

Student Preparation For Civic Engagement In Young Adulthood

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## Abstract

This paper examines the impact of citizenship education on the development, engagement, and participation of students as reflected in young adulthood. A brief examination of the history of democracy and character education reveals the purpose and meaning of citizenship education and the role of individuals. A critical review of the literature shows current civic curricula taught in grades preK-12 and the lasting effects on citizenship development into young adulthood. Conclusions from the studies reviewed were consistent with the fact that the best classroom environment to teach and learn citizenship education is in a democratic classroom. Researchers agreed that students are empowered through their own practical experiences in a democratic classroom and therefore they are educated into becoming participatory citizens in society. Suggestions for further research are provided to seek out longitudinal studies of citizenship education and the implications it has on adult citizenship. In addition, more research on democratic classrooms and the implications for citizenship education is also needed.

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## Preface

I am very grateful to my mother and father who continuously supported me with their encouragement and love throughout my schooling. If it were not for their sacrifices I would not have been able to achieve this level of higher education. We did it together!

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### *Introduction*

Society expects adults to act in certain ways. Specifically, society expects adults to be responsible citizens who graduate from high school, vote in political elections, and abide by the laws. Society decides the intelligence, worth, and the role of others based on their behaviors. Since society expects young adults to have this democratic perspective by the age of eighteen then perhaps this implies that they have learned how to be responsible citizens throughout their public school years in education so that by the time they no longer attend high school they have had the sufficient experience to act out their roles as responsible citizens. One of the most important roles of education is to prepare students to become participating citizens in society. However, some would argue that schooling actually teaches youth to become non-questioning, non-participatory, and dependent on authority figures, all of which not characteristics of citizenship (Schimmel, 2007). As a result, there is a lack of involvement in youth and young adults in society for which there must be a turn around in this behavior in order for citizens to live out their best potential.

### *Rationale*

The U.S. average high school graduation rates between 2002-2004 were about 70% (“Mapping out high school graduation,” 2006) and Washington’s graduation goal for the class of 2006 was in the range of 60-70% (“A study finds some states lagging on graduation rates,” 2007). It is apparent by these numbers that graduating from high school is a characteristic of being a responsible citizen and it is highly valued in

American society. The emphasis of earning a high school diploma is evident by the goal setting such as the graduation rate.

Furthermore, despite the victory of the ratification of the 26<sup>th</sup> Amendment of the United States Constitution in 1971 which lowered the voting age from twenty one to eighteen (McDonald & Poplin, 2001), the eighteen to thirty age range currently has the lowest turnout rates at the polls. It is a wonder why there was such a push to lower the voting age to eighteen and yet this same group belongs to the age range which has the lowest rates of participation at the polls. As Cook and Westheimer (2006) noted “in the 1996 presidential election only 32% of eligible voters between the ages of 18-24 voted and eight years later despite the age of voters, overall in the 2004 presidential elections only “60.7% of eligible U.S. voters participated” (Cook & Westheimer, 2006, p.347). Bennett (1997) related this to the lack of political education that students engage in. He noted that the majority of young Americans lack the knowledge and interest to prompt them to become active citizens who are attentive to public policy, participate in political discussions, and exercise their right as citizens. This suggested that it takes more than lowering the voting age to interest young adults in voting; rather students must begin to learn about democracy at an early age so that over time their attitudes about civic involvement develop into becoming active participants. Bennett suggested that through debates on topics of self-interest, student’s attitudes will lean towards political involvement and they will develop into young adults who partake in a democracy as citizens of this country. Furthermore, Macedo (2004) acknowledged that young adults aged 18-21 are less politically involved than generations before them and suggested that civic involvement will increase if there is an emphasis of civic education throughout

student's schooling as they become young adults. Some teaching strategies that will foster engagement in citizenship are current event discussions, student participation in classroom management, and democratic activities such as committees and school government. One of the most common assignments in high schools is community service projects. This is a practical way to get students involved in their community however; Macedo remarked that community service projects are seldom integrated with the rest of the curriculum such as social studies and therefore misses the point of an opportunity for civic education. Macedo argued for the continual efforts of promoting civic education in public schools in order to foster active democratic young adults.

