Introduction

Chapter Outline

Preamble
Radical approaches
Context
Purposes of this book
Subversive education and radical approaches
Need for change
Synthesizing utopianism and pragmatism
Summary

Preamble

In educational terms, the twenty-first century began in England with the establishment of citizenship education as a statutory subject for Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4 which, it was claimed, would bring about a change in the political culture of the nation (Advisory Group on Citizenship 1998). Given how remarkably similar the 1990 National Curriculum had been to the requirements of The School Board Act of 1904, as explained by Bailey (1996), the introduction of a new subject might at least have been expected to bring about a change in the culture of schools. Yet citizenship education is in danger of becoming just like all other subjects by being constrained by the straightjacket of previous methods, previous expectations and previous outcomes – what Rudduck describes as 'innovation without change' (1991, p. 26).

Teaching Citizenship

Chapter Outline

Preamble
Background
Citizenship education teaching and learning
Citizenship teachers
Summary

Preamble

The stated aim of the secondary National Curriculum for England (QCA 2007) is to enable all young people to become successful learners, confident individuals and responsible citizens – not only through citizenship education but through all subjects. All teachers are enjoined to ensure that links are made between their subject 'and work in other subjects and areas of the curriculum' (QCA 2007, p. 48). To a significant extent, then, all secondary teachers are teachers of citizenship education just as they are teachers of mathematics (particularly but not only numeracy), English (particularly but not only literacy), ICT, and everything else which pupils experience through both the overt and the hidden curriculum. This is a considerable challenge, particularly as few secondary teachers have the experience or expertise to deliver across the curriculum, and even more particularly when their

responsibilities now include a subject – citizenship education – of which many have little knowledge or experience, and some have little awareness or interest. Fortunately the National Curriculum identifies and explains what many of these subject links are, but it offers less on how they might be achieved. As Bernstein (2010) notes, however, our concern should not be about covering the curriculum but about uncovering it – not regarding it as something to be delivered but as something to be understood, engaged with, investigated, interrogated, interpreted and used as a tool to enable pupil learning and pupil development.

Below we examine some of the challenges faced by citizenship education teachers, particularly the diversity of types of citizenship teacher, their backgrounds, and their needs; and provide some strategies to support and develop them.

2
School Ethos

Preamble

It is important to note that the National Curriculum for Citizenship (QCA 2007, pp. 26–49) does not state what pupils should be taught, instead requiring that 'pupils should be able to . . .', 'the study of citizenship should include . . .', 'the curriculum should provide opportunities for pupils to . . .'. The emphasis is not on teachers' ability to impart a body of knowledge; instead, pupils are expected to explore creative approaches, reflect on their own progress, debate, campaign, work in groups, have contact with NGOs and pressure groups. Crucially, pupils are also expected to have opportunities to be actively involved in the life of their schools, neighbourhoods and local communities which in turn presents 'opportunities for schools to address their statutory duty to promote community cohesion' (QCA 2007, p. 29). All of this requires planned movement away from traditional classroom activity, away from teacher-led learning, and away from the passive receiving of assumed (or confirmed) truths. Teachers and pupils need to know

that the school not only supports and encourages such approaches to learning and development, but that it both insists upon them and provides an ambience within which these things take place as a matter of routine.

Blake et al. (2000) argue powerfully that, as educators, we should be concerned with the development of personal qualities, not simply of a body of knowledge and/or a range of skills.

> A caring person is generally caring (but) [t]o have caring skills or competences is rather different. . . The skilful doctor, as Plato observed and recent grisly events in Greater Manchester have confirmed, makes an unusually skilful poisoner. But if you are a caring person . . . you will abhor the misuse of those skills through which your personality expresses itself. (Blake et al. 2000, pp. 17/18)

Similarly, a radical approach to teaching citizenship education is one which requires that pupils have opportunities through which to develop into socially constructive and involved citizens, people who not only know what is expected of citizens in relation to rights and responsibilities but who also see beyond statutory provision and the characteristics of good citizenship – to be aware, as Werder (2010) puts it, of their *response*-abilities, of how and why and to what extent citizens can and should respond.

