
School Improvement Research Series

Research You Can Use

Close-Up #19

Educating for Citizenship

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The real test of any citizenship program is what participants do in their lifetime office of citizen.

—Naylor 1990

Introduction

Nearly all writers on the subject of citizenship education agree that it is essential for preserving America's democratic way of life. Indeed, they often remind us that our nation's founders saw the preparation of competent citizens as the main purpose of schooling (Center for Civic Education 1994, v). Many contemporary people, too, believe that education's chief purpose is to equip students with the knowledge, skills, and values needed to function effectively as citizens of a democratic society (Wood 1988). And those who cite other educational goals as equally important (e.g., Boyer 1990) still concur that citizenship development is a significant aim of the schooling process.

Definition

Butts defines civic education as "explicit and continuing study of the basic concepts and values underlying our democratic political community and constitutional order" (quoted in Hoge 1988). The *Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors* says that it consists of

Learning activities, curriculum, and/or educational programs at any educational level, concerned with rights and responsibilities of citizenship—the purpose is to promote knowledge, skills, and attitudes conducive to effective participation in civic life (Houston 1990, 37).

Few disagree with these broad definitions. It is when we begin to specify *what* knowledge, skills, and attitudes ought to be taught and how they ought to be taught that we encounter differences of opinion. Some researchers and other writers contend, for example, that civic education should include attention to the global context in which the U.S. is situated; others do not. Some believe that teachers should give students classroom practice in grappling with the kinds of controversial issues they will face as adults; others disagree. Later in this paper I discuss the themes that emerge from the literature on the content and processes of civic education.

The Literature on Citizenship Education

Beginning with an ERIC search and proceeding through the bibliographies of the materials I retrieved initially, I screened scores of documents and ultimately selected the 93 on which this report is based. Sixty-three are reports of research studies or reviews, most of which reveal relationships between educational practices and student outcomes related to citizenship (see Key References). Thirty are critiques, concept papers, program descriptions, standards documents, and demographic reports, whose content is congruent with that of the research documents (see General References).

Thirty-eight of the reports focus either on students in general or on an unspecified student population. The focus of the others are elementary students (7), secondary (26), elementary and secondary (3); both students and adults (5), adult citizens (3); both students and teachers (4), preservice or inservice teachers (5), principals (1), ESL students (1); and textbooks (1).

The literature describes dozens of schooling practices used in different citizenship education efforts and the student outcomes associated with those practices. I discuss these in subsequent sections.

Educated for Citizenship—An Admirable Goal

Civic education goal statements tend to be lofty in both content and language. According to the Center for Civic Education's 1994 standards document, for example,

It has been recognized since the founding of the nation that education has a civic mission: to prepare informed, rational, humane, and participating citizens committed to the values and principles of American constitutional democracy (v).

In a similar vein, Mabe states,

We want citizens who are informed, autonomous, respectful of others, who participate in the political process, who keep the common good in mind in

their decision making, and finally, we want citizens who act responsibly (1993, 153).

Two of the National Education Goals express inspiring visions for citizenship education. Goal 3, Student Achievement and Citizenship, reads,

By the year 2000, all students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter, including... civics and government...so that they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment....All students will be involved in activities that promote and demonstrate...good citizenship, community service, and personal responsibility (Goals 2000 1994, 8).

Goal 6, Adult Literacy and Lifelong Learning, includes the following statement:

By the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to... exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship (13).

Informed, autonomous, respectful, participating, mindful of the common good, committed to democratic values and principles. This profile of the qualified citizen reappears throughout the civic education literature, together with assertions about the critical role of education in preparing capable citizens. Given this widely shared priority, one might expect to find an abundance of highly competent citizens across the country, together with vigorous educational programs to guarantee continued fulfillment of our citizenship goals.

Our Lack of Civic Preparedness

Unfortunately, what one finds instead is depressing commentary after depressing commentary about the sorry state of civic knowledge, skills, and attitudes on the part of U.S. citizens—both students and adults. Nearly every writer whose work was consulted for this report expressed dismay at our nation's want of civic preparedness (e.g., Avery 1982; Avery, et al. 1992, 1993; Berman 1990; Colville and Clarcken 1992; Dynneson 1992a,b; Fowler 1990; Franzosa 1989; Golden 1985; Harwood 1990; Hastings 1986; Hoge 1988; Miller 1985; Patrick 1987, 1988; Sinatra, Beck, and McKeown 1992; Sleeper, Strong, and Zabierek 1990). No one spoke well of our civic education efforts or their results. Colville and Clarcken's observations are representative:

[S]tudies show that traditional citizenship education has failed our youth dismally in attempting to develop them into knowledgeable, active citizens.... Consequently, many graduates and nongraduates are quasi-illiterate or functionally illiterate about the basic principles and values on which our political system and society are based (1992, 7).

In a similar vein, Hoge (1988) comments,

[M]ore than half of young Americans lack knowledge, attitudes, and skills that leading civic educators believe they should have in order to be responsible citizens of a constitutional democracy. Most high school students and adults appear to lack detailed knowledge and understanding of institutions, principles, and processes of government in the United States. They also tend to have shallow or confounded conceptions of core ideas, such as constitutionalism, republicanism, democracy, and federalism (3).

Golden remarks succinctly,

If one of the vital signs used to measure health of the "body politic" is the percentage of citizens that vote, U.S. democracy is the sickest in the world (1985, 14).

Sleeper, Strom, and Zabierek add to this indictment:

Various reports on the state of American education have found that our young people suffer from historical amnesia, geographic disorientation, and civic ignorance. Statistics on adult civic behavior are no more reassuring.... (1990, 84).

Avery (1988) notes,

Disparity between individuals' support for abstract democratic principles and their willingness to apply such principles to concrete situations has been documented in numerous studies of both adults and adolescents....Most adults, regardless of ideology, are unwilling to extend basic civil liberties to the group they dislike the most (534).

Looking at findings about young people's attitudes toward civic participation, Berman remarks,

Young people in the United States are expressing a sense of powerlessness to affect constructive social or political change. To the young, the odds of success seem overwhelming, the personal costs high, the disappointments inevitable (1990, 75).

Finally, according to Franzosa (1989), civic participation and civic attitudes are deteriorating over time:

High school graduates in the last fifteen years have proven themselves less likely than previous generations to exercise their rights as citizens. They participate less often in state, local, and national elections, express alienation and even cynicism concerning the political process, and show a distressing ignorance of contemporary issues likely to affect their country's future (6).

The Current State of Civic Education

If everyone agrees that civic preparedness is vitally important, why do we lack it on such a grand scale? Critics of civic education—and they are many—say that the components of competent citizenship are simply not taught in American schools. Instead, they say, the content we teach and the way we teach it virtually occlude the citizenship results we say we want. Kickbusch's comments are typical of those who study the current norms of citizenship instruction:

Frequently textbook bound, such instruction...is oriented toward the acquisition of unproblematic knowledge and passive acceptance of social institutions....Critics...have faulted this approach to citizenship education for its failure to develop critical decision-making skills, its inattention to values issues, its failure to utilize the existing social science knowledge base, and for its passive, classroom-based processes (1987, 174).

Patrick's research summary declares, "Studies of standard secondary school textbooks have revealed restricted coverage and shallow treatment of basic principles, values, and issues of constitutional government" (1987, 3). Reporting his research on civics lessons in secondary social studies classes, Hyland (1985) corroborates these findings and cites additional problems:

Selection of content was narrow in scope and lacked depth of treatment. Students were not involved in skills of rational analysis and decision making appropriate for participation in a democratic society (8).

Newmann (1989) echoes these findings and speculates on the reasons for such lackluster teaching:

Authentic discourse is usually suppressed by the belief that the purpose of teaching is to transmit fixed knowledge to students (so they can reproduce it in identical form for teachers who reward students for playing the game of telling teachers what they want to hear rather than asking and answering questions that students consider important) and by enormous efforts to keep order and control over masses of students (359).

The literature includes many different kinds of indictments of the current state of civic education. I have listed these criticisms together with the research studies and other examinations that led to these conclusions:

- **General.** Citizenship education has been neglected; it has been assigned a low curricular priority; and its student outcomes are frequently not specified (Boyer 1990; Eveslage 1993; Finklestein 1993; Goodlad 1986; Hyland 1985; Patrick 1987; Pereira 1988a). Goodlad writes, "One of the most surprising shortcomings of the curriculum planning process is the general absence of any continuing, sustained

appraisal of what is essential for young people to learn" (432).