Although it is a common belief among educators that schooling ought to prepare students for their role in the participation in a democratic society, different educators and institutions have different visions of how this should be taught in the classroom. For example John Dewey (1916/1997) noted that "every social institution is educative" (p.12) however, Levine (2007) elaborated that "not every educative institution is democratic" (p. 43). Moreover, Cook and Westheimer (2006) suggested three different ways of teaching democracy in the classroom. One approach of teaching democracy in the classroom is through compartmentalized lessons on American history, American government, and democratic institutions of America. All of which are taught in middle school and high school social studies classrooms and history classrooms (Cook & Westheimer). The second approach that Cook and Westheimer gave is that democracy is taught through the teacher's optimism that students will participate outside of school in community projects that are related to academic lessons from the classroom. The third method of teaching democracy in the classroom that Cook and Westheimer suggested is

by the restructuring of the traditional schools and classrooms themselves, which at this point still have a lot to undergo. This paper will focus on the latter. Whichever method is used in an attempt to teach democracy, the experiences that the students participate in will determine the quality of learning that they receive.

### *Defining Terms*

It is crucial to define and clarify terms used in this paper. The terms authentic experience and experiential learning are used interchangeably throughout the paper, which are derived from educational theorists such as Dewey (1916/1997), Piaget, and Kolb (1984) who claimed that learning stems from the direct experiences of the student. Children learn through their own experiences with their environment and schools and classrooms both have an influence in how this environment is shaped. Kolb expressed his learning theory as going through four phases: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Therefore, one should not ignore the fact that experience is crucial to the growth of learning and instead apply it to the classroom and the development of democratic citizens. Furthermore, Schimmel (2003) quoted Justice John Paul Stevens as saying in 1985 “The school room is the first opportunity most citizens have to experience the power of government...the values they learn there, they take with them in life” (p.16). Therefore, there are notable differences between teaching democracy to students and having students take an active role in learning democracy through experience.

Active student role is defined as the opposite of a passive student role. Students need to be given an increased opportunity to practice what they learn through authentic situations that will improve their ability to play out their role of active citizens in a

democratic society. As students become familiar with their roles of active citizens, they will experience a sense of responsibility that goes along with the role and they will then be able to take on what is expected of them as adults by society. (Effrat & Schimmel, 2003). Effrat and Schimmel explained that passively learning the content of democracy through lectures and assigned readings is not enough. Instead, schools need to make opportunities available for students to develop active understandings of democracy. Once students experience what they learn, Cook and Westheimer (2006) claimed that their education on democracy will become meaningful and uphold significance. Currently, schools teach about democracy in U.S. government classes and social studies but rarely do they integrate it in the overall curriculum as an interdisciplinary subject.

The role as an active citizen is unlike that of an active student in that a student is learning their role and an active citizen is displaying the character they have learned to become as a result of being an being an active student. Consequently it is important to define active citizen. Hall, Coffey, and Williamson (1999) defined citizenship as the active participation of competent and responsible adults to exercise their rights and duties for the good of their community and the larger society in which they consider themselves a member of. This definition of citizenship has more weight to it than the automatic citizenship rights young adults are entitled to with the turn in age. Hall et al. argued that as young adults are forming their adult identities they lack the education to make the most out of their status as adult citizens.

Shared-responsibility is defined as an interaction between the teacher and students (Effrat & Schimmel, 2003). It depends on the collaboration between the teacher and students as well as the students with each other (Cook & Westheimer, 2006). Shared-

responsibility and collaboration create a classroom community in which students sense their role as participating students. Furthermore, teachers must cooperate in shared-responsibility with their students and seek after their input into classroom affairs so that they participate in the construction of their classroom structure and environment. When students are inquired about their input and it is carried out, students gain a sense of empowerment.

Empowerment is defined as having ownership of knowledge which transfers to the actions of the individual (Cornelius & Herrenkohl, 2004). Therefore, students who have a sense of empowerment will display their citizenship skills that are “relevant to participating in a democratic society” (Effrant & Schimmel, 2003, p. 5).

#### *Statement of Purpose*

This paper will critically examine the research literature concerning citizenship formation among students in a democratic classroom setting. Therefore, this paper examines the relationship between pedagogical practices and the learning goals set by the teacher that will lead to the formation of citizenship identity in students.

#### *Summary*

Society expects young people to participate politically in society and contribute to social change; therefore, they should be actively forming their adult identities through authentic experiences that lead students to actively participate and become empowered. In this manner, as they move through the transition from adolescence to young adulthood they have an understanding of the significance of their role as citizens and they are skilled at meeting the expectations.