This chapter considers how and why the day-to-day atmosphere, activities and relationships in a school indicate the true nature of that school, and how they are central to the status and development of citizenship education. It also looks at what schools can do to take citizenship education beyond the confines of classrooms to make it an integral aspect of how schools function and how people within them think and act. While it has been observed that citizenship education 'must involve the whole school and there must be a clear and reiterated rationale for the ideas of shared governance and distributed responsibility if participatory democracy is to prosper in the classroom and in the institution' (Reid et al. 2010, p. 14), it does not always follow that those who run schools want democracy to prosper.

3

Identity

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Chapter Outline

Preamble
Background
What constitutes or creates identity?
(Mis)labelling
Content matters
Summary

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Preamble

Identity and diversity are combined within the National Curriculum for Citizenship (QCA 2007) as one of the three key thematic areas of study; the others being democracy and justice, and rights and responsibilities. If pupils are to appreciate that all identities are complex, not only their own, and that these can change over time, they need to understand how our/their identities affect and are affected by social circumstances and historical events and that identities are formed and influenced by many things. This leads to the need to consider not only 'how democracy, justice, diversity, toleration, respect and freedom are valued by people with different beliefs, backgrounds and traditions' (QCA 2007, p. 28), but also how these social processes and institutions are experienced differently by disparate individuals and groups. The quotation neatly brings the three themes together but we need to go much further than that.

While there can be no doubt that identity and diversity are inextricably connected – if we do not all share one common identity then there must inevitably be diversity – it serves neither concept for them to be forever paired. Like rhubarb and custard, or Lennon and McCartney, neither can perhaps exist in our consciousness without the other, but each element has a worth and contribution of its own which we need to examine and understand.

Below we build on and go beyond some of the issues raised by the Ajegbo Report (Ajegbo et al. 2007) to examine the centrality of pupil identities to what they do, how they learn, how they perceive their world and themselves. It is not until schools recognize and allow the development of individual pupil identities that we can expect young people to demonstrate an appreciation of the multiplicity of identities which they will experience in themselves and which they will encounter in others. It is also considering the extent to which the identities of others in the school – teaching and support staff, members of the local community, for example – are supported, explored and celebrated. Kolb (1984) and others have consistently both argued and demonstrated the effectiveness of learning through experience, so that to be exposed to a range of identities can only help young people to understand that there are many more identities out 'there', some elements of which they share and others they do not. One particularly challenging aspect of identity within the Citizenship National Curriculum is the desire to generate an understanding of Britishness; one successful approach to recognizing and addressing the identities which together comprise 'Britishness' is outlined and explained.

4

Diversity

Chapter Outline

Preamble
Background
Difference and inequality
Inclusion
Summary

Preamble

One of the areas of concern or perceived poor professional preparation identified consistently by those who complete the annual Newly Qualified Teacher Survey in England – a small, self-selecting sample which is none the less taken very seriously by the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) – is that of teaching in a diverse society. This does not have to be interpreted as a lack of adequate input and attention by universities or other initial teacher education (ITE) providers, but could equally represent an awareness on the part of new teachers that there are particularly powerful and complex challenges in responding to the diversity of the classroom and the diversity of local and national society – and that there is not always a great deal of similarity between these. The discussion presented here follows directly from the previous chapter to recognize the complexity and richness of diversity. While attention is given

to diversity of ethnicity and some of the ways in which pupils who find themselves placed outside the dominant culture are institutionally disadvantaged, other socially constructed categories by which pupils can be identified as different or diverse will be identified, e.g. issues of gender, social class, sexuality, pupils as carers.