- **Lack of meaning.** Teachers too often present isolated facts apart from any context that might give meaning to those facts (Goodlad 1986; Newmann 1987, 1989; Patrick 1987).
- **Irrelevance.** Teachers do not typically connect classroom content to students' life experiences or to contemporary issues of interest to them (Blankenship 1990; Hyland 1985; Newmann 1989; Patrick 1987).
- **Lack of focus on rights.** Civic education typically fails to address tolerance for the expression of individual freedoms, as guaranteed in the Constitution and Bill of Rights (Avery 1988; Avery, et al. 1992; Butts 1988; Hoge 1988).
- **Lack of training in thinking and process skills.** Teachers do not, for the most part, provide training or practice in critical thinking, problem solving, decision making or other process skills (Avery, et al. 1993; Callan 1994; Berman 1990; Levitt and Longstreet 1993; Hyland 1985; Kickbusch 1987; Hoge 1988).
- **Passive learning.** Most citizenship education limits students to passive learning (Eveslage 1993; Finklestein 1993; Goodlad 1986; Kickbusch 1987; Newmann 1987, 1989; Pereira 1988a; Thomas 1984; Drisko 1993). Writes Goodlad, "Research on classrooms revealed excessive student passivity—listening to their teachers lecture, reading textbooks and taking quizzes" (424).
- **Avoidance of controversial topics.** Either out of fear of complaints (e.g., from parents) or out of personal preference, teachers typically are unwilling to take up in the classroom the social controversies that arise in a democratic society and must be addressed by its citizens (Eveslage 1993; Kickbusch 1987; Levitt and Longstreet 1993). According to Levitt and Longstreet,

Among today's teachers, there is a widespread reluctance to engage in teaching any but the safest of civic values—that is, values at such a level of generality and acceptance that no one would feel threatened....as soon as the topic discussed reflects a reality of life beyond school walls, that is, an authentic civic value that makes a difference to our lives in immediate terms, controversy is likely (142).

- **Teacher control, student obedience.** Although the stated goals of civic education include democratic values and skill in democratic processes, civic education typically occurs entirely within a model of total teacher control and total student obedience. Critics are more upset about this than any other aspect of typical citizenship education (Eveslage 1993; Ross and Bondy 1993; Hyland 1985; Newmann 1989; Wood 1988). According to Wood, "Many of the goals of schooling...stress conformity, obedience, and rote memory... The goals most certainly conflict with a pedagogy for democracy that has at its heart the goal of preparing independent thinkers who are willing to act on their own initiative"

(298).

- **Low-track students, low-quality curriculum.** Research reveals a strong correlation between "low ability" and anti-democratic traits such as authoritarianism and intolerance. Research also reveals that low-track students frequently experience particularly uninspiring, ineffectual instruction. Those who study civic education assert that we must offer all students high-quality instruction if we are ever to inculcate in them the democratic dispositions we value (Avery 1988; Avery, et al. 1992; Goodlad 1986; Sidelnick 1989). Sidelnick writes, "Social studies educators should seek ways to increase support of the fundamental freedoms and explore strategies to decrease the dogmatism or close-minded attitudes evident in many low-ability and average adolescents" (96).
- **Lack of attention to global issues.** Many contributors to the civic education literature expressed distress that the typical curriculum virtually ignores the global context in which the U.S. is situated (Collins 1993; Drake 1987; Goodlad 1986; Sinatra, Beck, and McKeown 1992). Collins remarks that, "In too many schools, we are still teaching about the world as if it were a 1939 map. In too many classrooms, the dramatic changes that have completely altered the world are ignored completely or relegated to a weekly current events activity with little, if any, relationship to the curriculum" (25).
- **Limited, shallow text content.** Most social studies texts used for citizenship education are restricted in their content, superficial in their treatment of subject matter, and present facts apart from their context (Avery, et al. 1992; Eveslage 1993; Patrick 1987; Wade and Everett 1994). Avery, et al. note that, "High school government and civics texts...continue to emphasize isolated bits of information about governmental institutions and processes. In-depth examinations of key constitutional issues are virtually non-existent....In an effort to avoid potential controversy, most textbook publishers give such questions only superficial coverage" (382).
- **Text-bound instruction.** The limited subject matter and uninspired treatment in civic texts might not matter so much if teachers used a rich array of other resources. Research shows, however, that most civics instruction is text-bound (Boyer 1990; Eveslage 1993; Finklestein 1993; Kickbusch 1987; Patrick 1987; Wade and Everett 1994). Eveslage's review indicates that ninety percent of teachers rely on textbooks as their primary instructional tool (83), and Finklestein's investigation of citizenship education for young children reveals that "the textbook dominates primary social studies instruction" (68).
- **Inappropriate assessment.** Civic education continues to be dominated by the use of standardized tests to assess learning and the use of letter grades to report learning (Adler, Luhn, and Philbin 1993; Finklestein 1993, Parker 1989, 1990; Rudner 1991). In addition, there is a lack of evaluative criteria for civic education — criteria as to "what learning experiences are most effective, which public

controversies, past and present, are most profitably studied and discussed" (Parker 1989, 354).

Researchers and other writers also express considerable dismay over the inadequate preparation of teachers for providing civics education and the insufficient support provided by principals. The social studies teachers who were the subjects in Hyland's research were unable to provide adequate explanations of why the Constitution was written (1985, 4). A high percentage of those in Wolf's 1990 study performed poorly on a ten-item, multiple-choice test about Constitutional principles. In Stanton's 1987 research with preservice teachers, two-thirds scored below the midpoint on an instrument used to assess teachers' civic education knowledge. Kickbusch's classroom observational study revealed "a paucity of teaching skills with which to support...civic education goals" (1987, 178). And in a study of 70 elementary principals, "only two principals identified the formal social studies curriculum as a means to achieve citizenship education outcomes" (Tucker 1986, 8).

Attributes of a Prepared Citizen—What the Researchers Say

"Some critics have charged that citizenship education is at once so vague and all-encompassing that it can mean anything to anybody" (Parker 1990, 18). Butts (1988) remarks that,

Nothing is more common than for curriculum guidelines to proclaim the teaching of democratic values as a major goal of public education in general and of social studies in particular, but then to fail to make such values explicit or clearly visible in the content or scope and sequence of topics they recommend for study (3).

What do we mean when we say that citizenship education ought to focus on "democratic values," and "the public good," and develop "civic skills"? While the researchers and other civic education scholars are not in total consonance about the ideal results of citizenship education, there is considerable agreement about the desirability—and meaning—of the following outcomes:

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- **Democratic values.** Prepared citizens understand and are committed to the values inherent in the U.S. Constitution and Bill of Rights: justice, freedom, equality, diversity, authority, privacy, due process, property, participation, truth, patriotism, human rights, rule of law, tolerance, mutual assistance, personal and civic responsibility, self-restraint and self-respect (Butts 1988; Colville and Clarken 1992; Drisko 1993; Hoge 1988; Levitt and Longstreet 1993).
- **The Common Good.** Citizens, in order to be effective, need to act from respect for

the common good; that is, they need to be willing to deliberate about the nature of the public good and how to achieve it. They also need to possess compassion, ethical commitment, social responsibility, and a sense of interdependence among people and between people and their environment. And they need to express their commitment to the common good through their actions, e.g., through voting, volunteerism, serving on juries, petitioning the government for change, etc. (Adler, Luhn, and Philbin 1993; Berman 1990; Brandhorst 1990; Colville and Clarken 1992; Drake 1987; Goodman 1989; Harwood and Hahn 1990; Newmann 1989; Pereira 1995; Pratte 1988).

- **Knowledge.** Effective civic education results in knowledge and understanding of our nation's founding documents, the structure of government, the political process, and the global context in which the U.S. functions (Angell 1990; Colville and Clarken 1992; Hyland 1985; Mullins 1990; Boyer 1990).
- **Thinking skills.** Competent citizens require skills in higher-level thinking processes—critical reasoning, problem solving, decision making, perspective-taking, divergent thinking—constructing hypotheses, and evaluating evidence (Berman 1990; Colville and Clarken 1992; Callan 1994; Mullins 1990; Harwood 1990).
- **Social process skills.** Social skills identified as critical for high-functioning citizens include communication, conflict management, consensus building, and working in cooperative endeavors (Angell 1991; Berman 1990; Fowler 1990).
- **Student attitudes.** Effective civic education influences students in such a way that they believe in the efficacy of civic participation, are interested in participating, and have a feeling of obligation to participate (Angell 1991; Hoge 1988; Fowler 1990).

Achieving The Goals: Research-Based Practices and Program Content

Researchers and other writers make it clear that our civic education goals cannot be realized via our current civic education practices. They then go on to provide the specificity that is so often lacking in our civic education programs, citing elements that research has linked to positive civic attitudes and high levels of civic knowledge, skills, and participation. These include school and classroom climate factors and instructional practices, as well as specific program content.

School Climate Factors

While recognizing that a school is not and should not be a democracy, many of the researchers identified higher levels of democratic values among students in more democratic school environments. Students who are less authoritarian, more tolerant, and more optimistic about democratic processes are linked with schools that

- Have democratic organizational structures in which principals provide clear direction but grant teachers considerable autonomy (Hepburn 1982; Hoge 1988; Wood 1988)
- Allow student participation in decision making about school and classroom operations that affect them (Beyer 1988; Boyer 1990; Wood 1988; Eveslage 1993).

Drake writes,

Democratic ideals should be the foundation upon which a school culture is founded...Democracy implies certain ethical principles which should be woven into the fabric of the school culture (105).

Open Classroom Climates

The factor most likely to engender democratic values in students is an open classroom climate—an environment whose signifying features are teacher respect for student ideas and teacher use of democratic leadership behaviors. The beneficial effects of open classroom climates are cited by virtually every researcher and reviewer who looked at the relationship between educational practices and student results (i.e., Angell 1991; Avery, et al. 1992; Goodlad 1986; Hepburn 1982; Harwood 1992; Hoge 1988; Levitt and Longstreet 1993; Ochoa 1991; Pratte 1988; Torney-Purta 1983; Ross and Bondy 1993; Newmann 1989; Harwood and Hahn 1990; Patrick 1991; Mabe 1993; VanSledright and Grant 1994).

