturally responsive teaching promotes inclusion and provides students with skills to become "successful citizens and change agents" through "transformative citizenship" that stems from the public recognition of the wide range of cultural specificities that exist in the world.

Teachers can also practice culturally responsive teaching with regards to students with disabilities who may be in need of specific support. In a review of the literature, the European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (2016) provides an overview of the teaching strategies that have been proven to be the most effective in this respect: peer mentoring, direct instruction and meta-cognitive strategies. In a separate study, Dyssegaard and Larsen (2013) demonstrate that the presence of two teachers or teaching assistants in a single classroom can have a positive effect on all learners, including those with special needs, by the simple fact that more individualized attention may then be given.

Going hand-in-hand with culturally responsive teaching is differentiated teaching strategies aimed at meeting the needs of a diverse student body, such as through instruction that provides both theoretical knowledge (background of the subject, evolution of the subject) and practical applications of this knowledge (Dixon *et al.*, 2014). The use of different learning materials and modes of instruction, such as visual aids, peer tutoring, multimedia resources, and cooperative learning, can enhance learning because they mobilize different senses and skills (Allison & Rehm, 2007). This also captures the attention of students who need to be stimulated while learning (Allisson & Rehm, 2007). Jorgensen and Lambert (2012) state that “it requires creativity, perseverance and empathy to succeed in grasping the students’ will to learn and in transforming it to a sustainable practice”. Teaching strategies that recognize students as individuals with varied experiences, backgrounds and learning preferences can “promote access, participation, learning and achievement for all” (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2016). But putting such practices in place may be a challenge for teachers. Teacher training in such strategies are therefore essential so that teachers are prepared to employ these strategies in their classrooms.

### *Horizontal teaching*

According to one cross-country study performed by Algan, Cahuc and Shleifer (2013), vertical teaching practices are positively correlated with students’ level of social capital but have no effect on students’ cognitive skills. By contrast, horizontal teaching practices, which are based on cooperation and trust among students but also towards the teacher, are positively linked to higher levels of trust in institutions, engagement in extracurricular activities and even self-esteem and positive attitudes. Horizontal teaching practices create an open classroom climate and give students the feeling of belonging “to the same community”. Working in groups and developing a confidence in cooperation with other students or teachers or being engaged in an association are positively correlated and statistically significant. On the contrary, “vertical teaching is strongly negatively correlated with trust [in institutions and individuals] and association membership” (sports, volunteering, scouts, etc.)

PISA 2015 results show that students achieve better academic results in science when teachers “explain scientific ideas”, “adapt the lesson to (...) [the] needs and

knowledge [of students]” and “discuss questions”. Knowing that success of students in one subject has a positive effect on overall academic results, it is argued that these sorts of teaching strategies should be prioritized in all courses (PISA, 2015).

Providing feedback is also an effective teaching strategy to make students’ learning visible, it focuses their attention [on] “the learning task, task processing strategies (...) instead of attention [on] the self” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). To be effective, feedback should be made in both directions: from teachers to students and as well as from students to teachers, and specific attention should be paid to the way the feedback is received rather than how it is given (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

## Cohort level

### *Gender*

On the one hand, girls exhibit higher levels of civic knowledge and tend to be more supportive of equality than boys. On the other hand, there is little to no difference along gender lines as concerns political interest (Schulz *et al.*, 2010). In any case, the evidence seems to suggest that differentiated instruction along gender lines might be useful in helping boys and girls catch up to one another in various areas, particularly in the case of girls from minority backgrounds who appear to be at a marked disadvantage from other students (Campbell, 2004).

It is commonly known that self-esteem tends to decrease for girls when they enter adolescence. On top of that, teachers tend to treat boys and girls differently, in ways that often reinforce gender stereotypes. Campbell (2004) finds evidence for a number of ways in which gender stereotypes are reinforced at school. He finds, for example, that girls tend to be given less space to make an intellectual effort, particularly in the sciences, which reinforces the idea that girls are not as capable in these areas and feeds into negative self-esteem. He also finds that some teachers practice what researchers have called “silenced voices” which help them to “preserve an ideology of equal opportunity while in fact the schooling practices reinforced inequalities”. In addition, he shows that teachers tend to feel discomfort tackling sexual issues with their students, which also reinforces gender inequalities. But Campbell also provides a number of strategies that have been shown to narrow the gender gap that teachers can easily implement in their classrooms. For example, teachers can encourage academic success in girls rather than complimenting them on neatness and compliance. It is also suggested that teachers try implementing role-playing and role reversals, including examples of both genders, in order to study the power of gender in an inclusive, collaborative manner.

### *Social and economic background*

Courses on civics and government generally only have a marginally positive effect on CSES (Janmaat, 2008). However the effect appears to differ depending on the context (Campbell, 2006). The impact of citizenship education can be greater on more disadvantaged students and on students coming from minority backgrounds

(Feldam *et al.*, 2007; McDevitt & Chaffe, 2000 via Bozec, 2016). In the absence of information at home, for example in disadvantaged families where knowledge of and interest in politics are low, there is evidence that citizenship education has a greater impact, especially on political knowledge, interest in politics and the value given to political commitment (Langton & Jennings, 1968 via Bozec, 2016). Information redundancy, via family, friends and the media, could explain the ineffectiveness of citizenship education on influencing students' civic attitudes. Being knowledgeable about political institutions and processes is not necessarily linked to the intention to actively engage in the future (Schulz *et al.*, 2010 in Bozec, 2016). Nevertheless, a strong sense of internal political efficacy, which can be partially proxied by civic knowledge, is associated with future political engagement (Campbell, 2006).

International studies focusing on 14 year old students show that gaps between social groups in terms of civic education indicators (knowledge, civic commitment, support to democratic values, etc.) are higher in highly segregated school systems *i.e.* when classes are formed around the academic level of students. This might be because of the influence one's peers can have in the classroom or because of the differentiated curricula implemented as a result of the academic path or level of one's class (Bozec, 2016).

## Conclusion

When teachers listen to students, when the classroom acts as a forum through which students may express their opinions, and when there are opportunities for democratic decision making in the classroom, then not only does school foster students' trust in institutions and individuals, but it also prepares them for CSES in their lives. In short, schools are creators of civic norms (Campbell, 2006). Teacher training should therefore be focused on developing strategies for co-constructed learning in the classroom and on laying the groundwork for service learning by engaging with students on issues they see in their own schools or communities. Responsive teaching to culture or disabilities going hand-in-hand with differentiation is also key to adopt learner-centered teaching practices. Specific needs of every student will then be addressed and each of them will take the most of her/his learning experience (Banks, 2015; European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2016). Measuring teacher effectiveness *vis-à-vis* student outcomes inherently leads to a discussion on assessment methods and indicators for student "achievement". Teachers should therefore be trained on ways to use reflection as a means of assessing student progress, via personal portfolios, for example. These portfolios may also include students' self-assessments and could be the basis for peer review among students (Sadler & Good, 2006).

### III. Citizenship education in ACT countries

#### England

##### *Historical background*

In 1997, Professor Sir Bernard Crick was asked to chair an Advisory Group on Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools by the then Secretary of State for Education, David Blunkett MP. The Group's report, sometimes known as the 'Crick report' recommended that Citizenship become a statutory National Curriculum subject. The report was accepted in full and the recommendation became reality in 2002.

In 2012-13, the entire statutory national curriculum underwent review and revision. Citizenship was retained as part of the national curriculum but was revised from its original version. Since September 2014, the citizenship programmes of study focus on core knowledge related to citizenship – how our society is governed – rather than on issues related to citizenship which dominated the previous programmes of study. This approach is consistent with the approach taken to other subjects in the national curriculum.

While elements related to citizenship education are embedded in the general objectives and values of the education system in England, there are no requirements for subject-based citizenship teaching nor is it necessary to take a cross-curricular approach. It is, however, expected that schools will choose to go beyond the core knowledge set out in the national programme of study and use their institutional autonomy to teach topical issues.

##### *Stated aims*

The purpose of the citizenship programme of study for Key Stage 3 (lower secondary school) is to prepare students to “play a full and active part” in society (Department for Education, 2013). To that end, it aims to provide students with knowledge of the institutions governing the society in which they live; to equip them with the skills and awareness they need to think critically; and to prepare students to take their place in society as responsible citizens.

The aim of the national curriculum is thus to ensure that all students:

- acquire sound knowledge of the systems, institutions and processes that govern the United Kingdom and the ways in which they may participate;
- develop a keen understanding of the way in which laws are made and upheld and the actors involved;
- become interested in participating actively in their communities;
- are equipped with the ability to think critically;
- are able to manage their own finances and plan for the future.

In sum, the aim of the national programme of study is to promote active citizenship among its young people.

(Department for Education, 2013)

### *Curriculum*

During Key Stage 3, the subject content of the citizenship programme of study is designed to “develop students’ understanding of democracy, government and the rights and responsibilities of citizens”. More specifically, students should be taught about:

- The processes, institutions and actors (citizens, elected officials, monarch, *etc.*) responsible for governing the United Kingdom;
- The election and operation of Parliament;
- The rights of citizens of the United Kingdom;
- The nature of rules and laws, how they are made and upheld;
- The roles played by public institutions, voluntary groups, and individual persons in society;
- The functions, uses, and management of money.

(Department for Education, 2013)

### *Prevailing learning format*

Teachers use horizontal teaching practices meaning that “students work in groups, do projects together, ask teachers questions” (Algan, Cahuc & Shleifer, 2013). In that case, “the central relationship is among students” (Algan, Cahuc & Shleifer, 2013). More than 50 % of teachers declared frequently using work in small groups with their students; which is one active teaching practice (along with the use of ICT and conduct of project for more than a week). Globally, the use of active teaching is above the OECD average (OECD, 2013).