## CHAPTER TWO: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

### *Introduction*

The concept of a democratic American government has multiple influences and origins. Brown (2004) asserted that the concept of a democratic government derived from ancient Greece around the late 500 B.C. The word democracy derived from the Greek language, demos meaning “the people” and kratia meaning “rule,” so demokratia translates into “rule of the people” which is democracy. Dating back to these times citizens of Athens made up the Assembly which voted on bills and the elected council reviewed bills and also served to balance the power of the Assembly (Brown, 2004). The idea that the European settlers brought this value with them is definitely of importance when considering the origins of the democratic American government however; Sahr (1997) further described some of the forms of government that existed in America before the settlement by Europeans that could have influenced the formation of the government.

### *1000-1215 AD*

The League of the Iroquois was composed of five Native American tribes that date back between 1000 and 1500 AD. The Iroquois Nation had an existing government at the time of settlement that resembled a democratic government. Some of the noted characteristics include non-interrupted debates, discussions, equal status of new government officials as those in position for a longer time, and leaders being held accountable by citizens with the possibility of impeachment. Sahr (1997) claimed the Iroquois Nation was the first sophisticated democratic government in America.

Miles across the ocean in 1215 AD King John of England forcefully signed the Magna Carta. Frohnen (1998) explained that the significance of the Magna Carta was to

limit the control of the government. Consequently monarchs found themselves obligated to respect the fundamental rights established for the people. With these new rights the people gained limited voice in the government such as the principle of no taxation without representation (Frohnen). Furthermore, as Sharp (2006) argued the influence of the Magna Carta had an everlasting influence on the government of the United States for it symbolized fundamental principles of democracy and human rights. For example, the Magna Carta was instrumental to the formulation of important US documents such as the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

#### *Common School era - 1957*

With the passing of six hundred years, the common school era surfaced. Meyer (1990) explained how public schooling began to establish a common set of values among its pupils. These universal values which once mirrored character education from the Bible, molded young adults into young citizens who after six years of formal education possessed character values that can be similar to those taught through a civics course today. Religious education was replaced due to the increase of a pluralistic society.

Throughout the late 1700's and the early 1800's Thomas Jefferson was an avid promoter of citizenship education. As Carpenter (2004) explained, Jefferson strongly believed that citizens must know their rights and liberties under the U.S. Constitution in order to use them as protection in the event of an intrusion by the government. Jefferson believed that a responsible citizen was one who advocated defending the liberties of their own life as well as their family's, their community's and their country's. Likewise, Jefferson found citizenship education invaluable. He believed that essential to the development of the future, history and citizenship education were fundamental. In

relation to public schools, history and civic education is currently taught under the social studies curriculum that was organized in the twentieth century. Jefferson's vision of the social studies curriculum is one that is participatory. It is one in which students learn critical thinking skills as well as communication skills that are necessary in order to effectively defend and enforce their rights. Jefferson saw the teacher's role as one of a facilitator to the student as they actively form their knowledge through experiences. Overall, Carpenter emphasized that Jefferson's mission was to encourage students to mature into participatory citizens.

In the early 1900's the industrial education movement was addressed as a consequence of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 (Ravitch & Viteritti, 2001). At this point in time democracy was seen through a different lens. To be democratic back then meant to fill your role in society as needed and to be productive in your role. The goal was to categorize everybody in a destined track in education or in the workforce to serve their purpose and make their contribution to society. If a student was not seen as intelligent enough, no efforts nor money were invested in a higher education for them, they were destined to be industrious (Ravitch & Viteritti). However, Dewey (1916/1997) was opposed to this view of education. Dewey claimed that society could not be equated to the economy in this way because the economy is unpredictable, it can change course. Therefore, to track students into the industry field was not efficient because these citizens would have a very limited education background to fall back on if at any case the industry they belonged to was no longer necessary, such as if technology replaced it (Ravitch & Viteritti). Instead, a liberal education was what others sought after. Ravitch and Viteritti proposed that "a liberal education is one that gives young people

the skills, knowledge, habits, ideals, and values to continue to educate themselves for the rest of their lives” (p. 26).