Because of the near-unanimous support for open classroom environments, it is worthwhile to identify specific components of this kind of environment, together with researchers' views on why it is so favorable to the development of capable citizens. Angell's review characterizes an open classroom climate as exhibiting

- (a) democratic leadership behavior,
- (b) [positive] teacher verbal behavior,
- (c) respect for students,
- (d) peer interaction,
- (e) open discussion,
- (f) student participation, and
- (g) cooperation (250).

The same review indicates that open classroom climates are positively related to

- (a) political knowledge upon which to base informed judgments;
- (b) skills—such as effective communication and interpersonal skills—requisite for interaction in a free society;
- (c) commitment to democratic values; and
- (d) interest, desire, and a sense of obligation to participate fully in the democratic process (243).

Other researchers and reviewers corroborate Angell's statements. Hepburn, for example, writes,

The teacher's role is crucial, because the teacher's way of managing the class group sets the climate of self-direction, free exchange of views, egalitarian treatment of peers, and at the same time, maintains order and direction in the group (26).

Harwood (1992) found that open classroom environments were positively related to political interest, trust, and self-efficacy and negatively related to political cynicism. The attributes of an open climate in this research were:

- Frequent opportunities for students to express their opinions
- Teacher respect for student opinions
- Teacher encouragement of perspective taking
- A classroom norm of openly discussing controversial issues
- Teacher presentation of a range of viewpoints on issues under discussion
- Teacher use of divergent questioning
- Use of source materials other than textbooks
- Teacher interest and concern about global issues

And according to Torney-Purta's 1983 review on factors that inculcate civic responsibility in students,

...the most positive contribution a teacher could make to the acquisition of democratic values was to create a classroom climate characterized by a process giving students freedom to express their opinions. This was more important than any particular content of curriculum (31).

Active Learning

One of the most trenchant criticisms of existing civic education practice is its tendency to place students in passive learning roles. Researchers and other writers insist that effective citizenship is an active role and, therefore, that preparation for this role must be active as well. Drisko (1993) writes,

There must be a means for students to apply their knowledge of democracy. Since students learn best by doing, the principles of democracy are best taught in such a way that they can be practiced (105).

In Mullins's 1990 discussion of an ideal civic education curriculum, some specific suggestions for active learning are offered:

The passive transmission of facts is rejected as an inappropriate method of teaching that should be modified in favor of active approaches to learning. Students are to engage in reading, writing, observing, debating, role play, simulations, and the use of statistical data to develop skills in critical

thinking, decision making, and problem solving. Cooperative and collaborative types of learning are also emphasized (4).

Like the support for open classroom settings, the support for active, hands-on learning is nearly universal among researchers and reviewers. Supporting documents include Colville and Clarken (1992); Drake (1987); Finklestein (1988); Hardin (1991); Harwood (1990); Leppard (1993); Mabe (1993); Miller (1985); Morse (1993); Mullins (1990); Naylor (1990); Newmann (1987); Parker (1990); Patrick (1988, 1990); Pereira (1988b); Rowe (1990); Thomas (1984); VanSledright and Grant (1994); White (1989); Wood (1990); and Wraga (1993).

Specific kinds of active learning recommended by these writers include instruction and practice in class discussion, responding to open-ended questions, research (using materials other than texts), writing projects including letter writing, cooperative group projects, brainstorming, role-play, simulations, perspective taking, on-site learning, observation, mock trials, case studies, town meetings, interaction with guest speakers and other resource persons, and community service projects.

Many of those who call for active, hands-on learning also see a need for such learning to include time for reflection about one's experiences and learnings. Community service and other out-of-school projects, in particular, should include opportunities to reflect on what one has seen, done, and learned (Fowler 1990; Morse 1993; Rutter and Newmann 1989).

Critical Thinking

While we can classify critical thinking as a type of active learning, I am giving it special attention here because of the enormous emphasis civic education researchers and experts place on it. The low level of critical thinking skill revealed by studies of our nation's civic preparedness is one reason for this emphasis. Another is the low incidence of critical thinking instruction and practice in American schools. A third is the link research has established between the teaching of critical thinking skills and high-functioning citizenship. The ability to generate hypotheses, gather and evaluate evidence, see and understand competing positions in a controversy, and remain open-minded enough to change one's view when the evidence warrants are key features of democratic deliberation, now and in times past. Weinstein writes,

The relationship between rational judgment and political action is so fundamental in the history of thought that it hardly bears mentioning. From Aristotle to Mill rational deliberation and political actions were so tightly linked that appropriate political decisions were seen as impossible in the absence of adequate deliberation (1991, 4).

The documents that support the provision of training and practice in critical thinking skills—which include decision-making and problem-solving skills—include Blankenship (1990); Boyer (1990); Colville and Clarken (1992); Hardin (1991); Harwood and Hahn (1990); Hoge (1988); Mullins (1990); Newmann (1987); Parker, Mueller, and Wendling (1989); Parker, Wendling, and Mueller (1988); Thomas (1984); and Weinstein (1991).

Law-Related Education

"The law is simply too pervasive and too important to neglect—much less ignore—in school-based citizenship programs" (Naylor 1990, 34). The citizenship education research and other literature includes a great deal of support for this emerging component of social studies programs. Law-related education—or LRE for short—is defined as,

...those organized learning experiences that provide students and educators with opportunities to develop the knowledge and understanding, skills, attitudes and appreciations necessary to respond effectively to the law and legal issues in our complex and changing society (Study Group on Law-Related Education, quoted in Pereira 1988b, 3).

Sources of law, functions of law, legal processes, legal roles, and legal principles such as justice, equality, authority, freedom, and order, comprise the LRE curriculum.

Effective LRE programs typically involve extensive interaction among students via cooperative learning and other interactive projects, including small group work, mock trials, role-play activities, and simulations. Teachers focus on realistic content and balanced treatment of issues and make use of outside resource persons who work in the legal professions. Effective programs also provide staff development activities to prepare teachers to work with students in this specialized area.

Research findings on the effects of LRE are summarized by Pereira (1988b):

LRE clearly and indisputably increases students' knowledge of the justice system, government, and the rights and responsibilities of citizenship in a constitutional democracy. There is also evidence that LRE contributes to development of skills in civic participation, decision making, and critical thinking (3).

Research has also established a link between LRE program participation and improved attitudes toward the legal system, reduced incidence of delinquency (less association with delinquent peers, less violence, greater likelihood of reporting delinquent behavior), and more positive attitudes toward social studies courses (Colville and Clarken 1992; Hardin 1991; Hoge 1988; Naylor 1990; Pereira 1988b).

Community Service

"Community service efforts build self-esteem and allow students to experience themselves as part of the larger network of people who are helping to create a better world" (Berman 1990, 8). The civic education literature focuses on areas such as developing interest in the public good, contributing to one's community, practicing civic skills, and enhancing self-regard. Researchers and other writers on the subject of community service programs have identified a link between these programs and outcomes (Berman 1990; Dynneson 1992b; Eveslage 1993; Fowler 1990; Patrick 1991; Pereira 1990; Rutter and Newmann 1989; Wood 1990). For maximum benefit, say these

writers, community service projects should

- Address a real need
- Integrate and nurture academic skills
- Provide opportunities for young people to be depended upon
- Allow students to analyze problems, consider and try possible solutions, evaluate results, try again, and reflect on what they have learned
- Encourage collaborative problem solving between student and teacher or other adult
- Give students considerable responsibility for organizing their own projects
- Be flexible, offering in-school projects for students with jobs or family responsibilities
- Produce a tangible product as evidence of accomplishment.

Moreover, write Rutter and Newmann,

If community service programs are to enhance civic responsibility, they should be structured explicitly to deal directly with issues of student commitment, sense of social responsibility, and political participation. [They] should be designed explicitly to foster social responsibility and commitment rather than only individual development (1989, 59).

Global Education

Although some have claimed that education for U.S. citizenship and education for global citizenship are in conflict, the civic education literature portrays them as intertwined and mutually supportive. Titus (1994) writes,

...civic education for global understand-ing...includes a renewed engagement with and dedication to the civic needs of our nation. It continues to involve "explicit and continuing study of the basic concepts and values underlying our democratic community and constitutional order" in the United States (Butts 1988). "It also incorporates, however, recognition that Americans are residents of a planet that has become a global village. This development requires our civic attention and action on a trans-national and transcultural scale" (3).

Those advocating inclusion of the international perspective in our civic education curricula include Avery, et al. (1992); Blankenship (1990); Boyer (1990); Collins (1993); Drake (1987); Goodlad (1986); Harwood (1992); Titus (1994); Tucker (1990); Watts, Matlock, and Short (1988); and Wraga (1993). These scholars point out that separating ourselves from the world context provides a distorted picture of U.S. values and interests and that, in any case, it is no longer an option in this era of growing global interdependence. We need to increase our awareness of the interaction between national and international factors such as

...the impact of corporations on global society, the mounting problems

associated with population increases, the pressing need to establish worldwide control of pollution, the ever-widening gulf between the "haves" and the "have-nots" of our world; the desirability of having available some form of supranational order or control to assure peace; the whole complex area of foreign policy decision making, the growing role of regional organizations and common markets...(Collins 1993, 26-27).