## **France**

### *Historical background*

Citizenship education was first introduced to the lower secondary school curriculum in France in 1945, and for forty years it was integrated into the programmes of study of other subjects, especially History-Geography. In 1985, it finally became a separate subject under the name of *éducation civique* (civic education). Since then, *éducation civique* has undergone a number of major and minor revisions and modifications, culminating in an overhaul of the programme of study during school restructuring efforts in 2015. The programme of study is now known as *enseignement moral et civique* (moral and civic education) and is complemented by a transversal approach to the subject. In particular, it figures into the *enseignements pratiques interdisciplinaires* (interdisciplinary practical lessons) that were also developed during

the reform process and for which “information, communication and citizenship” is one of the main themes.

Besides a curricular approach, there is also a practical approach to citizenship education in France which is achieved through the participation of students in the life of their school. Students in lower secondary school may practice their rights and responsibilities as a class representative or by taking part in student council. Students are elected to these roles by their peers. They may then represent their class in other school bodies, such as the administrative council, the disciplinary council, the school hygiene and safety council or the permanent commission.

Finally, the French (Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, 2017) school system has also made it possible for students to take part in *parcours citoyen* (citizen itineraries) throughout their schooling. It also puts on an annual *Journée de citoyenneté* (Citizenship Day) at which all young people under the age of 18 are required to participate.

### Stated aims

*Enseignement moral et civique*, taught from primary school through high school, aims to prepare students to take on their future role as citizens. It allows each student to acquire “a moral conscience allowing him or her to understand, respect and share humanist values of solidarity, respect and responsibility” (Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, 2017).

Through these lessons, each student develops critical thinking and media literacy, with a particular emphasis on fighting against conspiracy theories. Learning about secularism, a pillar of the French Republic, is also important. As such, students receive a secular education in religion. The overall goal of citizenship education is to create well-informed individuals as concerns the functioning and values of France and to promote the desire to be committed, engaged and responsible citizens.

### Curriculum

In lower secondary school, the hours dedicated to *enseignement moral et civique* are combined with the hours dedicated to History-Geography (Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, 2015b). The themes that should be approached with students at this level are:

- **Sensitivity to oneself and others** – identify and regulate emotions and feelings; feel good about oneself and be capable of listening and showing empathy; and develop a sense of belonging.
- **Rights and rules for living with others** – understand the reasons for obeying rules and laws in a democratic society; understand the principals and values of the French Republic and of democratic societies in general.

- **Judging for oneself and with others** – develop the ability to think critically by questioning the validity of moral judgments and confronting differing opinions in well-reasoned debates or discussions; differentiate self-interest from general interest.
- **Individual and collective engagement** – Engage in and assume responsibilities at school; take charge of aspects of collective life and the environment and develop a civic, social and ecological conscience.

(Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, 2015a)

### *Prevailing learning format*

Teaching practices are tilted toward vertical. Teachers spend more time lecturing and asking fact-based questions to students (Algan, Cahuc & Shleifer, 2013). Students take notes from the board meaning that the central relationship is between teacher and students. Active teaching practices are not frequently used by teachers. The use of ICT or projects lasting more than one week are frequently used by a bit more than 20 % of teachers, whereas almost 40 % of them declared organizing work in small groups frequently in their classes, less than the OECD average though (OECD, 2013).

## **Greece**

### *Historical background*

According to the Greek Constitution (art. 16, § 2), “Education constitutes a basic mission for the State and shall aim at the moral, intellectual, professional and physical training of Greeks, the development of national and religious consciousness and at their formation as free and responsible citizens”.

Since 1931, citizenship education has been taught continuously in Greek lower secondary schools except for a seven-year period during the dictatorship (1967-74). While it initially took a moral approach to the subject, it has since evolved into a programme of study focused on democratic institutions and values, as well as human rights. Citizenship education is also accompanied by interdisciplinary and cross-curricular approaches as well as thematically relevant school-based activities.

A big leap forward came in the form of the Cross-curricular Thematic Framework which aimed to change teaching methods and objectives by balancing learning content *between* grade levels and by linking subjects *across* grade levels. In this way, teachers can cover a greater variety of topics, employ inquiry-based learning, take a holistic approach and create a learning environment that is respectful to students and their work. (ΕΦΗΜΕΡΙΣ ΤΗΣ ΚΥΒΕΡΝΗΣΕΩΣ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗΣ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑΣ, Αρ. 932 Β, 2003)(Government Gazette 303B/13-03-2003)

In alignment with the strategic goals of the European Union, Greece enacted the “New School – 21<sup>st</sup> Century School” programme (2010-14) which gave particular

importance to the concept of social cohesion and active participation in public life. As a consequence, citizenship education curricula underwent a complete redesign, including a pilot phase and a review process. The new curricula have been implemented nationwide since 2011, under the name Social and Citizenship Education. They adhere to a competence-based teaching rationale (*i.e.* communication, ICT, social, cultural and other competences) while at the same time focusing on basic “literacies” (*i.e.* social, political and other literacies) in order to provide students with the indispensable skills and knowledge to be educated citizens.

### *Stated aims*

Through the programme of study for Social and Citizenship education, Students are expected to learn to be active citizens and to participate in social and political life. More specifically, they are expected to learn how to be conversant on a number of different issues relating to their rights and responsibilities; to accept diversity and learn to “live together”; and to support sustainable development in tangible ways. Autonomous and collective action is encouraged based on a set of shared values which include solidarity, respect and appreciating diversity.

As a result of a differentiated pedagogical approach, concepts of citizenship education such as diversity, equality and human rights are incorporated into the programmes of study for all subjects at all levels. The aim of this approach is to strengthen students’ ability to acknowledge and respect different cultures in society.

Students in lower secondary school are also provided with the opportunity to discuss, examine and be involved in activities concerning citizenship education, human rights, sustainable development and cultural heritage. These opportunities are aimed at teaching students how to “communicate” with their social environment.

### *Curriculum*

As mentioned above, Social and Citizenship Education takes an interdisciplinary approach in order to cover a variety of topics, facilitate in-depth understanding of key concepts and promote a unified framework of relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and values. In this framework, the pedagogical approaches that are implemented include active student participation in the learning process, exploratory forms of learning, connecting school learning with everyday life experience, differentiated instruction and the use of ICTs in the classroom.

In a general sense, students in lower secondary school are expected to:

- become aware of the interaction between the individual and society and develop a spirit of collaboration and responsibility;
- recognise different social groups and ask themselves questions concerning the organisation and evolution of the various groups in society;

- evaluate the usefulness of institutions and civil society organisations to understand the interaction between them and the changes they have undergone and ask themselves questions about their purpose;
- become aware of the value of citizenship and politics;
- identify and evaluate the various types of political systems and become aware of the importance of the Constitution;
- appraise the functioning of political institutions and participate in the social process;
- understand the functions of the state as they relate to citizens' rights and responsibilities;
- understand the organisation, function and development of the European Union;
- participate actively as European citizens in European affairs aware of the fact that they are citizens of *both* Greece and the European Union;
- adopt a positive attitude towards solidarity and collaboration between people and States;
- realise the importance of interaction between different countries and peoples as well as of the need for a well organised international community;
- appreciate the need for international peace and security as well as the need to respect and protect human rights.

More specifically, through the curriculum for Social and Civic Education, students are expected to attain an adequate level of social and political literacy as well as to:

- enhance their knowledge of the regulatory functioning of the social and political system;
- be familiar with the organisation and functioning of the democratic state;
- understand and take a critical stance on social, economic and political institutions as well as the processes of transformation they undergo;
- interpret social problems and seek and support their solutions;
- cultivate values in harmony with the values such as respect for the rule of law, human dignity, freedom and equality, social justice, diversity and social solidarity;
- gain knowledge and skills as well as adopt attitudes and behaviours related to the right and obligations of an active citizen of Greek, European and International communities.

#### *Prevailing learning format*

Teaching practices are directed toward the vertical. Teachers lecture while students are taking notes like in most Mediterranean countries (Algan, Cahuc & Shleifer, 2013). In the same way as in France, the central relationship is between students and the teacher (Algan, Cahuc & Shleifer, 2013).

## Spain

### *Historical background*

In 2006, during its last major school reform, Spain explicitly called on compulsory schooling to contribute to the training of “citizens” and incorporated education for citizenship into the compulsory schooling curriculum for the first time. The *Ley Orgánica 2006 de Educación* (2006 General Law of Education) underlined the importance of education for citizenship and human rights by including citizenship and constitutional education as a mandatory component of the national curricula in lower secondary school (*Ley Orgánica de Educación* Cap. III, Art. 24, § 6, 2006). Based on the Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on key competences for lifelong learning (De Coster et al., 2012), this Law included social and civic competences among the key competences each citizen should have for building the European knowledge society. In addition, the Law stipulated that students in the final year of lower secondary school should take a similar separate subject entitled Ethical and Civic Education.

In 2013, this Law was modified to allow Autonomous Communities to choose how to incorporate these competences into the school curricula. Some Autonomous Communities have kept Citizenship Education while others have replaced it with Ethical Values. In either case, it is mandatory throughout Spain to implement a separate compulsory subject of this kind in lower secondary schools. (*Ley Orgánica para la mejora de la calidad educativa*, XV, Quince, 2013)

### *Stated aims*

Article 1 of the Educational principals of the General Law on the Improvement of the Quality of Education (2013) states that the Spanish school system shall guarantee “the transmission and application of the values that favour personal freedom, responsibility, democratic citizenship, solidarity, tolerance, equality, respect and justice, and that help to overcome all types of discrimination” (Préambulo, XIV, 2013).

The 2013 Law also aims to ensure that students are “[prepared] to exercise citizenship and [participate actively] in economic, social and cultural life, with a critical and responsible stance and with the capacity to adapt to changing situations in the knowledge economy” (Préambulo, XIV, 2013).

### *Curriculum*

Citizenship education for students in lower secondary education is aimed at developing students’ capacity to responsibly take on their duties; to know and exercise their rights with respect to others; to practice tolerance, cooperation and solidarity between people and groups; to engage themselves in dialogue to strengthen human rights as a common value of a pluralistic society and to prepare themselves for the practice of democratic citizenship. (Art. 23, a, 2006)

In Spain, the curriculum for citizenship education includes each of the following dimensions:

- Main economic, political and social issues concerning the European Union;
- Functioning of institutions and perspectives on the European Union;
- International history, culture and literature;
- Main economic, political and social issues internationally;
- International relations, functioning of international organisations, etc.