5
Pupil Voice(s)

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Chapter Outline

Preamble
Background
Democratic schooling
Language
Being critical
Furthermore
Summary

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Preamble

Pupil voice is commonly trumpeted by many schools as being a well-established component of their citizenship education provision, yet there is rarely compelling evidence that such schools allow pupil voices to be heard in relation to more than the quality of toilet paper, whether uniform should be worn in hot weather, and the colour of the common room. The National Curriculum for Citizenship explicitly states that young people should be encouraged 'to take an interest in topical and controversial issues and to engage in discussion and debate' (QCA 2007, p. 27) and that they should 'learn to argue a case on behalf of others as well as themselves and speak out on issues of concern' (QCA 2007, p. 41). While clothing, common rooms and sanitary arrangements will all rightly be important to young people, we can be confident that there are bigger and more wide-ranging issues of pupils' concern within their schools.

Most teachers' classroom experiences will tell them that pupils can and will ask about any number of issues, often under the guise of academic interest but just as likely to be a ruse to distract the teacher from lesson objectives and learning outcomes. Those same teachers understand that one very effective way to deal with such distractions is to ignore the questions or opinions being put forward, safe in the knowledge that the pupils will eventually tire of asking unanswered questions and so turn their attention to matters which the teacher regards as important, or at least fall into a passivity which allows teaching to take place uninterrupted by pupil involvement or engagement. The same applies to pupil voice. It doesn't take long for pupils to realize that the only opinions and arguments of interest to head teachers and school managers are those which reproduce the opinions and arguments which those same teachers and managers have already aired. Lukes (1974) clearly illustrates how those with authority can manage and manipulate their minions to voice only those statements and opinions which have been approved, while Michels (1949) had previously demonstrated the inevitability of this within his Iron Law of Oligarchy. If we want to facilitate change and enable young people to voice their opinions, concerns, beliefs, prejudices and preferences, we have to enable them to unlearn the hidden processes whereby they express the views expected of them, and to learn to find their own voices. Those voices must be listened to, but it does not follow that everything they express will or should come about. Listening to pupil voices need not always be synonymous with doing what those voices ask.

There are many opportunities for young people to learn how to construct and present arguments, and this chapter examines ways in which pupils can develop their voices and gain opportunities to be heard. It discusses ways in which those in authority in schools can be encouraged to listen, and addresses the thorny yet essential issue of the importance of taking young people and their views seriously while not necessarily always doing what those young people want.

Political Engagement

Preamble

Citizenship education in the National Curriculum for England came into being because of the enthusiasm of Tony Blair's first Education Secretary, David Blunkett, and the outcome of the report to him by the advisory group he established which was chaired by Bernard Crick. That report tends to be known as the Crick Report, but it was not only an inquiry into a general notion of citizenship education; the full title was 'Education for Citizenship and the teaching of Democracy in Schools: Final Report of the Advisory Group on Citizenship' (Advisory Group on Citizenship 1998), which makes it as clear as anyone might need it to be that the teaching of democracy was and is central to citizenship education. There are, of course, many forms of democracy and many ways in which democracy might be taught. All or any of these models of democracy can be propounded in the classroom and brook no discussion or negotiation – along the lines of 'we are all entitled

to our own opinions, don't dare disagree with that sentiment', and 'democracy revolves around freedom of speech – don't interrupt me' – or we can have confidence in democracy, take it seriously and open it to scrutiny.

If pupils are to 'learn about their rights, responsibilities, duties and freedoms, and about laws, justice and democracy' (QCA 2007, p. 41), they will have to engage with the political system, even if only to the extent of trying to gain some understanding of it and even if they ultimately reject it. For pupils to grasp the opportunity, to understand how they can hold to account those in government and others in power, or explore community cohesion, or develop skills of advocacy and representation – above all, how they can take informed and responsible action – requires much more than familiarity with their rights and responsibilities. Once they have developed the knowledge and skills required 'to influence others, bring about change or resist unwanted change' (QCA 2007, p. 45) and put them into practice, pupils will have started to become politically engaged in a formal sense. Many pupils will already be politically active outside of their school lives, through activities such as green and other forms of ethical consumerism.