These are only a few of the global issues that have and will continue to have profound effects on the lives of U.S. citizens. As Collins observes, "in a democratic society, where public opinion heavily affects the continuum of choices available to the country's leaders, a realistic knowledge of the problems facing the world is even more critical" (26).

Specific Content

Most of the above discussion has focused on recommended processes for civic education, including particular instructional practices. In addition to these, the civic education literature also includes strong advocacy for more complete and incisive treatment of traditional civic education content:

- **American History** (Boyer 1990; Patrick 1987, 1988; Butts 1988; Franzosa 1989). According to Boyer, "...all students [should] study American history...be introduced to political thinkers...learn about the heritage of other cultures as they prepare to take their places in a world of diverse peoples whose destinies have become intertwined" (6).
- **The Constitution and Bill of Rights** (Avery 1988; Butts 1988; Patrick 1987, 1988; Sinatra, Beck, and McKeown 1992). Whether or not they provide a specific law-related education course, teachers should emphasize the applicability of these documents to the common concerns of citizens and integrate their content with facts about the past and current structure and operations of government. High-quality learning materials are available and should be used. Avery strongly advocates referring to specific groups when presenting Constitutional principles such as freedom of expression and assembly, since students so often fail to see the applicability of these principles to individuals and groups with whom they disagree (3).
- **Current Events** (Butts 1988; Dynneson 1992b; Eveslage 1993; Patrick 1991). Student surveys reveal that current events comprise one of their favorite themes in social studies classes. They can learn applications of constitutional principles and increase their global awareness through the study of current events.
- **"Real-World" Issues** (Berman 1990; Blankenship 1990; Craig 1990; Franzosa 1989; Ochoa 1991; Parker 1990; Patrick 1987; Wood 1990). This refers to perennial—and often controversial—social issues and to issues of immediate personal relevance to students. Civic educators recommend making exploration of these issues a larger part of the curriculum. "We should," writes Berman, "listen to and acknowledge [students'] feelings, give them multiple perspectives and ways to

apply conflict resolution strategies to depolarize conflicts and promote dialogue, and give them opportunities for involvement and action" (79).

Assessment

Many civic educators, like educators in other fields, are attempting to change the ways that student learning is assessed and reported. Adler, Luhn, and Philbin (1993), Finklestein (1993), Parker (1989, 1990), Rudner (1991), and others are pushing for more authentic, performance-based, integrative assessments for civic education. Parker's guidelines are representative of the move toward improved approaches to assessment:

- Outcomes need to be conceptualized as tasks—relatively clear cases rather than amorphous goals.
- The citizenship tasks should be authentic or genuine; that is, they need to resemble the real-world challenges faced by democratic citizens.
- The tasks need to be standard setting, pointing students toward a high, rich level of knowing while at the same time providing the specificity that tasks convey.
- Students should be asked to perform just a few tasks.
- The tasks should be attempted by all students.
- The tasks should generally involve higher-order thinking—a challenge for which the student has to go beyond the routine use of previously learned information.
- The tasks should be known to students well in advance (1990, 18).

Support for Teachers

"Education for responsible citizenship," writes Butts, "is a part of the job of all educators who influence elementary and secondary students, not only the job of teachers of history, civics, and government" (1993, 331). Recalling that the researchers point to insufficient teacher preparation as one cause of America's inadequate civic education programs, it is important to look at their recommendations for improvement in this area.

Preservice Teachers

Researchers and reviewers have identified needs that they feel should be addressed in teacher preparation programs. The following recommendations are from the work of Colville and Clarcken (1992); Dynneson (1992b); Hardin and Johnson (1991); Levitt and Longstreet (1993); and Stanton (1987):

- Teacher preparation programs should consider requiring more coursework in civic education for future teachers, especially for multiple-subjects students.
- Teacher training institutions should prepare their students to serve as models of social responsibility for students. They should select students who are able to model and teach the sense of social responsibility we wish to engender in our children.

- There is a broader range of approaches to teaching for citizenship than are typically provided to preservice teachers; their academic and professional preparation should be expanded beyond the "centrist" model of civic education.
- Teacher training programs should provide learning experiences designed to help prospective teachers instruct students in citizenship content, skills, and values.
- Prospective teachers should receive instruction that will equip them to provide law-related education courses or units. Teacher training institutions should consider requiring such instruction, either as a course or as integrated into civics and government courses.
- Students in social studies education methods classes and student teaching should have opportunities to review basic constitutional concepts.
- Teacher training institutions should encourage social science faculty to involve themselves in the overall teacher preparation process.
- Teacher training institutions should foster future teachers' capacities for dealing with controversial issues by providing them instruction in valuing, "especially in a complex democracy that has at its very core controversy and compromise" (Levitt and Longstreet, 146).

Inservice Teachers

Recommendations for support and inservice training for teachers are offered by Beyer (1998); Dynneson (1992b); Hardin and Johnson (1991); Mullins (1990); and Torney-Purta (1983):

- Citizenship education needs to become an instructional priority in all schools, regardless of grade level, so that teachers can nurture development of our society's citizenship goals.
 - Inservice activities should be provided which familiarize teachers with research on effective teaching for responsible citizenship.
 - To implement open classroom climates characterized by active learning, "teachers need administrative support and ample time both for inservice training to implement new teaching strategies and for planning their courses of study" (Mullins, 4).
 - Administrators should share the power structure of their schools with their teaching staffs by extending them greater autonomy over their work and including them more fully in decisions about school operations.
 - Administrators should assist teachers of law-related education by informing the community of its positive effects and engaging their interest and support.
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Obstacles to Change

To improve our civic education programs and results, educators must become familiar with these research-based practices and recommendations. This is only the beginning, however, since there are obstacles other than mere lack of information that impede implementation of new approaches. Ochoa (1991), Parker (1989), Titus (1994), and VanSledright and Grant (1994) have identified barriers that must be overcome if we are to make substantial changes in our approach to education for citizenship:

- Resistance to analysis or criticism of the domestic or international practices of the U.S.
- Resistance to practices other than lecture-memorize-quiz
- Entrenched teacher training practices that perpetuate these teaching/learning methods
- Resistance to teachers sharing power with students
- Resistance to assessment methods other than quantifiable standard achievement texts
- Administrator and school board resistance to giving teachers more influence over curricular content
- Resistance by some students to taking more of the responsibility for their own learning
- School organizational approaches that place a higher value on managing students than on educating them
- The "long-standing difficulty schools have in opening up for sustained study issues that matter deeply to people but on which they disagree" (Parker, 354)
- Regarding global education: "Inertia [and] resistance by some who, alarmed by the term 'global,' may see such efforts as a threat to national unity" (Titus, 4)
- The lack of evaluative criteria for civic education.

Conclusion

As usual, change will not come easily. The researchers and other civic education scholars do, however, make a compelling case for sustained effort to bring about change. They remind us that, without proficient, committed, participating citizens, we cannot preserve

our democratic way of life. Moreover, as expressed by Parker in his essay on developing citizenship programs,

...democratic citizenship is not only a matter of preserving democracy—it is also a matter of creating it...the daily labor of democracy, the "grunt-work," involves processes that are always of the moment that is just now unfolding; identifying public problems, deliberating on them without repression or discrimination, safeguarding the opposition, opening the system to the dispossessed, responding to injustice (1990, 17).

No wonder Naylor (1990, 56), as part of his advocacy of active, participatory learning, uses citizen as a verb: "If you want to learn to 'citizen'," he says, "you need to do more than read books and take courses."

Key References

Angell, A. V. "Democratic Climates in Elementary Classrooms: A Review of Theory and Research." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 19/3 (Summer 1991): 241-266.

Reviews research on the relationship between classroom climate variables and students' civic dispositions and skills. Desirable outcomes, such as feelings of interest and obligation to participate in democratic processes in society, were found among students whose classrooms were characterized by cooperative activities, opportunities for free expression, respect for diverse viewpoints, and student participation in democratic discussion and decision making.

Avery, P. "Adolescents, Civic Tolerance, and Human Rights." *Social Education* 57/2 (November/December 1988): 534-537.

Follows a brief literature review with the description and results of a study of the civic tolerance of approximately 500 students in grade 9 and 11. Students' tolerance of their most-disliked groups was measured by surveying their willingness to extend to this group the rights and protections defined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Tolerance levels depended on the particular rights involved. Offers recommendations based on findings.

Avery, P.; Bird, K.; Johnstone, S.; Sullivan, J. L.; and Thalhammer, K. "Exploring Political Tolerance with Adolescents." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 20/4 (Fall 1992): 386-420.

Follows a literature review with the description of a study that examined the effects of a curriculum on the levels of tolerance of more than 300 ninth graders in three schools. The researchers identified several variables, including exposure to the curriculum, that were significantly related to

tolerance. Tolerance was defined as willingness to extend the right of freedom of expression to groups whose beliefs are at odds with one's own beliefs.

Berman, S. "Educating for Social Responsibility." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 75-80.

Defines "social responsibility" as a personal investment in the well-being of others and of the planet, identifies the knowledge and skills necessary for practicing social responsibility, and suggests ways the knowledge and skills can be imparted in schools and classrooms. Also describes some actual programs aimed at developing social responsibility in participants.

Beyer, L. E. "Can Schools Further Democratic Practices?" *Theory Into Practice* 27/4 (Fall 1988): 262-269.