Other themes addressed during citizenship education include gender equality, road safety and the welfare system. (De Coster et al., 2012)

The Spanish curriculum promotes student participation in school life and includes assessment criteria referring to the degree of student participation in class and school activities. Students in lower secondary school may participate in *Juntas de delegados* (Councils of Representatives) composed of representatives elected by the various classes. From the third year of lower secondary school on, these representatives even participate in the selection of the school head, be informed and consulted on the student admissions process, cooperate with state bodies in the school system, and take part in school evaluation. (De Coster et al., 2012)

#### *Prevailing learning format*

In Spain, two kinds of teaching practices are mainly used. On the one hand, cognitive activation which consists of the use of teaching practices to stimulate students and make them use higher-order skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving and decision making (OECD, 2016). In that case, Teachers enable communication with peers and teachers on their thinking process and results (OECD, 2016). This could be considered as horizontal teaching practices. On the other hand, teacher-directed practices, vertically oriented, are widely used, relying on teacher's ability to deliver the lesson by providing summary of previous lessons, asking short and fact-based questions to students (OECD, 2016). Globally the use of active teaching practices (working in small groups, using ICT or working on projects longer than one week) is not frequently used by teachers in Spain (less than 40 % of teachers declared using these practices frequently) (OECD, 2013).

## Bibliography

- Algan, Y., Cahuc, P. & Shleifer, A. (2013). Teaching practices and social capital. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 5(3), 189-210.
- Allison, B. & Rehm, M. (2007). Effective Teaching Strategies for Middle School Learners in Multicultural, Multilingual Classrooms. *Middle School Journal*, (39), 2, 12-18.
- Audigier, F. (2004). La formation du citoyen aux prises avec les échelles de temps et d'espace. In *Communication au 15ième Simposio internacional de didáctica de la ciencias sociales. Formación de la ciudadanía: las TICs y los nuevos problemas* (pp. 359–37).
- Banks, J. (2015). Failed Citizenship, Civic Engagement and Education. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 51, 151-154.
- Bîrzéa, C., Kerr, D., Mikkelsen, R., Froumin, I., Losito, B., Pol, M. & Sardoc, M. (2005). *Étude paneuropéenne des politiques d'éducation à la citoyenneté démocratique*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Bonnette, R. (2006). *Out of the Classroom and Into the Community: Service Learning Reinforces Classroom Instruction*. University of Nebraska.
- Bozec, G. (2016). *Education à la citoyenneté à l'école. Politiques, pratiques scolaires et effets sur les élèves*. Paris: CNESCO.
- Buchs, C., Darnon, C., Quiamzade, A., Mugny, G. & Butera, F. (2008). Conflits et apprentissage. Régulation des conflits sociocognitifs et apprentissage. *Revue française de pédagogie. Recherches en éducation*, (163), 105–125.
- Buchs, C., Gilles, I. & Butera, F. (2011). *Chapitre 14. Optimiser les interactions sociales lors d'un travail de groupe grâce à l'apprentissage coopératif*. Presses Universitaires de France.
- Buchs, C. (2017). *Comment organiser l'apprentissage des élèves par petits groupes ?* Presentation made during the consensus conference on pedagogical differentiation. Paris: CNESCO.
- Campbell, D., Delgado-Campbell, D. & Williams-White, L. (2004). How Society and Schools Shortchange Girls and Boys. In: *Choosing Democracy. A practical Guide to Multicultural Education*. Columbus, Ohio: Pearson.
- Campbell, D. (2006). What is education's impact on civic and social engagement? In *OECD Measuring the effects of education on health and civic engagement. proceedings of the Copenhagen symposium*.
- Deakin Crick, R., Coates, M., Taylor, M. & Ritchie, S. (2004). A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling. In *Research*

*Evidence in Education Library*. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education.

De Coster, I., Borodankova, O., De Almedia Coutinho, A. & Paolini, G. (2012). *Citizenship Education in Europe*. Eurydice. Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, European Commission.

Department for Education (2013). *National Curriculum in England: citizenship programmes of study for key stages 3 and 4*. Consulted 25 July 2017: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-citizenship-programmes-of-study/national-curriculum-in-england-citizenship-programmes-of-study-for-key-stages-3-and-4>

Dixon, F. A., Yssel, N., McConnell, J. M. & Hardin, T. (2014). Differentiated instruction, professional development, and teacher efficacy. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 37(2), 111-127.

European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (2016). *Raising the Achievement of All Learners in Inclusive Education – Literature Review*. Odense, Denmark.

ΕΦΗΜΕΡΙΣ ΤΗΣ ΚΥΒΕΡΝΗΣΕΩΣ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗΣ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑΣ, Αρ. 932 Β. (2003, March 13). Consulté le July 25, 2017, sur ΔΔΕ ΦΛΩΡΙΝΑΣ: [http://didefth.gr/lows/fek\\_2003\\_303b.pdf](http://didefth.gr/lows/fek_2003_303b.pdf)

ΕΦΗΜΕΡΙΣ ΤΗΣ ΚΥΒΕΡΝΗΣΕΩΣ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗΣ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑΣ, Αρ. 932 Β. (2017, April 14). Consulté le July 25, 2017, sur ΔΔΕ ΦΛΩΡΙΝΑΣ: [http://didefth.gr/lows/fek\\_2014\\_932b.pdf](http://didefth.gr/lows/fek_2014_932b.pdf)

ΕΦΗΜΕΡΙΣ ΤΗΣ ΚΥΒΕΡΝΗΣΕΩΣ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗΣ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑΣ, Αρ. 934. (2014, 04 14). Consulté le July 25, 2017, sur ΔΔΕ ΦΛΩΡΙΝΑΣ: [http://didefth.gr/lows/fek\\_2014\\_934b.pdf](http://didefth.gr/lows/fek_2014_934b.pdf)

Feyfant, A. (2010). L'éducation à la citoyenneté. *Dossier d'actualité de La VST*, 57, 1–15.

Geboers, E., Geijsel, F., Admiraal, W. & ten Dam, G. (2013). Review of the effects of citizenship education. *Educational Research Review*, 9, 158-173.

Greek Const. art. 16, § 2. (s.d.). *The Constitution of Greece*. Consulted 25 July 2017: <http://www.hri.org/docs/syntagma/artcl25.html>

Hattie, J. and Timperley, H. (2007). The Power of Feedback. *Review of Educational Research* (77), 81.

Homana, G., Barber, C., & Torney-Purta, J. (2006). *Background on the school citizenship education climate assessment*. National Center for Learning and Citizenship.

- IEA (2009). *ICCS 2009 Encyclopedia. Approaches to civic citizenship education around the world*. Amsterdam: IEA.
- Janmaat, J. (2008). The civic attitudes of ethnic minority youth and the impact of citizenship education. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 34(1), 27-54.
- Howard, J. P. F., King, D. C. & Markus, G. B. (1993). Integrating Community Service and Classroom Instruction Enhances Learning: Results From an Experiment. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. Vol. 15, No. 4, pp. 410-419.
- Kahne, J. E. & Sporte, S. E. (2008). Developing citizens: The impact of civic learning opportunities on students' commitment to civic participation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(3), 738-766.
- Lehmann, R., Oswald, H., Schulz, W. & Torney-Purta, J. (2001). *Citizenship and Education in Twenty-eight countries*. Amsterdam: IEA.
- Ley Orgánica de Educación. (2006). Consulted 25 July 2017: <https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2006-7899>
- Ley Orgánica de Educación, Cap. III, Art. 24, § 6. (2006). Consulted 25 July 2017: <https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2006-7899>
- Ley Orgánica para la mejora de la calidad educativa. (2013). Consulted 25 July 2017: <https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2013-12886#dfquinta>
- Ley Orgánica para la mejora de la calidad educativa, XV, Quince. (2013). Consulted 25 July 2017: <https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2013-12886#dfquinta>
- McManus, M. & Taylor, G. (Eds.) (2009). *Active Learning and Active Citizenship: Theoretical Contexts*. C-SAP, University of Birmingham.
- Ministère de l'Éducation nationale. (2015a). *Programme d'enseignement moral et civique*. Consulted 25 July 2017: [http://www.education.gouv.fr/pid25535/bulletin\\_officiel.html?cid\\_bo=90158](http://www.education.gouv.fr/pid25535/bulletin_officiel.html?cid_bo=90158).
- Ministère de l'Éducation nationale. (2015b). *Bulletin officiel spécial n°6*. Consulted 25 July 2017: [http://www.education.gouv.fr/pid285/bulletin\\_officiel.html?pid\\_bo=32675](http://www.education.gouv.fr/pid285/bulletin_officiel.html?pid_bo=32675).
- Ministère de l'Éducation nationale. (2016). *L'enseignement moral et civique : principes et objectifs*. Consulted 25 July 2017: <http://eduscol.education.fr/cid92403/l-emc-principes-et-objectifs.html#lien0>
- Ministère de l'Éducation nationale. (2017). *Le socle commun de connaissances, de compétences et de culture*. Consulted 25 July 2017: <http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid2770/le-socle-commun-de-connaissances-et-de-competences.html>

- Mutz, D. C. (2002). The consequences of cross-cutting networks for political participation. *American Journal of Political Science*, 46, 838–855.
- OECD (2013). *TALIS 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (2016). *Insights from the TALIS-PISA link data: teaching strategies for instructional quality*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (2016), *PISA 2015 Results (Volume II): Policies and Practices for Successful Schools*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Osler, A. & Starkey, H. (2006). Education for democratic citizenship: a review of research, policy and practice 1995–2005 1. *Research Papers in Education*, 21(4), 433–466.
- Quintelier, E. & Hooghe, M. (2013). The relationship between political participation intentions of adolescents and a participatory democratic climate at school in 35 countries. *Oxford Review of Education*, 39(5), 567-589.
- Sadler, P. M. & Good, E. (2006). The impact of self-and peer-grading on student learning. *Educational assessment*, 11(1), 1-31.
- Scheerens, J. (2011). Indicators on informal learning for active citizenship at school. *Educational assessment, evaluation and accountability*, 23(3), 201–222.
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J., Fraillon, J., Kerr, D. & Losito, B. (2010). *ICCS 2009 International Report: Civic Knowledge, Attitudes, and Engagement among Lower-Secondary School Students in 38 Countries*. Amsterdam: IEA.
- Ten Dam, G., & Volman, M. (2004). Critical thinking as a citizenship competence: teaching strategies. *Learning and instruction*, 14(4), 359-379.
- Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H., & Schulz, W. (2001). *Citizenship and education in twenty-eight countries: Civic knowledge and engagement at age fourteen*.
- UNESCO (2014). *Global Citizenship Education – Preparing learners for the challenges of the 21st century*.
- Westheimer, J. & Kahne, J. (1998). *Education for action: Preparing youth for participatory democracy*.
- Youniss, J. & Yates, J. (1997). *Community Service and Social Responsibility in Youth*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

## Part 3. Teacher training

### I. Best practices in teacher training

Teacher professional development is key to improving skills levels in students, but not just any teacher training will suffice. The conditions of teacher training determine what the extent to which it might have a positive impact on teachers, their practices and, eventually, their students. To be effective, teacher training must be adapted to circumstances and expectations. Moreover, it must demand teachers' active participation and provide a certain level of continuity to support the implementation of new practices in teachers' classrooms.