Accordingly, Spring (2005) maintained that a sense of unity among students needed to be created which then led to the organization of extracurricular activities that involved the participation of students in common activities. From this came about the many activities that are now in place such as social activities including athletics, assemblies, school newspapers, and school government. Student government was seen as an exercise for students to apply their civic knowledge in the participation of a democracy. However, the student participants in student government had to work under the close supervision of school staff, as is the case in many current systems, so as not to lead the school into failure. The school newspaper had a second outcome besides it being an activity to unify students, it also served as a means for students to practice cooperative work in order to publish a paper. Once a school newspaper was published by the student body, a sense of unity carried over into the entire school population by informing them on the latest school events and other related news. This in effect created a form of school patriotism and increased the interests of students in their school community. However, the activities that most promoted the sense of school community were assemblies. These were considered the most effective form of unifying the entire school’s student body because it did so across grade levels across courses of study and across ability groups (Spring).

In the 1950's-1960's there was a national response in education to the launching of Sputnik by the Soviet Union in 1957. The emphasis on math and science increased as the United States felt the need to educate its students in these subjects in order to compete

worldwide. As a result, the importance of citizenship education diminished and the math and sciences took over (Battistoni, 1997).

### *Summary*

Dating as far back as 500 B.C. the concept of democracy has been prevalent in society all around the world. To the Greek a democratic government meant the rule of the people. Even before the European settlers arrived in America, the Iroquois Nation (1000 – 1500 AD) was governed by a government that resembled democracy. Furthermore, in the late 1700's and early 1800's Jefferson advocated for citizenship education in order for citizens to defend and enforce their rights as well as for the future of America's democracy. Although the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 brought industrial education to the forefront, theorists such as Dewey opposed this type of education claiming that citizens ought to have a meaningful education pertaining to their lives instead of an education that to serve the sole purpose of industry. Furthermore, more recent educational reforms include a structure in education that provide a space for students to further their citizenship education such as through extra-curricular activities, school government, and other activities such as school wide assemblies and the school newspaper. Despite the Sputnik era that changed the direction of education to have a greater focus on mathematics and science citizenship education prevails in schooling. The debate that now stands is through what approach to teach citizenship education. Chapter Three will provide a critical review of the literature on citizenship education and the implications for classroom approaches.

## CHAPTER THREE: CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### *Introduction*

Citizenship education is taught and learned in different styles. This chapter examines approaches, curricula, and other factors that contribute to the education of students becoming participatory citizens. An analysis on current literature is presented with the implications for citizenship education and democratic classrooms.

### *Citizenship Curriculum*

Classroom instruction has the chance of taking a given curriculum and teaching it through any instructional approach whether it be direct instruction, problem based instruction, concept attainment, etc. The following section will address 17 studies on citizenship curricula or programs that have been implemented in grades preK-12 in different parts of the world and the outcomes that are evident through the student's behavior.

In their study to investigate the influence of program curriculum on student's perspectives on citizenship, Westheimer and Kahne (2004) conducted a two-year analysis of ten programs in the U.S. that foster democracy. Two of the ten programs are presented in this article. Westheimer and Kahne conducted a qualitative and quantitative study in which they interviewed a total of 84 high school students in the West Coast as well as from a community program for youth in the East Coast. A minimum of three program personnel were also interviewed from each the high school and community program. In addition to taped interviews and recorded observations, participants also took part in surveys, which included a pre and post survey.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) began their study with a framework based on three visions of citizenship, the “personally responsible citizen; the participatory citizen; and the justice-oriented citizen” (p. 230). The personally responsible citizen curriculum focused on building “character and personal responsibility by emphasizing honesty, integrity, self-discipline, and hard work” (p. 241). The participatory citizen curriculum focused on teaching and training students to organize and mobilize their work into “collective [and] community based” action to carry out change in society (p. 241). The justice-oriented curriculum focused on teaching students to critically analyze and address social issues and injustices in order to do more than just act but to also notice the social issues as they surface and identify the causations of the problems that the participatory and personally responsible citizens have their attentions drawn to. The interviews, surveys, and observations conducted by Westheimer and Kahne served to evaluate the program’s curriculum and to determine if student’s perspectives of citizenship aligned with the program’s goals. It is important to note that Westheimer and Kahne differentiated between the three different visions of citizenship and their personal perspectives favor the participatory and justice-oriented visions although they do find some value in the personally responsible vision of citizenship.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) argued that schools must be aware of which vision of citizenship they are aiming towards and that each vision has its own skills to teach. Furthermore, they argued in favor of participatory and justice-oriented citizenship and therefore educators must not make the assumption that students will learn the values characteristic of these two from teaching a curriculum that focuses on personally responsible citizenship because it is not something that will be developed unless it is

purposefully taught. As demonstrated in this study, students will construct their own values of citizenship based on the curriculum they are taught and will lack the knowledge of the other visions unless they are exposed to them as well.