Draws contrasts between "classic liberal theory," which emphasizes private interests, and true democracy, which focuses on the public good. Discusses the ways that terms like "democracy," which have strong positive connotations for Americans, are sometimes misused by people in power to sway public sentiment toward things that are not at all democratic. Argues that both teachers and students must be allowed to share more fully in the power structure of schools if schooling is to foster a truly democratic society.

Blankenship, G. "Classroom Climate, Global Knowledge, Global Attitudes, Political Attitudes." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 18/4 (Fall 1990): 363-386.

Examines the relationship between "open" classroom environments—those in which students feel free to discuss controversial issues openly—and several civic knowledge and attitude measures. Like previous research, this study found positive relationships (of varying strengths) between open classroom climates and all national and international measures.

Boyer, E. L. "Civic Education for Responsible Citizens." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 4-7.

Argues that preparing students to assume citizenship responsibilities is one of the main purposes of education, claims that education for citizenship is not adequately addressed in schools, and discusses the elements that should comprise civic education programs.

Butts, R. F. *Democratic Values: What the Schools Should Teach*. Paper presented at the National Conference on the Future of Civic Education, Washington, DC, October 1988 (ED 307 187).

Presents and discusses the democratic ideas and values the author believes should comprise the nation's civic education curriculum. Butts identifies the

following twelve core civic values as fundamental to the theory and practice of democratic citizenship: the six obligations of citizenship, including justice, equality, authority, participation, truth, and patriotism; and the six rights of citizenship, including freedom, diversity, privacy, due process, property, and human rights. Butts calls this group of values the "Twelve Tables of Civism."

Butts, R. F. "The Time is Now: To Frame the Civic Foundations of Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 44/5 (November/December 1993): 326-334.

Calls attention to the absence of specific civic education content from most of the reform proposals and efforts of the 1980s. Outlines the author's recommended teacher preparation coursework in the content and values of U.S. constitutional democracy. Recommends, in particular, the approach of the CIVITAS program for civic education.

Center for Civic Education. *National Standards for Civics and Government*. Calabasas, CA: Center for Civic Education, 1994.

Specifies what students should know and be able to do in the field of civics and government as they complete the fourth, eighth, and twelfth grades. This U.S. Department of Education-funded document is based upon National Goals 3 and 6, which address knowledge and skills for capable citizenship.

Collins, H. T. "International Education for Tomorrow's Citizens." *The School Administrator* 50/8 (August 1993): 25-30.

Notes that American schools are not currently preparing globally literate citizens, explains why global literacy is important, and offers a series of recommendations for improving American students' understanding of the world beyond U.S. borders.

Colville, J. K., and Clarcken, R. H. *Developing Social Responsibility through Law-Related Education*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA, April 1992 (ED 344 870).

Describes and cites research showing the effectiveness of law-related education (LRE) in developing socially responsible citizens by improving the knowledge, attitudes, and behavior of LRE students. LRE courses aim at developing both content knowledge and abilities such as clear reasoning, critical thinking, empathy, reflection, and decision making. LRE also requires in-depth teacher preparation in the principles and laws on which American society is based.

Drake, C. "Educating for Responsible Global Citizenship." *Journal of Geography* 86/6 (November/December 1987): 300-306.

Describes an array of pressing international problems—widespread poverty, overpopulation, human rights abuses, environmental pollution, and so on—discusses the interrelatedness of the world's nations; and makes recommendations for actions U.S. citizens can take to address current world problems. Contact information is provided for many agencies and organizations concerned with global issues.

Drisko, J. "The Responsibilities of Schools in Civic Education." *Journal of Education* 175/1 (1993): 105-119.

Identifies three elements that schools must provide as part of high-quality civic education: (1) a curriculum based on the fundamental principals of democracy as put forth in the nation's founding documents, (2) a school culture that is based on principles of democracy, and (3) opportunities for students to apply their knowledge of democracy.

Dynneson, T. L. "What's Hot and What's Not in Effective Citizenship Instruction." *The Social Studies* 83/5 (September/October 1992): 197-200.

Reports the results of a survey of high school seniors undertaken to identify their attitudes towards different kinds of citizenship-related activities. Among the findings were that students were most interested in current events and activities pertaining to their personal interests and needs. Makes recommendations based on findings.

Eveslage, T. E. "The Social Studies and Scholastic Journalism: Partners in Citizenship Education." *Social Education* 57/2 (February 1993): 82-86.

Provides a review of the literature on the inadequacy of citizenship education in the U.S., with a focus on the instructional, resource, and curriculum practices that perpetuate this inadequacy. Advocates integrating the social studies curriculum with school journalism in order to provide in-depth, hands-on experiences of values, rights, and responsibilities associated with citizenship.

Finkelstein, J. M.; Nielsen, L. E.; and Switzer, T. "Primary Elementary Social Studies Instruction: A Status Report." *Social Education* 57/2 (February 1993): 64-69.

Discusses research on the ways young children learn and the kinds of teaching approaches that are congruent with those needs. Then reports the results of a survey of more than 1200 primary-level teachers on their preferred and actual approach to teaching social studies. Teaching practices were found to be seriously at odds with the recommendations of early childhood specialists. Recommendations are offered.

Fowler, D. "Democracy's Next Generation." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 10-15.

Reveals results of a survey of over 1,000 15-24 year-olds and social studies teachers about their views of citizenship and citizenship education, and makes recommendations based on findings. Following findings about young people's detachment from public life, the discussion focuses on hands-on curriculum, community service, and voter registration as key elements in developing actively participating citizens.

Franzosa, S. D. "Teaching Citizenship." *Magazine of History* 4/2 (Spring 1989): 5-6.

Bemoans the lack of knowledge and understanding exhibited by contemporary high school students regarding the nature, rights, and responsibilities of citizenship. Discusses the changes that should be made in the American history curriculum in order to engage the interest of students and overcome their apathy and cynicism.

Goodlad, J. I. "The Learner At the World's Center." *Social Education* 50/6 (October 1986): 424-436.

Reviews historical forces leading to today's social, economic, and educational needs and proposes ways to meet these needs. Emphasizes the need for today's students to develop global awareness and understanding; engage in active, contextualized learning and development of higher-order mental activities; and have equal access to knowledge and tools for dealing with the complexities of the contemporary world.

Hardin, J. P., and Johnson, G. *Teachers Speak Out on Law-Related Education. Summary Report on the SPICE IV National Teachers' Survey*. Winston-Salem, NC: Center for Research and Development in Law-Related Education, 1991 (ED 371 967).

Reports results of a survey of 1,284 teachers of grades K-12 regarding the kinds of support they need for teaching law-related and citizenship education. Also reports positive effects of law-related/citizenship education on student achievement, attitudes, behavior, class participation levels, and critical thinking skills.

Harwood, A. M. "Classroom Climate and Civic Education in Secondary Social Studies Research: Antecedents and Findings." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 20/1 (Winter 1992): 47-86.

Reviews research from the 1960s forward that investigated the relationships between climate measures in social studies classrooms and student attitudes toward the political process. In general, "open" classroom environments featuring student participation and free expression have a positive effect on student attitudes toward politics. Some—but less—evidence indicates that open classroom climates also positively impact political knowledge and political participation.

Harwood, A. M. *The Effects of Close Up Participation on High School Students' Political Attitudes*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA, April 1990 (ED 320 846).

Compares the attitudes of Georgia secondary students who participated in a week-long, intensive, on-site, experiential citizenship education program in Washington, DC, with those of similar students who participated in a citizenship education program at their home schools. Experiential program students exhibited more positive change from pre- to post-test in both political attitudes and political participation than did control students.

Harwood, A. M., and Hahn, C. L. *Controversial Issues in the Classroom*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, September 1990 (ED 327 453).

Proceeds from the assumption that "the essence of healthy democracy is open dialogue about issues of public concern," and identifies research findings about effective approaches for holding classroom discussions on controversial issues.

Hastings, W. L. "Political Socialization Themes in the Post-Watergate Era." *Social Education* 50/6 (October 1986): 453-457.

Compares the survey responses of three populations toward democracy and government "to discover whether... democratic values have changed since 1968." Students who were in grade 12 in 1968, 1972, and 1984 completed the same attitude instrument. Results showed increased cynicism over time in all subject areas investigated—the social role of government, law and legal procedures, minority rights, and political participation. The author credits this trend to events such as Watergate and the deficit increase of the Reagan years, which he feels have eroded the confidence of young adults.

Hepburn, M. A. *Democratic Schooling and Citizenship Education: What Does the Research Reveal?* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Social Science Education Consortium, East Lansing, MI, June 1982 (ED 014 109).

Examines four major research studies comparing democratically operated classrooms and schools with more autocratic or anarchistic ones. Democratic settings were characterized by encouragement of student self-expression and self-monitoring; opportunities for students to influence activities; fairness in disciplinary and reward structures; and cooperative efforts by administrators, teachers, and students. By comparison with other kinds of settings, the more democratically operated schools and classrooms exhibited less violence, fewer crimes, better student attitudes and self-control, more student time on task, and more positive student political attitudes.

Hoge, J. D. *Civic Education in Schools*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: ERIC

Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, December 1988 (ED 301 531).