#### Duration

When it comes to duration, a short, one-time course is unlikely to get results. After reviewing over 1 300 studies on teacher professional development, Yoon *et al.* (2007) determined that just nine of these studies (all occurring at the elementary level, an important caveat) could be considered robust enough to offer conclusions as regards the conditions leading to successful outcomes in teachers and their students. As regards the duration of professional development, Yoon *et al.* found that only studies involving 14 hours of professional development or more showed any measurably positive impact on student achievement. The remaining 3 studies, which involved between 5 and 14 contact hours, showed no statistically significant effect on students. Timperley *et al.* (2007) arrive at a similar conclusion and argue that teacher training must be a continuous "process" that should occur over a period of anywhere between six months and five years in order to have a positive impact on student learning.

At the same time, Timperley *et al.* (2007) also show that the length of participation in professional development is no guarantee for its effectiveness. To that end, Yoon *et al.* (2007) clarify that one of the necessary conditions for effective training is to ensure that teachers are *actively* involved in the learning process.

#### Mode of delivery

Thanks to modern technology, teacher training has entered the "virtual" realm and can be offered online just as easily as (if not more so than) in a traditional face-to-face format. The question is whether or not one mode of delivery is more or less effective than another. Yoon *et al.* (2007) determine that there is no optimal mode of delivery when it comes to the impact of teacher professional development on student learning outcomes. Indeed, the literature suggests that there are no specific activities or training designs that can be directly linked to better results in students. In each case studied, the mode of delivery was consistent with the needs of teachers and was chosen as a result of the specific content to be addressed, the nature of the work to be done, and the context in which the work took place. In this sense, the authors emphasize the 2001 recommendations from the *National Staff Development Council*

and argue that the best results do not come with a blind application of “best practices” but rather from conscientious adaptation of a full range of practices to specific context and content.

Yoon *et al.* (2007) do find, however, that carrying out training at school and providing teachers with the opportunity to work with their colleagues (whether from their own school or others) are two particularly powerful ways of ensuring that professional development will be effective.

### **Optional versus mandatory attendance**

In addition, Yoon *et al.* (2007) show that mandatory versus optional attendance in professional development does not appear to have an impact on results. Indeed, in the cases they studied, there were very few truly “volunteer” teachers. Most of the time, training was either compulsory for schools and teachers or voluntary for schools but compulsory for teachers. They argue, therefore, that their research shows that no prior commitment to engage in the offered training is necessary for ensuring that the training is effective.

### **Pedagogy**

#### *Focusing teacher training on real-life issues*

To be effective, teacher training should be transversal in nature. To be more specific, it should, to the extent possible, address didactics, content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, etc. (Buchs, 2016; Timperley *et al.*, 2009; Allal, 2017). This means that it should take into account the whole picture and provide training that accounts for related research findings, knowledge sharing on the subject matter being addressed, best practices concerning teaching techniques, etc. Allal (2017) also argues that it should alternate between conceptual and practical considerations that rely on both the research and on participating teachers’ own experiences. In this way, teachers are asked to reflect on their own practices, learn from others’ experiences and open themselves to collaboration with their colleagues.

As regards the format of successful teacher training initiatives, Timperley *et al.* (2009) underline the importance of having a well-defined and explicit goal. They also insist that the training should be highly structured around the attainment of this goal. To that end, Allal (2017) argues that the goal itself should be defined around the context of the teacher training initiative, including its subject matter. It should also be designed in light of the most recent research on teacher effectiveness and teacher professional development (Whitehouse, 2011). Finally, and most importantly, it should be defined in terms of the desired student learning outcomes (Guskey, 2003).

The goals and content of teacher training should be based on the challenges and issues that teachers and their students encounter on a day-to-day basis. To that end, it is suggested that teacher trainers carry out a pre-training formal and/or informal assessment of the learning context, for students and teachers, and adapt training

materials and content according to the needs that they have identified (European Council, 2001; Whitehouse, 2011).

Following that same logic, teacher training is also particularly effective when it offers teachers active learning opportunities that allow them to “transform their teaching and not simply layer new strategies on top of the old (Snow-Renner & Lauer, 2005)” (in Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009). The more easily teachers are able to adapt and apply what they have learned to the daily cases they encounter, the more likely it is that the teacher training will lead to having an impact on student outcomes (Whitehouse, 2011). In her review of the literature, Allal (2017) emphasizes the fact that an effective teacher training course will include role playing and opportunities to practice the techniques that have been taught. When given the chance to practice new techniques in a low-stakes environment, teachers will have the confidence to put these same techniques into practice in their classrooms later on.

### *Cooperative problem-solving*

Research indicates that teacher professional development which provides opportunities for participants to engage in collaborative problem-solving, debates and discussion will have better results than a classic top-to-bottom lecture (Guskey & Yoon, 2009; Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009). This is not to diminish in any way the importance of the trainer in ensuring that teacher training is effective. In fact, the trainer’s role is paramount in creating the right conditions for collaboration between teachers and, in particular, for debate and discussion (Whitehouse, 2011). Teachers can also benefit greatly from opportunities to learn from their peers, whether relative strangers at a distance (Trust *et al.*, 2016) or well-known colleagues working at the same school (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005).

### *Evaluation*

Research also shows that teacher training initiatives benefit from evaluation – of what did and did not work during the training, of what was and was not applicable after the training (CNESCO, 2016). While the ultimate measure of its effectiveness may be in the targeted student learning outcomes, it is also interesting to evaluate teacher training in terms of changes in teachers’ content or pedagogical knowledge, their feelings of self-efficacy, and the frequency with which they apply what was learned during teacher training (Whitehouse, 2011). Gareis and Grant (2014) suggest that one way of tracking the impact of teacher training on teachers is to have them keep a weekly journal to reflect on how their methods and practices may have changed, or not, following training.

## II. Teacher Training in ACT countries

### England

#### *Who is responsible for defining the teacher training strategy?*

In England, responsibility for teachers' professional development is delegated to school level. Every school is different so schools, head teachers, and teachers themselves are best placed to judge their own requirements to achieve the best outcomes for their students.

They are helped by the Standard for Teachers' Professional Development<sup>3</sup> (published in July 2016), which was developed by an expert group of head teachers, teachers and academics on behalf of the Department for Education (DfE). This supports teachers and head teachers to understand what makes effective professional development, and how to make choices to prioritise and enable high-quality professional development.

The Government is also investing approximately £75 million (€86.7 million) in the Teaching and Leadership Innovation Fund, which will support high-quality professional development for teachers and school leaders in areas of the country that need it most.

Several other national organisations also have an influence on content and types of professional development in schools. For example, the Teacher Development Trust provides an online database of development opportunities rated by participants. The newly formed Chartered College of Teaching will focus on helping teachers to access high quality professional development and to use the evidence base on effective practice to inform their own teaching.

#### *How is teacher training financed?*

Schools are responsible for funding the professional development of their teachers from within their designated budgets. There are some sources of subsidised or free training available to schools, for example, the DfE funded 'Maths Hubs' – a network of specialist Maths teaching schools – and some leadership programmes, or Local Government funded programmes.

#### *How is teacher training carried out?*

Teachers' professional development takes a variety of forms, dependent on the type and complexity of content. It can range from a half-day training course, across several days to a phased modular format over several months. When professional development takes place over a much longer period, it can lead to nationally recognized qualifications. Teachers' professional development may take place during the school day, in the evening, during the weekend or over school holidays.

---

<sup>3</sup> <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/standard-for-teachers-professional-development>

There are a wide-range of types of teacher professional development available in England, with varying costs attached to them. Some examples include:

Intra-school developmental activities such as mentoring programmes, coaching, team teaching, sharing of best practices, lesson study and classroom observation/feedback.

Inter-school professional development activities, perhaps through the national network of teaching schools. These outstanding schools work to provide high-quality professional development opportunities, as well as support and advice for all teachers and schools. Their work on professional development is linked to and builds upon provision for initial teacher training and teacher induction as part of an integrated continuum of support.

External teacher development activities, such as higher education qualifications at Masters level or higher, participation at conferences, structured training programmes, internships, study visits or international exchanges.

#### *Is teacher training mandatory?*

Teachers have a professional duty to undertake professional development throughout their careers, set out in the statutory Teacher Standards<sup>4</sup> – these require teachers to “take responsibility for improving teaching through appropriate professional development, responding to advice and feedback from colleagues”. There is no set “minimum number of hours” of professional development which teachers must complete.

However, five days a year (INSET days) are dedicated for schools to set aside for activities to support teaching. These days may be used for teacher training, but their use is at head teachers’ discretion.