Although the transferability of data is constrained due to the small sample size of only 84 students participants, the researchers conducted pre and post surveys to measure the outcomes of the citizenship programs under study. Furthermore, triangulation assured validity of the recorded observation through member-checking with the participating teachers of the programs.

In their quantitative and qualitative study to investigate the effectiveness of a specific citizenship curriculum geared towards students aged 14, Maitles and Gilchrist (2006) examined the altered citizenship values of students. Given a case study research design that took place in Scotland, a control group and an experimental group were used to compare the final data. Thirty students, 12 males (40%) and 18 females (60%) comprised the experimental group of 30 students. Efforts to minimize invalidation led researchers to compare data by gender.

Maitles and Gilchrist (2006) interviewed participants ( $n = 6$ ) on a voluntary basis, five females and one male. Subjects were given guided interviews twice in the course of one school year, once in December 2002 and again at the end of the school year in June 2003. Additionally, researchers conducted questionnaires with the 30 students in the experimental group. Given parent and peer evaluations, triangulation validated participant's testimonies in the interviews and questionnaires.

Questionnaires covered five major topics which resulted in five major findings. Findings of student's preferred learning styles reveled that at least 90% of students

favored group work, 83% expressed interest in partnerships with students from other schools and countries, and 63% favored class presentations of student work. Findings on course content revealed that 96% of students favored the ability to choose course topics for investigations when given the opportunity because it gave them motivation to carry out their assignments. Findings on citizenship values revealed that student attitudes and actions towards homelessness, developing counties, and poverty positively increased over the course of the year with the most notable difference being in females. Findings on attitudes related to conventional and single-issue politics revealed that over the course of the year cynicism about conventional politics “may have heightened rather than reduced by citizenship education” (p. 79); however, student’s “intention to vote remained virtually unchanged at 73% in 2002 and 72% in 2003” (p. 79). Findings on student character demonstrated that student’s levels of confidence, respect, and participation increased due to the citizenship curriculum and consequently they (87%) “agreed they were learning better because the teacher was trying to involve them” (p. 83).

Although the generalizability of this study is limited due to the small sample size, it nevertheless demonstrated that democratic classrooms are successful and produce positive results in student’s citizenship and character formation.

In their qualitative study to investigate the influence of pedagogical practices on student participation, Schultz and Oyler (2006) analyzed teacher authority and student involvement in the classroom. Researchers conducted their study in an urban public school fifth grade classroom in Chicago. They examined an integrated curriculum over the course of seven months that transformed into a community-based social action project in which students campaigned “for a sorely needed new school building in their public-

housing neighborhood” (p. 423). Researchers collected data from interviews, recorded classroom observations, student work samples, teacher reflections, and focus group notes. Data triangulation established the reliability of the various data sources.

The classroom teacher (Brian) began the seven month long curriculum by sharing his power of authority with his students by allowing them to identify the problem they would work to solve. Through discussions and questioning that led to democratic decision making, students identified their own school building as the issue to tackle. By allowing the students to structure the project, generate topics and questions and find the appropriate solutions themselves granted them ownership and engagement in the project. Brian also shared his power by setting up online peer mentors for students to receive feedback and support on their on-line discussions rather than him doing all the editing for them. Furthermore, Brian structured mock interviews for students to participate in and gain experience before conducting real interviews with community members. Brian served as a role model through the interview role-plays that took place as part of the process of preparing for the interviews along with the student’s active role in planning the process such as electing the subjects to interview, questions to ask, and even the classroom set up for the interviews. Additionally, throughout the curriculum, the class ran into issues that needed problem solving and Brian left it up to the students to do the problem solving themselves and consider multiple approaches to their problem solving. The students proved to be capable of this time and again. Brian allowed the students to generate topics and question and find the appropriate solutions themselves because he knew that they would be more involved in the project if they had a part in the decision making thus granting them ownership and engagement.