Defines and describes civic education as it is currently conducted in the U.S.; discusses the inadequacy of most civic education for preparing knowledgeable and participating citizens; and cites research findings on effective practices which, if more widely used, could improve the quality of civic education.

Hyland, J. T. *Teaching About the Constitution: Relationships between Teachers' Subject Matter Knowledge, Pedagogic Beliefs and Instructional Decision Making Regarding Selection of Content, Materials, and Activities: Summary of Research Findings*. Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles Unified School District, 1985 (ED 273 557).

Reports results of an observational study of junior high school teachers as they taught eighth graders about the U.S. Constitution. Researchers found the teachers' knowledge about the Constitution very limited, their beliefs about teaching repressive, their attitudes toward students demeaning, and their instructional methods inadequate for giving students anything beyond the most superficial knowledge about "the supreme law of our land."

Kickbusch, K. W. "Civic Education and Preservice Educators: Extending the Boundaries of Discourse." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 25/3 (Summer 1987): 173-188.

Reports on a study in which seven student teachers in social studies classrooms were observed and interviewed to learn about their teaching goals and strategies. Subjects had a narrow range of pedagogical skills and kept to the "centrist" position on civic education, an approach characterized by passive learning and recitation of facts. The authors call for teacher preparation programs to educate aspiring teachers in a broader range of civics content and a wider array of teaching skills.

Leppard, L. J. "Discovering a Democratic Tradition and Educating for Public Politics." *Social Education* 57/1 (January 1993): 23-26.

Argues that meaningful participation in politics requires active involvement in study, deliberation, and interaction with others—not merely being fed information and invited to choose between prepackaged options. Indicates that the social studies approach called National Issues Forums in the Classroom provides a structure for meaningful involvement by helping students to learn about issues and discuss their meaning, importance, and potential solutions and to achieve consensus with others.

Levitt, G. A., and Longstreet, W. S. "Controversy and the Teaching of Authentic Civic Values." *The Social Studies* 84/4 (July/August 1993): 142-148.

Argues that discussion of controversial matters in classrooms is essential to

developing authentic civic values in students. Since this is itself a controversial matter, the authors offer recommendations for preservice teacher education and guidelines to help teachers pursue more candid classroom discussions without alienating their communities or jeopardizing their jobs. Includes two model lesson outlines and a listing of resource agencies.

Mabe, A. R. "Moral and Practical Foundations for Civic Education." *The Social Studies* 84/4 (July/August 1993): 153-157.

Argues that civic education must include moral education of a secular kind in order to develop the kinds of citizens we want. The author regards theories of social justice, the practice of democratic principles in schools and classrooms, and community-based experiences as essential components of a civic/moral education program.

Morse, S. W. "The Practice of Citizenship: Learn by Doing." *The Social Studies* 84/4 (July/August 1993): 164-167.

Identifies the kinds of school- and community-based activities students can pursue in order to gain practice in the knowledge and skills of citizenship. Recommends democratically run classrooms and community service participation as means by which students can build and practice citizenship skills.

Mullins, S. L. *Social Studies for the 21st Century: Recommendations of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, November 1990 (ED 329 484).

Summarizes the recommendations made by the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools for curriculum content and teaching strategies to be used with each age group, K-12. Key recommendations include that students should develop citizenship skills as well as knowledge via active learning approaches in reading, writing, observing, debating, role play, simulations, use of statistics, decision making, and problem solving.

Naylor, D. T. "Educating for Citizenship: LRE and the Social Studies." *Update on Law-Related Education* 14/2 (Spring 1990): 33-36, 56.

Asserts that law-related education (LRE) needs to be thoroughly integrated into social studies programs at the elementary and secondary levels, rather than being relegated to a "special event" or high school elective course. Identifies suitable points in the typical social studies curriculum for inclusion of LRE activities.

Newmann, F. M. *Citizenship Education in the United States: A Statement of Needs*. Paper

presented at the National Conference on Civic Renewal, Boston, MA, November 1987 (ED 307 203).

Identifies reasons for the failure of reform efforts in citizenship education, despite widespread agreement that reform is needed. Specifies issues that reformers should address and calls for teacher involvement in reform efforts. Insists on instruction that includes direct student experience with citizenship functions and issues.

Newmann, F. M. "Reflective Civic Participation." *Social Education* 53/6 (October 1989): 357-360, 366.

Argues that programs designed to foster civic participation in students must also include opportunities for them to reflect about participation. Describes the kinds of issues that emerge when people engage in community participation and suggests ways that educators can help students to deal with these issues.

Ochoa, A. *Informed and Reasoning Citizens: An Interdisciplinary Matter*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC, April 1991 (ED 338 519).

Argues that the preparation of informed and thoughtful citizens requires two qualities not commonly present in school social studies programs: (1) true integration of history, political science, geography, and other disciplines and (2) instructional approaches that build students' skills in raising questions, gathering and evaluating evidence, identifying assumptions, challenging arguments, defending positions, and so on, rather than passively receiving lectures. Barriers to the implementation of such changes are identified.

Parker, W. C. "Assessing Citizenship." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 17-22.

Discusses the need for sound planning for citizenship education within the social studies curriculum. Identifies guidelines for developing effective citizenship education and assessments and cites specific examples of units for different grade levels that can help schools meet their learning goals for students.

Parker, W. C. "Participatory Citizenship: Civics in the Strong Sense." *Social Education* 53/6 (October 1989): 353-354.

Identifies and describes the components of a strong civics program, including relevant knowledge, an environment that encourages students to think and act on behalf of the public good, and participation through sustained dialogue about issues of public importance. Also identifies obstacles to implementing these elements.

Parker, W. C. "Why Ethics in Citizenship Education?" *Social Studies and the Young Learner* 1/1 (September/October 1988): 3-5.

Asserts that citizenship education should consciously and deliberately include instruction and practice in ethics and values. Three reasons are offered and argued: that it is impossible not to transmit values in education; that the effective functioning of a democracy demands ethically grounded citizens; and that our social, relational lives are healthier and happier when guided by ethical principles such as caring and compassion.

Parker, W. C.; Mueller, M.; and Wendling, L. "Critical Reasoning on Civic Issues." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 27/1 (Winter 1989): 7-32.

Reports results of a study of the critical reasoning skills of 24 senior high school students as expressed in four-paragraph essays they were asked to develop following a specific format. Their simplistic arguments and poorly constructed counter-arguments indicated a need for instruction in dialectical reasoning on civic issues. See Parker, Wendling, and Mueller (1988) below.

Parker, W. C.; Wendling, L.; and Mueller, M. *Critical Thinking and Curriculum Design in the Civic Domain*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA, April 1988 (ED 295 992).

Discusses the effect on thinking critically and expressing ideas produced by student participation in a one-month residential citizen leadership institute during the summer preceding their senior year. Intensive analysis, discussion and writing about civic problems from the local to the global level led to dramatic improvements in students' ability to prepare a cogent essay exhibiting complex dialectical reasoning. Implications for curriculum design are drawn. See previous entry.

Patrick, J. J. *Education on the U.S. Constitution*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, May 1987 (ED 285 801).

Provides a digest of information on the way the U.S. Constitution is taught in the public schools, citizens' levels of knowledge about the Constitution, problems of insufficient knowledge and understanding, and recommendations for improvements in teaching about the Constitution.

Patrick, J. J. *Teaching the Bill of Rights*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, October 1988 (ED 298 076).

Summarizes research on the manner in which the Bill of Rights is taught in schools, the deficiencies in students' and adults' knowledge concerning the Bill of Rights and issues to which it pertains, and approaches to teaching that could be expected to improve students' knowledge and understanding of this important document.

Patrick, J. J. *Teaching the Responsibilities of Citizenship*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, April 1991 (ED 332 929).

Summarizes literature on the importance of learning citizenship responsibilities, the deficiencies in students' learning in this area, and actions the home and the school can take to improve students' preparation for assuming the responsibilities of citizenship.

Pereira, C. *Law-Related Education in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1988 (ED 296 948).

Defines law-related education (LRE), describes its role in the social studies curriculum, cites research findings on effective LRE practices, and recommends staff development practices to equip teachers to operate successful LRE programs.

Pratte, R. "Civic Education in a Democracy." *Theory Into Practice* 27/4 (Fall 1988): 303-312.

Describes problems with civic education as it is usually practiced in the schools and suggests an alternative approach. Contends that teachers should focus on the moral significance of all school subject matter as they teach so that students will acquire both the disposition and the habit of acting for the public good.

Rowe, J. W. "To Develop Thinking Citizens." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 43-44.

Describes elementary school social studies students' use of a simulated town meeting to address actual issues faced by their community. Review and discussion of issues called for development of content knowledge plus skills in critical thinking, decision making, problem solving, research, communication and cooperation.

Rudner, L. M. *Assessing Civics Education*. ERIC Digest. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation, May 1991 (ED 338 698).

Provides general guidelines for those who will be assessing the civics learning of elementary and secondary students. Also identifies a variety of techniques that can produce more meaningful and accurate data than multiple-choice or true-false tests, including group projects, interviews, essay questions, informal observation, formal observation, and individual student projects.

Rutter, R. A., and Newmann, F. M. "The Potential of Community Service to Enhance Civic Responsibility." *Social Education* 53/6 (October 1989): 371-374.