#### *Is there an incentive for teachers to participate?*

Teachers do not receive a financial reward for participating in teacher training activities. However, school governing bodies do have discretionary power to pay teachers for any training which occurs outside of classroom hours. Specialist skills/expertise acquired through professional development may also attract additional pay allowances.

## **France**

#### *Who is responsible for defining the teacher training strategy?*

In France, teacher training is organized on two different levels. First, the French Ministry of Education constructs the National Training Plan, organised around fifteen large thematic issues. The national plan is then sent to the *academies* (local

---

<sup>4</sup> <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teachers-standards>

authorities in charge of educational organization). In collaboration with teacher trainers and universities, *academies* implement national priorities after adapting them to the local context. After collecting information on local training needs, *academies* may decide to add local priorities to the list.

Continuing education in France is organised within the national training plan managed by DGESCO (the General Directorate for Education), primarily aimed at management and educators, and by the *academies*, in the framework of the *academic* training plans, in connection with the ESPE and the universities.

#### *How is teacher training financed?*

*Academies* are responsible for financing teacher training (through the use of national grants). Teachers receive their usual pay when absent from school for teacher training activities.

The ministry delegates specific resources to each *academie* in order to facilitate the participation of academic personnel in the national training plan. These resources cover the cost of transportation and housing during the training activity.

#### *How is teacher training carried out?*

After identifying national and local priorities, *academies* launch a call for offers to which qualified teacher trainers can reply. These trainers are often tenured teachers or university professors. Since the beginning of the 2015 school year, trainers must pass a certification process in order to be “qualified”. However, these are not the only people authorised to train teachers. Teach trainers may also be academics or representatives of educational partners or associations or simply not have the above-mentioned certification. The academic training plan depends on both the proposals made by trainers and on the requests made by institutions, for example during the implementation of reforms. In their offers, they must provide a concrete training proposal that responds directly to national and local priorities. *Academies* then choose from among the available proposals. The final list of teacher training offerings constitutes the *academic training plan* which is then made available to all teachers. Teachers then sign up online to take the training(s) that best correspond to their needs.

Teacher training can take multiple forms. Participants may be individual teachers from a number of schools or all teachers for one school. Trainings offerings may be directed toward teachers from a specific subject area, grade level, cycle, or any combination of the above. They may even be offered to education personnel besides teachers, such as school leaders, other educational personnel or administrative staff members. Teacher training may last for a few hours or take place over an entire school year.

Trainings may be offered during the school day. Additional training, proposed by organisations partnered with national education, may also be provided and may take

place in the evening, on weekends or over holidays. This is the case for blended training which includes both face-to-face and online components. If training takes place during school hours, schools must arrange for substitutes to replace absent teacher. In primary school, the holding of training is effectively subject to the need to provide substitute teachers. This is not the case, however, at the secondary level where a teacher may participate in training activities even if a substitute cannot be found, provided that the teacher has not already participated in two other voluntary training opportunities. If the teacher registers for a third voluntary training, the school headmaster may choose not to authorize it.

### *Is teacher training mandatory?*

In France, training is first and foremost a right. Teachers in French secondary education (as opposed to primary education) have no obligation to participate in teacher training over the course of their careers.

Nevertheless, the skills framework for the teaching profession and education published in 2013 introduced skill n°14 aimed at “[engaging] in an individual and collective approach to professional development” along four different axes: (1) completing and updating one’s scientific, teaching and pedagogical knowledge, (2) keeping informed of the research findings in order to be able to engage in innovative projects and activities aimed at improving practices, (3) reflecting on one’s practices – both independently and with peers – and translating these reflections into action; (4) identifying one’s training needs and putting in place the means to develop one’s skills using available resources.

Teacher training is now taken into account in the evaluation of teachers and, therefore, their career development, including financially (i.e. in terms of PPCR, professional, career and salary pathway).

### *Is there an incentive for teachers to participate?*

For the most part, teachers in France do not receive any sort of special incentive (financial or otherwise) to attend teacher training.

However, within the framework of the 2013 school reform, and particularly the middle school reform, the need to be able to train teachers on short notice was accompanied by the implementation of voluntary, paid training opportunities during school vacations.

## **Greece**

### *Who is responsible for defining the teacher training strategy?*

Education policy is designed by the government and constitutes part of the general policy selected and implemented in various sectors. Responsibility of teacher in-service training (INSET) strategy lies with the Minister of Education, Research and Religious Affairs.

### *How is teacher training financed?*

Teacher in-service training is mainly financed by the Ministry through the State Budget and the Public Investments Programme, or co-funded by the *National Strategic Reference Framework*. However there can be INSET initiatives funded by non-state resources. The Public Investments Programme covers preparation, design and development expenses of INSET programmes.

### *How is teacher training carried out?*

Teacher training programmes are designed and / or carried out by the Institute of Educational Policy (IEP), Universities, Technological Education Institutes, ASPETE, school units or School Networks, school counsellors, educational and scientific associations, scientific institutes or training centres of trade unions. Finally, in order to facilitate teacher INSET participation teachers are entitled to service leave, and, on occasion, financial compensation. Participants are awarded certificates of attendance. Additional teacher training activities may take the form of study visits and international exchanges.

Teacher training can be provided in a few hours, days or even longer courses, taking place during the school day, in the evening or during the weekends. Moreover, attempts are made for training programmes to coincide with teachers' needs.

### *Is teacher training mandatory?*

Teacher training is distinguished, depending on its nature, between mandatory and optional. The training forms that are specified in article 1 of P.D. 250/92, as amended by later P.Ds, are listed below:

- Mandatory training of newly appointed primary and secondary education teachers, which has a duration of up to 100 hours.
- Optional short-term specific training programmes lasting from 10 to 100 hours for all teachers and 200 hours for teachers serving in Special Education units.

Mandatory INSET Programmes are carried out in the 16 Regional INSET Centres (PEK).

### *Is there an incentive for teachers to participate?*

Although continuing professional development is optional, effort is being made to provide incentives to teachers to encourage them to seek continuing education. Teacher training is provided in the form of educational programmes implemented by educational bodies upon approval of the Ministry of Education. According to a study on the "Motivation and Barriers in the Participation of Adults in Lifelong Education" by the Labour Institute of the Trade Union Confederation, the incentives included in the professional up-skilling category (salary increase, standard qualifications, job assurance, work performance) mark high rates of acceptance. Moreover the probationary training is a prerequisite for becoming permanent teacher. Continuing

training is also important to the professional development of education officials holding administrative posts.

## Spain

### *Who is responsible for defining teacher training strategy?*

The 2013 Act on the Improvement of the Quality of Education, which modifies the 2006 Education Act, lays down several guidelines for the in-service training programmes offered by the Education Authorities of the Autonomous Communities. These guidelines are: to adapt knowledge and teaching methods to trends in science and specific teaching methodologies; to offer training related to coordination, guidance, tutorship, attention to diversity and school organisation; to establish training programmes in Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) and foreign languages; to promote educational research and innovation programmes; and to provide specific training as regards equal opportunities between men and women, and coeducation.

The Spanish Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, through the Spanish Institute for Education Technologies and Teacher Training (INTEF), annually determines the priority guidelines of in-service teacher training programmes. For example, some priority guidelines established by the Institute for in-service teacher training programmes are the following:

- Multiple literacies.
- Teachers' digital competence.
- Creativity and entrepreneurship.
- Foreign languages.
- Treating diversity.
- Scientific culture.
- Management skills.
- Healthy lifestyles.

The Institute also establishes the relevant agreements with other institutions to this end.

In addition, the Autonomous Communities are also free to establish their own priority guidelines, taking into account the training needs of the teaching staff within their jurisdiction. This implies that both the content of the training and the institutions in charge of its provision differ from one Autonomous Community to another.

All Autonomous Communities have a network of institutions which provide teacher training activities. Although they have different names, the most widespread is Teachers and Resource Centres. Their tasks and powers are related to the organisation and development of the training plan within their area of action, the promotion of interinstitutional working teams supporting the dissemination of

knowledge, the provision of resources to the teaching staff to contribute to the development of their teaching activity and the improvement of educational innovation. These institutions are responsible for a variable number of primary and secondary educational establishments to which they provide support in relation to professional development and resources or guidance to carry out innovation or improvement initiatives.

In all the Autonomous Communities there are also other institutions involved in the continuing professional development of teachers, such as university departments, institutes of education, professional associations, unions or educational reform movements.

Continuing professional development can be implemented through in-person or on-line courses, seminars and working groups or training projects in educational institutions. Teachers can take part in these activities out of their teaching hours, during the hours spent in the school or during working hours if they are carried out outside the educational institution. To take part in some of these activities, teachers may have to comply with several admission requirements usually related to their university qualifications or teaching experience in certain educational levels.

#### *How is teacher training financed?*

Generally speaking, the different Departments for Education of the different Autonomous communities and the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport are the entities in charge of financing teacher training. The courses and activities they provide are free of charge for teachers. Teachers need a permit in order to attend to training courses or activities outside their working schedule although they receive their usual pay when absent from school for teacher training activities. It must be highlighted that most training activities take place outside the teaching hours

Teachers can enrol, should they like to, in accredited programmes in their choice of various forms. In that case, they must pay their own enrolment fees.

#### *How is teacher training carried out?*

Once national and/or regional priorities are established, a teacher training offer is proposed (once or twice a year). Teachers then sign up online to take the training that best correspond to their needs (usually one per training period). Teacher training may resemble any of the following:

1. Intra-school or inter-school teacher training activities (usually linked to school aims or plans).
2. Distance learning (through virtual networks such as that of the National Institute for Educational Technologies and Teacher Training or those of the different Education Departments of the Autonomous communities).
3. External teacher training activities, in many cases, provided by local or regional teachers' centres.

*Is teacher training mandatory?*

The permanent formation is a right and an obligation of the teaching staff. Educational administrations are responsible for ordering, organizing and recognizing lifelong learning within their management scope, making available to teachers a diversified offer of activities.

The permanent training activities consist of periodic scientific, didactic and professional updating activities.