This chapter builds on ways in which schools can enable pupils to develop political skills and understanding to consider opportunities currently open to pupils to become politically active. This could include party allegiance (but should not be limited to it), considering also pressure and interest groups, starting or supporting local initiatives etc. As a starting point, however, we need to be clear about what constitutes political engagement and to debunk the perception – expressed in the Crick Report (Advisory Group on Citizenship 1998) and by others before and since – of young people as politically apathetic.

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Active Citizenship

Chapter Outline

Preamble
Background
Purpose
Motivation
Service learning, participation and worthy acts
A big society?
Summary

Preamble

Taking informed and responsible action is a significant step towards political engagement as discussed in the previous chapter, and it is at the very heart of a radical approach to citizenship education. As the National Curriculum for Citizenship (QCA 2007, p. 27) reminds us, the Crick Report (Advisory Group on Citizenship 1998) established three principles of effective citizenship education; one of these, community involvement, has to be experienced actively for the simple reason that passivity and involvement must be mutually exclusive concepts. In a properly structured programme of citizenship education there should also, of course, be an abundance of opportunities for young people to become active in relation to the other two principles – social and moral responsibility and political

literacy. Active citizenship cannot and must not be exclusively about young people becoming a conscripted army of involved community members – not that there is anything wrong with involvement in the community – as taking social and moral responsibility and developing political literacy both require action on the part of citizens; it is not simply, or even necessarily, about doing things for other people. This chapter is mainly concerned with active citizenship as it relates to community involvement, but the potential for action in other spheres must not be ignored.

Furthermore, the National Curriculum for Citizenship identifies with varying degrees of frequency the following explicitly active approaches to be intrinsic to pupils' experiences and development in learning to become citizens: taking part in decision-making; playing an active part in the life of the school and other communities; questioning values, ideas and viewpoints; communicating with different audiences. As the National Curriculum states, 'active participation provides opportunities to learn about the important role of negotiation and persuasion in a democracy' (QCA 2007, p. 28) and one of the three key processes demanded of the teaching of Citizenship Education by the National Curriculum, along with 'critical thinking and enquiry' and 'advocacy and representation' – both of which offer many opportunities for active learning – is again 'taking informed and responsible action'. This is clearly at the heart of active citizenship.

It should by now be clear that a radical approach to citizenship education, while it might have to take account of the National Curriculum, should be neither limited to that statutory content nor merely a reflection of it. There are many anecdotal cases of pupils being compelled to take part in 'voluntary' activities, or of being directed to participate without the opportunity to discuss, plan or evaluate the activities in which they are participating. The former situation is clearly oxymoronic, while the latter I have described elsewhere (Leighton 2010a, from which the broad thrust of this chapter is developed) as simply reducing active citizenship

to a series of worthy acts. Such circumstances arise when teachers have tried to produce evidence that their schemes of work reflect National Curriculum guidance or to ensure that their pupils meet public examination specification requirements to the letter without taking or being given the time to consider what it is that young people are being required to accomplish, and why.

The importance of active citizenship seems to be agreed upon by teachers, voluntary agencies and politicians. What is less clear is whether those same groups of people agree what the term means either in the abstract or in practice, and it is essential that some common understanding is established. In order to move away from the fixation with worthy acts and the oxymoron of compulsory volunteering, this chapter considers the principle of active citizenship and ways in which schools can facilitate pupils' decisions to become involved. It also draws attention to examples of young people as active citizens outside of their schooling, involved in activities about which their schools know nothing. Active citizenship is not simply about doing good, although it would be unreasonable to oppose good deeds. It is primarily about enabling young people to see that their actions have consequences, that they can make a difference for good if they know how to and choose to do so. The emphasis has to be that we should be most interested in finding ways in which pupils can experience ownership of – and take responsibility for – their actions and the repercussions of those actions.