Although Schultz and Oyler (2006) successfully illustrated a positive experience of shared power between the teacher and his students in a democratic classroom, the classroom teacher was one of the researchers. Therefore, there is a strong bias on behalf of the researchers. Furthermore, the lack of following up on the students hinders researchers from knowing the total impact that this particular experience had on student's citizenship as adults. Despite these weaknesses, this single experience demonstrated students engaged in "problem posing, problem solving, and decision" (p. 424) all of which are characteristics of justice-oriented citizenship

In their study to investigate civic participation among British youth, Haste and Hogan (2006) examined civic action, values, and motives of participants. The researchers conducted their quantitative study March-May of 2005. Their sample consisted of 1,136 youth from England, Wales, and Scotland who ranged in ages between 11 and 21, 49% were female and 51% were male. Participants responded to questionnaires distributed at schools, online, or via post mail collected by Market and Opinion Research International (MORI). Questionnaire items surveyed students on numerous variables including: recent civic actions, expected future actions, concepts of a good citizen, social and political issues attracting youth, and motivation. Various scales coded questionnaire responses. Some items used Likert scales, some required yes/no responses, and others items were exploratory.

Haste and Hogan (2006) found that 25% of respondents indicated their inactive state of citizenship while 72% indicated their likeliness of voting in a general election. Furthermore, 90% of respondents indicated that obeying the law was characteristic of good citizenship as well as 73% who agreed participating in community activities was

characteristic of good citizenship. In addition, exploratory factor analysis was conducted for the normative action items of good citizenship and expected future activities. Five factors (active monitoring, conventional participation, making one's voice heard, joining organizations, and helping in the community and the environment) emerged accounting for 60% of the variance.

Overall conclusions indicate that youth participation of civic activities is higher than expected. Students who participated in activities represented 75% of the sample and only 25% of the participants reported being alienated from civic activities. These outcomes suggest that society including educators must hold high expectations of our youth. Although parents and teachers may assume that students are not interested in citizenship education Haste and Hogan's (2006) study reveals the contrary. However, due to the voluntary nature of the questionnaires distributed for this study, the results may be influenced by this same factor. Those who are more likely to participate in community activities responded to the questionnaire and therefore the results were positive. Furthermore, Haste and Hogan's study took place outside of the US; therefore transferability to the US is limited.

In this qualitative and quantitative study, Mitra (2004) analyzed the impact of student voice on positive youth development. The investigation took place in a northern California high school that served a community of first generation immigrant families of which half of the students were English Language Learners. Half of the student population also qualified for the free or reduced lunch program and graduation rates were 57%. The study took place in 1999 just after Whitman High School received a \$112 million educational reform grant for which the school's leadership asked students to

become involved in the process. Two student groups were formed as a platform for student voice, Pupil School Collaborative (PSC) and Student Forum. Although both groups did not work collaboratively they did have similar educational goals in light of the reform.

Mitra (2004) conducted 73semi-structured interviews with students, teachers, and school administration. In addition to interviews, Mitra documented 50 observations from formal meetings and informal conversations that she had with students and teachers in her role of an outside observer; conversations were transcribed and transcriptions were shared with the students and teachers to ensure validity of the data. Mitra also conducted a survey with “a random sample of ninth and eleventh graders at Whitman” (p. 660). The surveys were in relation to student’s sense of social deference, student-teacher relations, and social responsibility.

Mitra’s (2004) research indicated that youth who participate in leadership roles developed an increased sense of belonging, competence, and agency. Additionally, youth from both student groups “had a significantly greater sense of social responsibility ( $p = 0.037$ ) than the average Whitman student” (p. 661). Students also expressed the need for respect to increase among student-teacher relations ( $p = 0.62$ ). Overall, results indicated that students who participated in the student groups most often had the most notable growth than the remaining Whitman High students.

Although Mitra (2004) provided sufficient interview details and information, she failed to specify survey information besides the fact that “survey data supported the qualitative data” (p.660). However, the data that Mitra gathered at this northern California high school implied that student voice and active participation contributed to

positive youth development in the sense that they gained essential skills for their futures as adults.