Participation in ongoing training activities is voluntary. Spanish teachers have no obligation to participate in teacher training over the course of their careers, but most do, regardless.

Training is only mandatory in the first year of teaching (practice), teachers must do a course on Risks at Work and some credits on ICTS.

*Is there an incentive for teachers to participate?*

Undertaking in-service teacher training is optional but has specific effects on teachers' professional career, regardless the ownership of the educational institution where they work. Some of these effects are: merits in public competitive examinations or receiving additional rewards. In 2011 several agreements have been reached, in terms of continuing professional development for teachers, between the MECD and the regional Ministries or Departments of Education of the Autonomous Communities:

The recognition of teachers training activities: the Education Authorities must recognise the training activities, research and innovation carried out by teaching staff out of the jurisdiction of the target Education Authority, providing that they have been previously accredited by the Education Authority where they were implemented. The recognition of the said activities is considered a merit in any call including the assessment of continuing professional development activities.

The recognition of additional rewards to teachers, related to the implementation of training activities:

Recognition of training activities carried out by teachers out of the jurisdiction of the target Education Authority, as long as they have been previously recognised by the Education Authority where they were implemented, in order to receive the specific additional remuneration for continuing professional development (bonus for every five-year and six-year periods in service).

Certification and recognition, by the relevant Education Authority, of the number of bonus for every six-year period in service.

Certification and recognition, by the target Education Authority, of the training activities implemented during the current bonus for every six-year period in service,

to those teachers moving for working in other Education Authority. For those teachers having been working for five years, the activities performed involve 90% of the recognition of the bonus for every six-year period in service to be consolidated; 80% of the bonus for every four-year period in service; 60% of the bonus for every three-year period in service; 40% of the bonus for every two-year period in service; and 20% of the bonus for every one-year period in service.

The recognition of the said activities is carried out according to the regulations and criteria on continuing professional development activities of the Education Authority to which teachers belong. It has effect on all the calls, competitions or administrative actions considering to assess these continuing professional development activities.

On the other hand, the Education Authorities of the Autonomous Communities encourage the development of paid study leaves for teachers working in public educational institutions, with the aim of promoting their participation in activities regarding training and education research and innovation.

In-service teacher training provided by public institutions is free of charge as mentioned above. As for the activities offered by other institutions, there are financial aid for participants to help defray costs.

## Bibliography

- Allal, L. (2017). *Comment former les enseignants à l'évaluation au service de la différenciation pédagogique ?* CNESCO: Paris.
- Campbell, D. E. (2006). What is education's impact on civic and social engagement ? Presented at the Measuring the Effects of Education on Health and Civic Engagement. Proceedings of the Copenhagen Symposium, OECD.
- CNESCO (2016). *Attractivité du métier d'enseignant: état des lieux et perspectives*. Paris: CNESCO.
- Council of Europe (2001). Pestalozzi Program. <http://www.coe.int/en/web/pestalozzi>
- Darling-Hammond, L. & Richardson, N. (2009). Research review/teacher learning: What matters. *Educational leadership*, 66(5), 46-53.
- Gareis, C. R. & Grant, L. W. (2014). *The efficacy of training cooperating teachers. Teaching and teacher education*.
- Gauthier, C. & Bissonnette, S. (2017). *Comment planifier l'organisation des apprentissages ?* CNESCO: Paris.
- Guskey, T. R. (2003). What makes professional development effective? *Phi delta kappan*, 84(10), 748-750.
- Guskey, T. R. & Yoon, K. S. (2009). What works in professional development? *Phi delta kappan*, 90(7), 495-500.
- Hodkinson, H. & Hodkinson, P. (2005) Improving Schoolteachers' Workplace Learning. *Research Papers in Education*, 20(2), pp. 109–131.
- OECD (2014). *Talis 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning*. Paris: OECD.
- Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H. & Fung, I. (2007). *Teacher Professional Learning and Development: Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
- UNESCO (2014). *Global Citizenship Education – Preparing learners for the challenges of the 21st century*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Whitehouse, C. (2011). *Effective continuing professional development for teachers*. Center for education research and policy.
- Yoon, K. S., Duncan, T., Lee, S. W. Y., Scarloss, B. & Shapley, K. L. (2007). *Reviewing the Evidence on How Teacher Professional Development Affects Achievement*. Issues & Answers, REL 2007-No. 033. Regional Educational Laboratory Southwest (NJ1).

## Part 4. Best practices in impact evaluation

The OECD defines an impact evaluation as “an assessment of how the intervention being evaluated affects outcomes, whether these effects are intended or unintended”. To fully understand the processes underlying success or failures of any given programme, it is essential to carry out both a quantitative and qualitative analysis of its components. A quantitative impact evaluation, when done in ideal circumstances, can provide precise information regarding the extent to which the programme had an impact on measurable, quantifiable results. A qualitative evaluation can provide insight into the meaning of these results, as well as of mitigating circumstances.

### Considering future generalisation of the programme

Generally speaking, the aim of an experiment is to test the effectiveness of a project, programme or ‘treatment’ to see if it would be a good idea to implement it more widely in the future. A well-designed experiment with such aims is likely to be costly and time-consuming. The value of its outcomes depends on how well the objectives were defined to begin with. In this sense, it is important to consider two dimensions when designing an impact evaluation:

- **Internal validity:** This refers to the degree to which any outcomes from the treatment can be attributed to the treatment itself, rather than to unobserved variables. Ensuring internal validity is a question of carrying out a scientifically rigorous impact evaluation that can allow for a causal interpretation of the results.
- **External validity:** This is the degree to which the results can be generalised, beyond the scope of the project. External validity is linked to how representative the sample is of the overall population, including elements such as size and stratification. Ensuring external validity depends on how well the targeted population was defined from the outset and how well the population on which the project or programme was tested can be considered representative of this population.

The following sections will provide insight into how to ensure internal and external validity, to the extent possible. It is important to note that internal and external validity cannot be seen as “all-or-none, black-and-white [...] dimensions of an experimental design” (University of New England, 2000). A balance must be struck between the two that takes into consideration the economic and political feasibility of the project or programme itself. In the field of educational research, internal validity tends to take precedence over external validity, given that a project must, above all, function in order to be interesting to educators and policy makers.

## Selecting the sample

Defining the target population is the first step to ensuring external validity and to determining the sample on which a programme or project will be tested. Determining the methodology that will be used to select the final sample has implications in ensuring internal validity as well. This aspect of evaluation design is essential to the use to which its outcomes may be put later on.

### *Sampling unit*

The sampling unit will differ depending on the project or programme being implemented. According to the OECD, a **sampling unit** is one of the units into which the overall target population can be divided for the purpose of sampling, each unit being regarded as “individual” when the sample selection is made. Sampling units may indeed be individual people, but they may also be households, units of product, schools, etc. They can even be arbitrary units as defined by grid coordinates on a map. The sampling unit is chosen to correspond to the type of representativeness evaluators hope to see in the sample itself. For example, if the objective is to roll-out a new policy in schools nationwide so as to improve student outcomes, then the sampling unit will likely be the schools themselves, as evaluators need representativeness at this level in order to make conclusions regarding generalization of the policy later on.

### *Sample size*

Internal validity rests on the possibility of observing a statistically significant impact of the project or programme on the target population. In essence, the larger the sample size, the more precise the estimation will be. The more precise the estimation is, the more certain evaluators can be of the potential effects of the project or programme. While large samples are ideal, they are logistically and financially difficult to obtain. Researchers perform power calculations in order to minimize costs and maximize the likelihood of being able to evaluate the impact of a programme. A power calculation effectively determines the *minimum* sample size that would be required for an evaluation to detect a *meaningful* difference in outcomes between treatment and control groups. The size of the sample that will ultimately be taken depends on the quality of the data, the degree of complexity of the project, and the degree of precision required for detecting the project’s effect (Human Development, SIEF, 2013). Once power calculations have been carried out, the experimental design can be adapted in light of the minimum number of sampling units that will be required to allow for statistically significant results.

### *Composition and data stratification*

The composition of the sample is a determinant of the eventual external validity of the experiment. It is important, in this sense, that the sampling units that are identified for participation in the experiment represent the diversity of the target population,

whatever that might be. In some cases, certain members of the target population might be more difficult to reach than others (more widely dispersed geographically, less likely to respond to a survey, etc.) but are essential when considering whether or not the project or programme functioned as intended and whether or not it should be rolled out more widely in the future. For this reason, research designers may wish to perform **stratified random sampling**. This sampling method consists of dividing the target population into subsets based on relevant observable characteristics (e.g. school size, type, location, etc.) and then drawing a sample from each subset independently in order to ensure that each subset of the target population is sufficiently represented in the overall sample (OECD, 2003). When each subset is large enough, stratified sampling makes it possible to draw inference about outcomes not only at the population level but also within each group.

One can also implement oversampling in order to ensure that certain strata of the sampling population are sufficiently represented in the final sample. This can be a wise choice to make when it comes to populations for which the response rate is expected to be lower. In the case of schools, this may be necessary as concerns priority education or technical and vocational schools, for example.

### *Randomisation*

Above all, the internal validity of a given experiment requires the use of *randomisation*, which refers to the process of “randomly” assigning sampling units to the treatment group (which actively participates in the programme) or the control group (which does not participate in the programme) of an experiment. “Randomizing subjects to experimental groups eliminates all systematic pre-existing group differences, as only chance determines which subjects are assigned to which group” (Alasuutari *et al.*, 2008). The aim of random assignment is to avoid statistically significant differences in the characteristics of those in treatment and control groups so that any measurable differences between the two groups, following the experiment, can be attributed to the programme itself and not to differences in those participating in the programme (European Commission, 2012). Randomised assignment into treatment or control groups therefore avoids one type of **selection bias** stemming from unobserved differences between individuals who wish to be treated and those who do not, which might also make a difference when it comes to the impact of the programme itself.