8
Social Order

Preamble

This chapter reflects upon and develops some of the issues raised in the three previous chapters to assert that social order has to mean progress and development and not social stagnation and repression. Comte's analogy of society as an organism proposes that survival depends upon adaptability; a society which stagnates is one which is dying. We must also recognize that one generation's order and stability is likely to be another generation's moribund strangulation; social order and social control are not synonymous as the former relates to both the nature of society and the relative stability of it, while the latter is concerned with who controls, manages and benefits from the nature and degree of social change.

While there could be a perception that 'social order' and 'radical' are mutually exclusive concepts, this is far from the case.

Challenge and change are at the centre of the radical approach to citizenship education, enhanced by an understanding of what is and what might be and, in the wonderful definition attributed to Raymond Williams, the recognition that 'to be truly radical is to make hope possible rather than despair convincing'. This has to include an understanding of the current social order and what maintains social order, how to question these and – if and where they are found wanting – what alternatives might be considered, for social order means both the maintenance of an orderly and regulated society, and an established social hierarchy. If the regulations of society are open to question, development and change, as they must be in a democratic society, so must the social structures upon which they depend.

When the National Curriculum for Citizenship requires that 'pupils learn about their rights, responsibilities, duties and freedoms and about laws, justice and democracy' (QCA 2007, p. 41) it is requiring scrutiny and understanding of social order. When we 'equip pupils to engage critically with and explore diverse ideas, beliefs, cultures and identities and the values we share as citizens in the UK' (QCA 2007, p. 27) they expose the established social order to scrutiny and gain an understanding of social change. To avoid such examination of the nature of society and of social change suggests that we either do not trust young people to understand how things are and how they have come about, or we fear that our society does not bear scrutiny. Neither position is tenable – education cannot be built on distrust and fear, but on honesty, cooperation and confidence.

9
Political Knowledge

Preamble

Political knowledge is not synonymous with knowledge of politics. A truism has it that 'knowledge is power' and, as politics is the organization and exercise of power – and, if we're lucky, of responsible authority – political knowledge is knowing what knowledge matters, when it matters, how to find it and how to use it. Gobbets of information such as why seats in the House of Commons are green and those in the House of Lords are red, or why the Speaker's Chair used to be a commode, might win points in pub quizzes, prizes on television game shows or marks in classroom tests and public examinations, but they don't really matter.

Citizenship education can and should provide access to what Apple (1990) refers to as powerful knowledge, rather than simply being the transfer of facts about civics from the forefront of one person's brain or lesson plan into the recesses of another's brain

or rarely read notepad. This chapter brings together some of the knowledge implied or explicitly raised in previous chapters. The relative places and merits of 'content' and 'skills', much discussed in teacher education, are scrutinized as we bear in mind that it is impossible to generate worthwhile discussions among and between pupils unless those discussions are properly informed and about something, that '[g]ood discussion cannot take place in a vacuum' (Ofsted 2010, p. 14).

While often well meant, the outcome as much of misplaced good intentions as a lack of wit or imagination, there are many teachers who seek to provide 'the truth' to pupils – and pupils often seek such truth, even (or particularly) where it does not exist. Rudduck identifies crucial and complex issues regarding political knowledge when she writes that

> teachers and pupils often conspire in perpetuating a false security that manifests itself in a reliance on right answers and on a view of the expert as one who knows rather than one who uses knowledge to refocus doubt. Teachers, prompted by a kindly concern for those they teach, often over-simplify the complexities of living and learning; they seek to protect their pupils from uncertainty. (Rudduck 1991, p. 33)

Such protection is short term and exceedingly harmful as it inhibits intellectual curiosity, subscribes to the myth of omnipotent expertise, and deceives pupils into believing that there exist right answers to all things. Blake et al. (2000) have explained that learning must develop the potential for emotional engagement while, for Geelan (2010), an awareness of ambiguity and the ability to face up to and deal with it is crucial. Such engagement and awareness can combine to equip pupils with the tools necessary for the acquisition of political knowledge.

10

What Next?