Discusses findings from a study of the nature and outcomes of community service programs. Since participants exhibited growth in personal development but not on several measures of civic responsibility, the researchers recommend that community service programs be specifically designed to foster civic responsibility in participants.

Sinatra, G. M.; Beck, I. L.; and McKeown, M. G. "A Longitudinal Characterization of Young Students' Knowledge of Their Country's Government." *American Educational Research Journal* 29/3 (Fall 1992): 633-661.

Examines the effect of fifth and eighth grade social studies instruction on students' understanding of the U.S. government, particularly the notion of citizen representation. Students were interviewed on four occasions over a three-year period, giving responses that were characterized by sameness rather than growth and focused on the structure of government rather than its historical or philosophical underpinnings.

Stanton, G. E. "The Civic Education Background of Future Teachers." *Social Studies Review* 26/3 (Spring 1987): 36-46.

Presents findings from a study of the civic education knowledge of 425 college students in teacher preparation programs in California. Findings indicate that most teachers-in-training, particularly those preparing to become elementary teachers, had a very limited grasp of civic education concepts. Recommendations are offered for improving the preparation of preservice teachers.

Thomas, G. R. "Commitment and Action: New Directions in Citizenship Education Research." *History and Social Science Teacher* 19/4 (May 1984): 238-239.

Reviews literature on the relationship between student participation in social studies classes and commitment to civic activism. Concludes that most students are passive learners in the classroom and passive citizens outside of school. Suggests approaches to teaching social studies which can help students become questioning, critical learners and active citizens.

Titus, C. *Civic Education for Global Understanding*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, April 1994 (ED 370 882).

Draws from the work of contemporary social studies and social science program developers to identify the civic education content these experts recommend. Calls for a shift to curricula that emphasize both U.S. history and government and acquaint students with the contemporary international context. Identifies proposed curriculum and instructional changes and barriers faced by those who support changes.

Torney-Purta, J. "Psychological Perspectives on Enhancing Civic Education Through the Education of Teachers." *Journal of Teacher Education* 34/6 (November/December 1983): 30-34.

Reviews research on relationships between classroom climate and students' grasp of and interest in citizenship in a democracy. Makes research-based recommendations for teacher education activities that enhance teachers' abilities to foster civic concern and participation in their students.

Tucker, J. L. *Citizenship Education through the Eyes of Elementary School Principals*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Social Science Education Consortium, Palo Alto, CA, June 1986 (ED 275 574).

Investigates the priorities placed by elementary principals in Florida on four dimensions of citizenship education—moral and ethical, interpersonal understandings, enculturation, and citizenship participation. Principals assigned a low priority to enculturation and citizenship participation and seemed largely unaware that citizenship education is a major focus of the social studies curriculum.

Tucker, J. L. *Global Change and American Citizenship Education: The Vital Role of History*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Social Science Education Consortium, Evanston, IL, June 1990 (ED 337 404).

Argues that citizenship education should be linked with international education to familiarize students with the global context in which the actions of the U.S. take place. Claims that history instruction, too, should include the international events and influences so often lacking from discussions of America's history. Identifies reasons that awareness of global contexts is becoming more important than ever before, and quotes many individuals and associations who are calling for increased international focus.

VanSledright, B. A., and Grant, S. F. "Citizenship Education and the Persistent Nature of Classroom Teaching Dilemmas." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 22/3 (Summer 1994): 305-339.

Examines the citizenship education beliefs and teaching behaviors of three elementary teachers in relation to Cornbleth's description of citizenship education as "illusory," "technical" or "constructive." Concludes that the active, self-directed, democratic approach termed "constructive" is difficult to achieve in classrooms, because democratic functioning is at odds with school goals and because curricular content is determined by administrators, school boards, and others outside the classroom.

Wade, R. C., and Everett, S. "Civic Participation in Third Grade Social Studies Textbooks." *Social Education* 55/8 (September 1994): 308-311.

Discusses findings from a review of four texts for third graders to (1) identify the kinds of civic participation mentioned, (2) compare them with portrayals in texts from the 1960s and 1970s, and (3) determine whether civic participation options for children were presented. In general, the contemporary texts presented a more active, involved portrayal of citizenship than the older texts, and children in community service activities were portrayed.

Weinstein, M. *Critical Thinking and Education for Democracy*. Resource Publication Series 4, No. 2. Upper Montclair, NJ: Montclair State College; New Jersey Institute for Critical Thinking, 1991 (ED 363 573).

Argues that instruction and practice in critical thinking is excellent preparation for students as they take on the responsibilities of citizenship. Theories of critical thinking experts are invoked to illustrate the suitability of critical thinking models for developing the capacity for "rational deliberation" that is needed for capable citizenship.

Wood, G. H. "The Hope for Civic Education." *Theory Into Practice* 27/4 (Fall 1988): 296-302.

Refutes the widely held notions that the main purpose of public education is to prepare young people for the workforce and that business and industrial problems are largely the fault of the schools. Argues that education's major purpose is to prepare citizens to participate actively in a democracy. Briefly describes projects that give both teachers and students practice in participatory citizenship.

Wood, G. H. "Teaching for Democracy." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 32-37.

Describes commonalities among several urban, suburban, and rural schools around the U. S. that give students a sense of community and direct experience as participating citizens. Elements include (1) small home groups or "advisories" where students can share with an adult advisor and other students, and receive academic and personal support, (2) student groups that stay with the same teacher for more than one year, (3) multiage grouping, (4) cooperative learning, (5) hands-on lessons for active learning, (6) learning activities that are relevant to students' lives, and (7) contributions to the larger community through service projects.

General References

Adler, S. A.; Luhn, C. A.; and Philbin, J. "Participatory Citizenship: Made and Remade for Each Generation." *International Journal of Social Education* 8/1 (Spring 1993): 67-74.

Provides a critique of the treatment of citizenship education in America 2000, arguing that references to citizenship education are without substance and pointing out that social studies as a discipline is not even mentioned. The authors also claim that traditional testing practices do not assess the kinds of higher-level reasoning good social studies instruction seeks to impart.

Avery, P.; Hoffman, D.; Sullivan, J.; Bird, K.; Johnstone, S.; Thalhammer, K.; Fried, A.; and Theiss-Morse, B. *Tolerance for Diversity of Beliefs: A Secondary Curriculum Unit*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1993 (ED 365 595).

Responds to the lack of in-depth examination of key constitutional issues in current curricula by offering a six-week, eight-lesson curriculum focusing on tolerance and intolerance as political concepts and as historical phenomena. The curriculum is based on the authors' conviction that "tolerance for diverse beliefs is critical to a democracy...and an important area of inquiry within citizenship education," but no particular "right answers" are advocated. Learning activities include case studies, role playing, simulations, mock interviews, and journal keeping.

Barth, J. L. "America 2000 Goal 3: A Reactionary Reform of Citizenship Education." *International Journal of Social Education* 8/1 (Spring 1993): 59-66.

Offers a critique of the narrow conception of citizenship education presented in Goal 3, claiming that political rather than educational considerations have driven the goal development process. Argues for a return to a broader conception of social studies and citizenship education and encourages social studies teachers to join him in working toward this change.

Brandhorst, A. R. "Teaching Twenty-First Century Citizenship: Social Psychological Foundations." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 18/2 (Spring 1990): 157-168.

Claims that America's "economic model of human decision making," which holds that what is good for the individual is good for the group, has led to serious, worldwide social dilemmas and needs to be replaced by a "justice-based model" that focuses on the well-being of the group. Likewise claims that the American focus on "primary control" (control of others and the physical world) needs to be tempered with "secondary control" (control of self). Indicates that social studies curricula should be changed so as to encourage self-restraint and concern for group welfare.

Callan, E. "Beyond Sentimental Civic Education." *The American Journal of Education* 102 (February 1994): 190-221.

Describes two extreme points of view toward politics and government—a blind, uncritical patriotism that the author views as "sentimental," and a hypercritical outlook that leads to cynicism and apathy. Offers a third position—a conception of political virtue that allows for both critical

thinking and patriotic feeling.

Congress of the United States. *Goals 2000: Educate America Act*. HR 1804. Washington, DC: Congress of the United States, January 25, 1994.

Identifies and describes national goals in eight areas to be achieved by the year 2000, as ratified by Congress in 1994. The areas addressed include school readiness; school completion; student achievement and citizenship; teacher education and professional development; mathematics and science; adult literacy and lifelong learning; safe, disciplined, and alcohol- and drug-free schools; and parental participation.

Craig, E. "Want to Teach Social Responsibility? Start With Political Philosophy." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 87-88.

Describes the We the People...program developed by the Center for Civic Education in Calabasas, California. Offering activities for both elementary and secondary levels, the program engages students in examining concepts such as "civic virtue" and "common welfare" by linking them with students' own life experiences. Participation in activities such as simulated congressional hearings gives students firsthand experience with the workings of government.

Dynneson, T. L. "What Does Good Citizenship Mean to Students?" *Social Education* 56/1 (January 1992): 55-58.

Reports results from two studies undertaken to determine what qualities high school seniors believe to comprise good citizenship. From surveys completed by more than 700 subjects, researchers identified and rank ordered ten characteristics. Among the findings— "ability to make wise decisions" and "concern for welfare of others" were the highest-ranked citizenship attributes.

Finkelstein, B. "Rescuing Civic Learning: Some Prescriptions for the 1990s." *Theory Into Practice* 27/4 (Fall 1988): 250-255.