### *Selection method*

While the key to sample selection and assignment to treatment and control groups may lie with randomisation, there are still ways to adapt the actual methodology for sampling to the project, its objectives, its targeted population and its feasibility. In the event that demand for a given programme exceeds supply, the opportunity presents itself for randomly “rationing” the treatment to a subset of the eligible population. Those who are not chosen to receive the treatment are then in the control group. While this is a justifiable method for assigning sampling units to treatment or control,

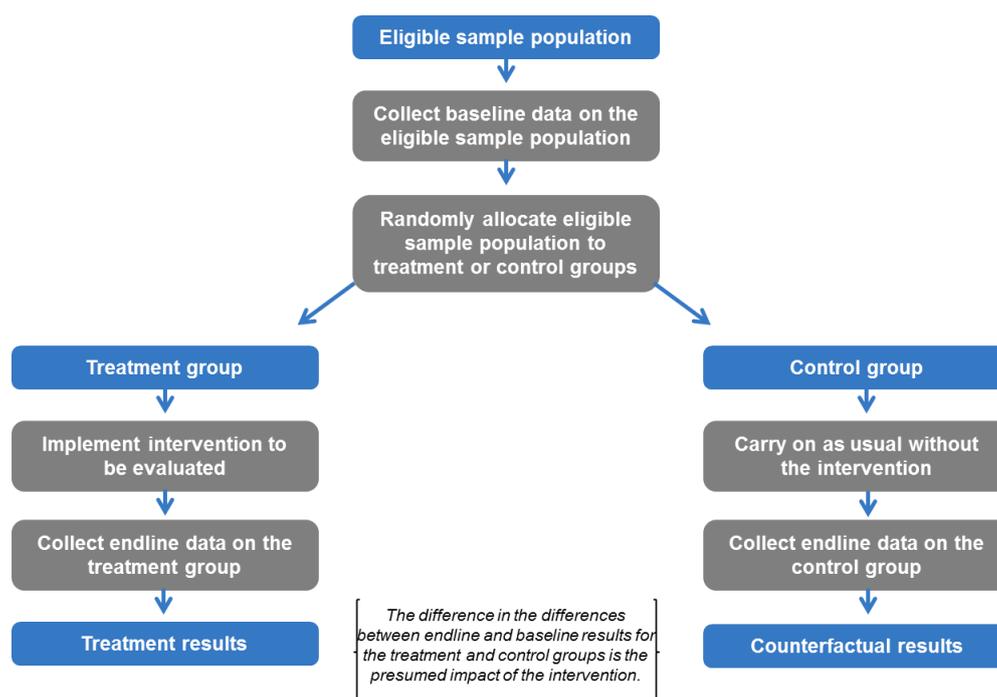
it is not likely to be looked upon favourably by those who will not be receiving the treatment. For this reason, evaluators may decide to phase-in the treatment over multiple time periods. The group assigned to receive the treatment during the initial time period is considered the treatment group, and the group which receives the treatment in a second time period is the control group for the evaluation. In this way, all interested parties will eventually receive the treatment, and evaluators are still able to carry out a comparison between the treatment and control groups. If there is a risk of non-random selection into treatment wherein those who are least likely to take up the treatment are also those who belong to a specific subset of the total population, then incentives may be required to maintain the sample size and composition. In this case, researchers may randomly assign individuals an incentive to partake in the program, but will allow all interested parties to participate. The eventual impact evaluation would then compare those who did and did not take the treatment and differentiate between those who did and did not receive the incentive.

In practice, evaluators often mix and match the various methods, depending on the context. For example, they may first utilise an incentive to get volunteers for participation in the programme and then finish with a simple random assignment of the volunteers into the treatment or control groups. In order to maximize take-up rates and the feasibility of a given programme, researchers generally end up conducting partially randomized evaluations, meaning that the initial selection may not be completely random (as it is based on observable characteristics such as level of education, income, place of residence, etc.), but assignment to treatment and control is. In short, the eventual method of selection must be chosen based on the experimental design and the context in which it is carried out.

### **Evaluating the results**

What the above section effectively describes is the implementation of a **randomised controlled trial** in order to identify the potential impact of a given intervention (Figure 1). This study design involves the random assignment of the sample population to treatment and control groups such that an analysis of before and after data may conclude that any statistically significant differences in observed outcomes can be attributed to the intervention itself. It aims to eliminate, to the extent possible, potential sources of bias which might hinder the identification of a causal effect of a given intervention. Randomised controlled trials are generally considered the “gold standard” of study designs.

Figure 2. Randomised controlled trial



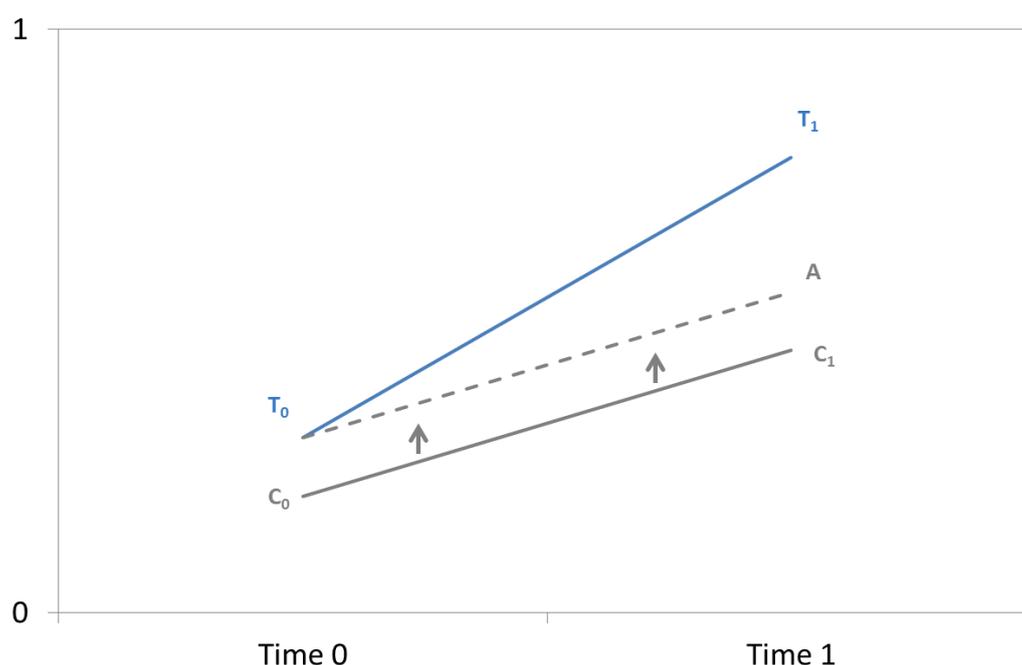
Source: adapted from European Commission, 2012

To evaluate the impact of the programme intervention, researchers can perform a **counterfactual impact evaluation** which involves a comparison of the outcomes of interest between those who benefitted from a programme (*i.e.* the treatment group) and those of a group similar in all observable characteristics to the treatment group (*i.e.* the control group) who did *not* benefit from the programme (European Commission, 2016). To better understand this notion, we can take a concrete example. Imagine a training program dedicated to the long-term unemployed. From among those who qualify for training – long-term unemployed who are registered with unemployment services – half are randomly assigned to the treatment group and the other half to the control group. Since assignment to either group is random, it is assumed that, on average, the characteristics of these two groups are essentially same. In running a counterfactual impact evaluation, it is further assumed that the observed results (*e.g.* obtaining a full-time job) in the treatment group are the results of the training programme and that the results seen in the control group represent the “counterfactual” results in a situation without the training programme. The overall impact of the programme is therefore “the difference between the observed and counterfactual results” (European Commission, 2016).

Nevertheless, it cannot automatically be assumed that a simple difference of the outcome variable of the treatment and control groups is equal to the effect of the intervention. It is possible that, on average, the treatment and control groups were on different trajectories and would have had different results whether or not the programme had been introduced. The added benefit of a randomised controlled trial is that researchers have access to both baseline and endline data, as shown above, and can therefore calculate the actual effect of the programme, absent of the change

in the outcome variable that would have occurred regardless of any intervention. Figure 2 below demonstrates this approach. The outcome variable for the treatment and control groups are represented by the lines T and C, with Time 0 occurring *before* to treatment and Time 1 occurring *after* treatment. Given that the treatment and control groups start out at a different point in Time 0, it would not be correct to attribute the difference between T<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>1</sub> entirely to the effect of the treatment. A **difference in differences** approach is thus employed in order to correct for the difference between the outcomes for the treatment and control groups that would have been present regardless of the intervention (*i.e.* as represented by line A). The effect of the intervention is therefore the difference between T<sub>1</sub> and A.

**Figure 2. Counterfactual impact evaluation – Difference in differences**



### Qualitative evaluation

While a quantitative measure of the impact of a programme can provide convincing evidence of its effectiveness (or lack thereof), it is less useful when it comes to understanding the effect. Quantitative evaluation cannot provide all of the information that is required by the evaluators to clearly understand the impact of a program. A qualitative investigation can complement quantitative results by identifying the underlying factors that may be at play when it comes to the measurable success or failure of a programme. The aim of qualitative analysis is, in a way, to “humanize” data; it can shed specific light on quantitative results and can lead to a better contextualization and interpretation of these results. Moreover, qualitative methods can play a key role in ensuring internal validity. “Without a theoretical framework and qualitative research into the mechanisms behind assumed relationships, statistical analysis has no substance” (Ministry of Foreign Affairs The Netherlands, 2009).

The size of the sample for an in-depth qualitative evaluation is generally much smaller than for a quantitative analysis because the method requires more time and human resources. As a result, the sub-sample chosen to undergo a complementary qualitative investigation will be comprised, to the extent possible, of a representative sub-set of the treatment group (again the assumption is that the control group would have similar sampling units in every respect). For example, in the case of school-level sample selection, the sub-sample would be composed of schools which are at once public and private, rural and urban, large and small, etc. The qualitative investigation then focusses on understanding the processes at play in the construction of and changes in teachers' behaviour and strategies as well as in students' levels of engagement, their attitudes and their skill sets. The objective is to provide clarification regarding the mechanisms at work in creating differences between students, classes and schools.