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Chapter Outline

Preamble
Discussion
Creating the future
Reading
Developing opportunities
Summary

</div>

Preamble

Either side of briefly recapping the central arguments of Chapters 1 to 9, this final chapter considers how a radical approach to the teaching of Citizenship Education might shape the subject. The question in this chapter title must lead us to further areas for discussion and development within citizenship education. We need to continue to ask questions of ourselves, of the subject, and of each other; questions about radical approaches to assessment which will meet pupil, social, teacher, school and policy needs and aspirations; questions regarding the development of a forum to share ideas and strategies, nationally and internationally, and to remind radical citizenship education teachers that they are not alone; questions about how we can work with like-minded colleagues in other disciplines, and how we can reach and work with colleagues

who feel too nervous, uninformed, ill-informed, ill-equipped or ill-advised to understand and make full use of the opportunities provided by citizenship education to enhance the skills and life chances of all our pupils.

Student Pages

Questions

A prime purpose of this book is to make people think, a skill that multiple choice and comprehension questions rarely develop. The chapter by chapter questions provided here are therefore intended to encourage further inquiry and reflection. Answers are not provided, but it is hoped that the answers you generate help you develop insights into radical education and into your own perspective on education in general and on citizenship education in particular. A useful exercise would be to share and discuss answers with your colleagues. If you are desperate for a mark or grade of some sort you should be able to self-assess or organize peer assessment; take control of your own learning and development.

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Introduction

1. What do you consider to be the objectives of education?
2. Why is it that '[c]itizenship education is not always taught with confidence or imagination'?
3. Is citizenship education the most important subject in the curriculum? Why?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 1: Teaching Citizenship

1. What does the notion that citizenship education is more than just a subject mean to you?
2. Should teachers take risks?
3. How would you support a teacher of another subject who wants to incorporate citizenship education into their teaching (you choose the subject)?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 2: School Ethos

1. Describe your ideal school ethos in 20 words or less.
2. What barriers exist to having a negotiated and wholly inclusive school culture?
3. Identify all the groups/social categories to whom a school matters and on whom a school has an impact. Who matters most?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 3: Identity

1. Identify as many categories as you can that contribute to identity.
2. Should pupils be allowed to use the language of their home – other than English, a regional dialect, a social class code, a particular range of vocabulary – in formal schooling?
3. Why does it matter how pupils are dressed in school?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 4: Diversity

1. Are there any moral imperatives or is everyone entitled to their own beliefs?
2. Should citizenship education aim to develop tolerance of difference?
3. Are 'equal' and 'different' compatible? What are the classroom implications of your response?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter: 5 Pupil Voice(s)

1. Should pupils have a say in the organization of their school? Why?
2. Are school councils representative? Should they be? What is the alternative?
3. Should citizenship education encourage reading if English is not encouraging advocacy and action?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 6: Political Engagement

1. Can democracy be taught in schools?
2. Should parliamentary processes and language be part of the citizenship education curriculum? Justify your answer.
3. Should the voting age be changed?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 7: Active Citizenship

1. When does a worthy act become active citizenship?
2. Can pupils be active citizens without leaving the school grounds?
3. Identify any potentially negative effects of active citizenship. How might these be guarded against?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 8: Social Order

1. Critique Comte's organic analogy.
2. What are the benefits and disadvantages of social hierarchies.
3. Identify three things/activities/beliefs now acceptable or mainstream in England that were not accepted (a) 30 years ago, (b) 100 years ago.

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 9: Political Knowledge

1. Tutin wrote that '[s]ome people regard the best citizenship education as that which cannot be identified, traced or marked out, like an implicit theory of learning'. What do you think?
2. What question would you most like your pupils to ask about citizenship education? Why?
3. How do you decide what knowledge matters and what does not?

Questions for Inquiry and Reflection

Chapter 10: What Next?

1. (a) Identify five books that you think all citizens should have read by the time they leave school.
    (b) What will you do to ensure that your pupils read these books?
2. Which skill or knowledge area would you add to the National Curriculum for citizenship?
3. What would you include in a citizenship National Curriculum for higher education?