Describes the approaches taken by different reformers to improve civic education. Uses similarities noted across the work of these reformers as the basis for a vision of civic education that incorporates the intellectual and moral elements the author believes have been lost.

Golden, K. "The Relationship Between Voting Knowledge and Voting Attitudes of Selected Ninth and Tenth Grade Students." *Social Studies Journal* 14 (Spring 1985): 10-15.

Discusses a study conducted by the author, a high school social studies teacher, to determine whether improvements in student knowledge about

voting would increase their sense of the importance of voting. The author concludes that attitudes improved, but, unfortunately, she gives little information about the treatment, instruments, or other features of the study.

Goodman, J. "Education for Critical Democracy." *Journal of Education* 171/2 (1989): 88-116.

Draws upon the work of John Dewey to argue for a "connectionist" view of democracy. Whereas democracy is generally taught primarily as a form of government, Goodman claims that education should teach democracy as a mode of living with one's fellows. Argues that there is too much focus on individualism in schools and in society and that the teaching of democracy should therefore focus primarily on community and the public good.

Hodgkinson, H. *The Context of 21st-Century Civics and Citizenship*. Paper presented at the National Conference on the Future of Civic Education, Washington, DC, October 1988 (ED 310 984).

Projects U.S. demographic trends to provide a profile of the future U.S. population, with special focus on the school population for whom educators must begin planning. Shortly after the year 2000, (1) nearly half of all students will be ethnic minorities; (2) the school population will be characterized by poverty, cultural and language diversity, and physical and emotional handicaps; and (3) education is likely to compete with society's growing population of senior citizens for resources. The author calls for serving all children, saying "we need them all to do well."

Houston, J. E. (ed.). *Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors*. 12th Edition. Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press, 1990.

Lays out the indexing system of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), including "scope notes"—definitions of educational terms based on the way these terms are used across thousands of educational documents.

Miller, J. D. *Effective Participation: A Standard for Social Science Education*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Social Science Education Consortium, Racine, WI, June 1985 (ED 265 083).

Investigates the relationship between taking secondary social studies courses and levels of political participation following high school. Data from two large-scale studies were used. Neither numbers nor kinds of social studies classes correlated with later political participation. What were found to correlate positively with postsecondary political participation were (1) involvement in a strong academic program and (2) involvement in extracurricular activities—two variables also positively related to high-SES. Thus, social studies coursework by lower and middle SES did not interrupt

"the upper SES domination of the political process."

Parker, W. C. "Curriculum for Democracy." In *Democracy, Education, and the Schools*, edited by R. Soder. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1996, 182-210.

Discusses the inadequacy of the public school civics curriculum to educate knowledgeable, practicing democrats. Recommends an approach to curriculum development that observes the key principles of "teaching the aim," knowledge-in-use (or situated knowledge), face-to-face discussion, reflective citizen action, diverse perspectives, democratic values, and multiple associations with other in which issues of living and working in groups are addressed. Notes that "Problems of Democracy" curricula have already incorporated some of these principles and can be built upon by contemporary curriculum developers.

Pereira, C. *Educating ESL Students for Citizenship in a Democratic Society*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, November 1993 (ED 337 138).

Draws from a variety of ESL and social studies sources to develop recommendations for programs to build the citizenship knowledge and skills of immigrant students. Major recommendations include professional development activities for both ESL and social studies teachers working with non-native speakers and the use of cooperative learning strategies for building both language and citizenship skills.

Pereira, C. "Educating for Citizenship in the Elementary Grades." *Phi Delta Kappan* 69/6 (February 1988): 429-431.

Describes the Educating for Citizenship program, which involves students in grades K-4 in hands-on activities designed to develop an understanding of rights, responsibilities, and approaches to governance in a democracy. Featuring class discussion, brainstorming, role play, elections, divergent questions, decision making and problem solving, the program has been highly successful in building citizenship skills in the more than 50 Maryland schools that use it.

Pereira, C. Personal communication. November 1995.

Argues, in her response to a review draft of this paper, that examples of acting on behalf of the common good should be provided, e.g., volunteerism, voting, serving on juries, and petitioning the government as an avenue to change.

Pereira, C.; Dolenga, J.; and Rolzinski, C. A. "Teaching Citizenship Through Community Service." *Social Studies and the Young Learner* 3/2 (November/December 1990): 1-4.

Explains the ways in which community service experiences build citizenship awareness and skills in students, identifies and describes suitable places in the school curriculum for community service projects, and cites the attributes of a quality community service program.

Petrini, G. C., and Fleming, D. B. "A History of Social Studies Skills." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 18/3 (Summer 1990): 233-247.

Traces the history of social studies education in the U.S. to identify what were considered to be social studies skills during different periods in the past. Citizenship, inquiry, study, and thinking skills appear in various combinations at different time periods. No definitive, agreed-upon list of social studies skills has ever emerged.

Ross, D. D., and Bondy, E. "Classroom Management for Responsible Citizenship: Practical Strategies for Teachers." *Social Education* 57/6 (October 1993): 326-328.

Argues that, while the research on effective classroom management techniques is valuable and useful, application of these techniques alone does not help students to become responsible citizens. Offers a series of recommendations that combine classroom management research findings with approaches for fostering responsible citizenship.

Sidelnick, D. J. "Effects of Ability, Grade, and Gender on Three Measures of Citizenship with High School Students." *The Social Studies* 80/3 (May/June 1989): 92-97.

Examines the relationships between characteristics of ninth and twelfth grade survey respondents and the citizenship variables of respect for law, attitude toward others' opinions and beliefs, and freedoms as guaranteed by the Bill of Rights. The most notable finding was that the views of low-ability students were considerably more dogmatic and less democratic than those of other students. The author makes curriculum recommendations based on findings.

Sleeper, M.; Strom, M. S.; and Zabierek, H. C. "Facing History and Ourselves." *Educational Leadership* 48/3 (November 1990): 84-86.

Describes the program, Facing History and Ourselves, in which junior and senior high school students study events surrounding the Holocaust and apply the lessons of those historical events to actual and potential events in their own lives. They learn that "evil and injustice begin with small steps of conforming, accepting, and not thinking about what is happening."

Tworek, R. J. *The Effectiveness of Videotape Recordings in Teaching on the Achievement of Ninth Grade Students in Citizenship Classes*. Atlanta, GA: Georgia State University, 1992 (ED 346 833).

Compares the examination scores of ninth graders who viewed three videotapes as part of a unit on taxes in American history with the scores of students who studied the same material without viewing the videotapes. There was no statistically significant difference between the test scores of the groups.

Warren, D. "Original Intent: Public Schools as Civic Education." *Theory Into Practice* 27/4 (Fall 1988): 243-249.

Traces the history of education in the U.S., focusing on the evolution of attitudes about the role of the school in preparing people to function in citizenship roles. Claims that the ambivalence people express today about the civic role of education has roots in the recurring conflicts that have occurred throughout the nation's history.

Watts, W. D.; Matlock, D. T.; and Short, A. *Patterns of Social Fragmentation and Cohesion: The Social Context of 21st Century Education for Citizenship*. Paper presented at the National Conference on the Future of Civic Education, Washington, DC, October 1988 (ED 307 194).

Calls attention to the economic, demographic, political, and social forces that are shaping the modern world and argues that civic education needs to include awareness of these forces and strategies for dealing with the issues they raise. Calls for civic education that includes global awareness, acceptance and celebration of cultural differences, and activities to "rebuild the lost sense of community."

White, C. S. "Information Technology and Representative Government: Educating an Informed and Participative Citizenry." *Journal of Social Studies Research* 13/1 (Winter 1989): 8-14.

Discusses the potential of technology for helping citizens to become more informed and involved in the democratic process. Identifies which effects on citizen knowledge and participation are truly possible and reasonable to expect and which are unlikely to occur. Recommends activities that are more likely to arouse citizen interest in social and political issues than merely making information technology available on a large scale.

Wolf, A. "The Fate of Teaching Constitutional Principles to Middle School Students." *Social Studies Review* 30/1 (Fall 1990): 15-26.

Presents and documents three issues: that the Constitutional rights of public school students in California (and elsewhere, speculates the author) are frequently ignored; that California students frequently are not taught about the Constitution and Bill of Rights until grades 11 or 12, in violation of state guidelines; and that many California teachers are teaching social studies without a credential in the subject area and/or perform poorly on a 10-item

multiple choice test about Constitutional principles.

Womack, S. T., and King, O. R. *A Case for Citizenship Education in the Early Years*. Durant, OK: Southeastern Oklahoma State University; Huntsville, TX: Sam Houston State University, March 1982 (ED 220 357).

Reports results of a survey of students in grades 5, 8, and 11 regarding their attitudes toward eight societal components related to citizenship: country, state, neighborhood, voluntary membership organizations, religious organizations, school, home, and self. Since attitudes were already established by grade 5, the authors recommend beginning citizenship education early in children's school experience.

Wraga, W. G. "The Interdisciplinary Imperative for Citizenship Education." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 21/3 (Summer 1993): 201-231.

Argues that only well-designed interdisciplinary programming will equip young people with the knowledge and skills necessary to function effectively as citizens. Briefly describes an interdisciplinary program for citizenship education and identifies teacher preparation and other requirements for its implementation.