### **Evaluation instruments**

Evaluation instruments comprise the constructs and tools designed to measure the outcomes of a programme on the sample population. They may take various forms, both quantitative and qualitative, depending on the evaluation method or methods that have been identified by researchers. There are advantages and disadvantages to each, but the objective is to compile a set of instruments that can identify and explain the impact of a programme.

#### *Quantitative instruments*

##### *Administrative data*

Administrative data refers to information that is generally collected by organisations or government services (schools, healthcare providers, welfare services, employment centres, etc.) for the purposes of registration, enrolment, record keeping and transactions. School administrations, for example, collect information on students' social, economic and family backgrounds (number of siblings, parents' profession, place of residence, etc.) and usually keep records of attendance, tardiness, behavioural issues, etc. Administrative data can be gathered from electronic databases or paper records, rather than directly from the individuals themselves (OECD, 2003).

There are various advantages to the use of administrative data in research. Administrative data tend to be more complete than survey data, as they are available for all concerned individuals over a much larger time frame. As a result, administrative data can represent significant cost savings and eliminate one possible source of selection bias since it is available even for those individuals who do not generally respond to surveys. Moreover, access to such data can lessen the burden on survey respondents who need only respond to questions that cannot be obtained via administrative data (*Centre national de l'information statistique*, 2006).

Nevertheless, working with administrative data can be a challenge, particularly in terms of availability and quality assurance. It can be difficult for external evaluators to obtain administrative data, as the individuals concerned are not given the opportunity to consent to their use. Generally speaking, researchers must obtain permission to use administrative data via legal channels which vary by country. Permission is often contingent on ensuring that data will be stored securely and that it will not be possible for individuals to be identified from the published findings. These sorts of issues must be addressed by evaluators in the event that they wish to utilise such data in their work. Quality assurance can also be an issue when using administrative data. Researchers do not have control over the methods of collection nor of the definitions used to obtain the information. Administrative data is not always complete and quality control is of less concern to the organisations which collect the information. In addition, the data may only be proxy indicators for the information researchers would ideally wish to have.

### *Survey data*

Survey data refer to any information that is collected from a sample of individuals in a systematic way. Survey data may be obtained in person, over the telephone, by mail or online or by combining these different methods. Survey data was traditionally been obtained via paper-and-pencil interviewing but is increasingly done at a distance and often on the web. Administering questionnaires online can significantly save time and money throughout the process of building the instruments, carrying out the survey and analysing the results.

Online surveys and questionnaires are an effective way of gathering data directly from the sample population. Although the data collected is entirely subjective, it can be argued that this is precisely the type of information researchers require in order to evaluate the perceived impact of a programme at the individual level. Administrative data, on the other hand, is limited to what is already being collected by the institution and is less likely to pertain to a programme directly.

The challenge of survey data is ensuring that the response rate is sufficiently high (see above discussion on sample size), that non response is unrelated to characteristics of the sampled individuals, and that the conditions for data collection are strictly applied across the sampled population. The key is to have as much control as possible over the conditions under which questionnaires are administered. To ensure high response rates, questionnaires can be administered during school hours and under the supervision of a staff member. Theoretically, it would then be possible to have survey responses from all enrolled students, with the exception of those who are out sick. In reality, it is impossible to entirely avoid a selection bias among those who do and do not respond (whereby, for example, the least performing students are also those most likely to be absent from school), but controlled administration of questionnaires allow researchers to minimize its effect. Finally, to minimise bias in individuals' responses, questionnaires should be administered by

someone who is entirely unconcerned by its contents and focus, occur under exam conditions (time limit, no talking between respondents, etc.), and guarantee the confidentiality of individuals' responses. Moreover, for the sake of the evaluation, these conditions should be standardised across the sample population.

### *Serious games*

Administrative data provides an objective view of the characteristics of individuals or institutions, but this sort of data is limited in scope. Survey data can cover a broad range of topics and provide insight into how the respondent perceived an activity, event, project, etc., but the data are declarative in nature and are therefore subjective. In short, the above-mentioned data sources do not allow evaluators to actually observe changes in participants' behaviours.

To that end, researchers have developed "serious games", which utilise video game technologies and designs to simulate real-life scenarios related to the outcome variables identified for a given experiment. Participants are given a set of rules and must make choices based on these rules. The choices they make expose their underlying beliefs, values, attitudes, etc.

Several dimensions of social preferences that relate to civic skills can be measured through the implementation of serious games: self-interest, cooperative behaviours, altruism, trust, reciprocity, tolerance towards religious discrimination, gender inequality, confidence in public institutions and anti-social behaviours (cheating, lying, illegal behaviours, etc.).

### *Qualitative instruments*

Qualitative evaluation will take place in a small subsample (10) of the schools implementing the programme, chosen so as to properly reflect the diversity of school characteristics that may be relevant for the programme (size, location, presence of minorities, social composition...). Qualitative evaluation will entail the use of the following techniques.

### *Observations*

The method of data collection consists of observing participants in the program. The researcher takes notes, observes behaviours and, if possible, tracks changes over time. Direct observation can be complemented by the recording (audio and/or video) of the sessions. This method requires a significant time investment on the part of researchers, as they must generally be on site multiple times in order to better note how a programme or project is being implemented and what impacts are being realised. It is important that researchers carrying out observations in the field maintain a certain distance from the project. Their presence can be disruptive to the aims of the project as it might introduce a certain level of bias to the results. More specifically, participants who know they are observed may act differently as a result.

It can be difficult in such circumstances to differentiate the effect of a project or programme from the effect of being observed.

In the event that direct observations cannot be carried out, information regarding students' behaviour may be collected via teacher interviews and students' focus groups.

### *Interviews*

Performing interviews of participants (teachers, principals) in the program being evaluated is a way of getting more in-depth personal, social, cultural, family, etc. information, but also school information, and in asking more probing questions both as regards active citizenship education in general and in a particular school and as regards the way in which the programme has been received and perceived. It can therefore provide valuable information not only as concerns the underlying factors contributing to the quantitative impact of a programme, but also the ways in which the programme could be changed and improved for future generalisation. Interviews will be structured but also in-depth and open-ended, so that interviewer and participant may adapt questioning depending on the responses.

### *Focus groups*

According to Kizinger (1995), "Focus groups are a form of group interview that capitalizes on communication between participants in order to generate data". In focus groups, participants answer questions freely and can openly explore their opinion and understanding of a project or programme together (Kizinger, 1995). This method may serve to highlight the diversity of perspectives regarding a given initiative, but also contributes to understanding how the programme has been implemented.

## **Conclusion**

To perform an impact evaluation that is able both to observe a statistically meaningful effect of a programme on the sample population and to make a projection as to how well such an effect could be replicated over the wider target population (if desired) requires clear understanding of the population in question and the context under which such an evaluation will be performed. Often times budgetary and time constraints limit the size and scope of an impact evaluation. Choices must be made as regards objectives, sample size, methods, and instruments in order to maximize its effectiveness and efficiency in view of such limitations. While there is no one-size fits all model for a successful impact evaluation, there are nonetheless a set of best practices which may guide its implementation.

## Bibliography

- Alasuutari, P., Bickman, L. & Brannen, J. (Eds.) (2008). *The SAGE handbook of social research methods*.
- Centre national de l'information statistique (2006). Enquêtes statistiques et sources administratives : une complémentarité à exploiter. *Chroniques n°5*.
- Chaudhury, N. (2013). *Sampling for Impact Evaluation*. Presentation held on Wed. Oct. 2, 2013 in Dakar for the World Bank.
- Chambers, R., Karlan, D., Ravallion, M. & Rogers, P. (2009). Méthodologie de l'évaluation d'impact : présentation de différentes approches. *International Initiative for Impact Evaluation*.
- European Commission (2001). *Ex ante evaluation. A practical guide for preparing proposals for expenditure programmes*.
- European Commission (2016). Counterfactual impact evaluation. *EU Science Hub*.
- European Union (2013). *Design and commissioning of counterfactual impact evaluations. A Practical Guidance for ESF Managing Authorities*.
- Frechtling, J. & Sharp, L. (1997). *User-Friendly Handbook for Mixed Method Evaluations*. Ballston: The National Science Foundation.
- Haut conseil de la santé publique (2012). *Pour une meilleure utilisation des bases de données nationales pour la santé publique et la recherche*. Paris : HCSP.
- Khander, S. R., Koolwal, G. B. & Samad, H. A. (2010). *Handbook on Impact Evaluation. Quantitative Methods and Practices*. Washington: The World Bank.
- Kitzinger, J. (1995). Introducing focus groups. *British Medical Journal*, 311.
- OECD (2003). Glossary of Statistical Terms. Consulted on 25 August 2017: <https://stats.oecd.org/glossary/>
- Peersman, G. (2014). Présentation des méthodes de collecte et d'analyse de données dans l'évaluation d'impact. *Note méthodologique n°10*. Florence : UNICEF Office of research.
- Policy and Operations Evaluation Department (2009). *Evaluation policy and guidelines for evaluations*. Amsterdam: Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
- Prochaska, F. (XXXX). *Internal and External Validity*. Course dispensed at the San José State University.
- Ritchie, J. & Lewis, J. (2003). *Qualitative Research Practice. A Guide for Social Sciences Students and Researchers*. London: SAGE.

University of New England (2000). Chapter 2: Research Design. Internal and external validity. Consulted on 25 August 2017:  
[https://webstat.une.edu.au/unit\\_materials/c2\\_research\\_design/validity\\_internal\\_external.htm](https://webstat.une.edu.au/unit_materials/c2_research_design/validity_internal_external.htm)

Vitale, C. & Carrieri, S. (2013). *Reference guide on ex-post evaluation of competition agencies' enforcement decisions*. Paris: OECD.

White, H., & S. Sabarwal, (2014). Modelling. *Methodological Briefs: Impact Evaluation 13*. Florence: UNICEF Office of Research.

Himelein, K. Practical Sampling for Impact Evaluations. *Living Standards Measurement Study*. World Bank.