In Krampen's (2000) quantitative study of "the transition of adolescents' political action orientations to political everyday life activities and voting behavior in early adulthood" (p. 280) he conducted a longitudinal cohort study of participant's whose ages ranged "from 14 to 23 years" (p. 280). Krampen observed the participant's "internal locus of control, political knowledge, and trust in politics for political participation" (p. 280) over time. Krampen collected the first set of data for his study in 1987 consisting of 83 females and 79 males from German high schools and in his second set of data collection in 1988 only 92.3% of his original participants responded. Six years later in 1994 Krampen collected a third set of data from 136 of the original 162 participants. By 1994 all of the participants had reached the legal voting age and by then the young adults living in Germany were categorized as belonging to the middle class based on their income. The quantitative study consisted of 50 item questionnaires sent by mail and were conducted in 1987, 1988, and 1994. Thirty-three of the fifty questionnaire items were measured on a 6-point Likert scale, 11 items were Yes/No questions and 12 items were measured on a 6-point scale. In addition, the third questionnaire conducted in 1994 contained additional items on socio-demographic status variables and personal participation in political elections since reaching voting age.

Krampen's (2000) study found that certain variables were stable over time from adolescence to adult hood including participant's political competence, political knowledge, and participation in political activities. However, the variables of trust and satisfaction in politics and politicians were not as stable. The variables that seemed to be

indicators for voting in young adults were their “frequency of political activities in everyday life, self-concept of political competence, and political knowledge” (p. 290) in adolescence. In the 1994 federal election only 66% participants exercised their right to vote.

Therefore, the findings to Krampen’s (2000) study suggested that children in adolescence must begin to experience age appropriate curriculum that fosters and develops their sense for political participation and knowledge so that they become participatory citizens. His study further indicated that if adolescents are not prompted to strengthen this trait at an early age then they will resort to being inactive citizens who do not take part in the political domain and may even avoid it. In order for citizens to activate their “personal resources for politics” (p.292) they must first develop this sense of self. It is for this reason that it is important for schools to nurture this identity trait during the age in children’s lives when it has the most impact.

Krampen’s (2000) study found a correlation in adolescent’s involvement in politics at an early age with their involvement in young adulthood. However, the sample size for the study was relatively small and narrow in that participants were all overwhelmingly from the middle class and obtained a higher education. Thus, this limits the generalizability of the study.

In her qualitative and quantitative research to investigate collaborative group work as a means of fostering meaningful reciprocal communication among peers in a classroom setting, Ogden (2000) studied the communication patterns among peers working in pairs on the same task. The nature of the task was also taken into consideration as to whether it encouraged students to work as a group versus to simply

work in a group. In her study, Ogden found that Year 2 (mean age of seven years and five months) students participated in greater reciprocal communication than Reception (mean age of five years and three months) students and the results depended on the structure of the assignment. Through a sociocultural approach Ogden observed 36 primary school children who lived in urban England and attended the same school. The cultural backgrounds of the students were varied as well as their socio-economic backgrounds. From recorded observations Ogden collected verbal and non-verbal data from a between-subjects design in which pairs performed two tasks, Task A and Task B. Task A required pairs to construct a house with clear instructions and goals to accomplish, whereas Task B required pairs to construct a structure in which students had more of an opportunity to decide among themselves what to create with their given materials. From the completion of these two tasks Ogden examined the communication patterns between the pairs to determine which task allowed and prompted for a more reciprocal communication pattern.

Ogden (2000) identified reciprocal communication as shared ideas and actions between the pairs, attempting to understand confusion, using gestures such as “pointing, nodding”, eye contact, verbal, and “continued attention” (p. 217). Ogden concluded that Year 2 students increased in their reciprocal communication patterns substantially as opposed to Reception students whose mean of responsive turn taking within a 15 minute allotment was 64.75 as compared to Year 2 students whose mean of responsive turn taking within a 15 minute allotment was a mean of 77.86. Furthermore, Ogden suggested that the advanced developmental state tied with the increased amount of peer interaction experiences attributed to Year 2’s increased reciprocal communication. Ogden noted that

Reception student's stage of development was at an egocentric stage in which they do "not appreciate the needs of their partner and therefore fail to produce contributions" to partake in reciprocal communication (p. 222). This was an observable weakness in this study; the only notable difference from the observations was among the Year 2 and Reception students for which the differences could be a result of the developmental stages rather than the tasks themselves. However, Ogden's study does demonstrate "that children's capacity for reciprocal interaction and therefore interaction changes over the" primary school age phase (p. 222). Therefore, Ogden's research tends to indicate teachers must continue their efforts to create group work tasks that truly require the participation of all group members in order to cultivate reciprocal communication skills in students that are characteristic of participatory citizens in a democracy.

In his study to investigate the impact of democratic classrooms on collaborative learning communities, Allsup (2003) conducted an ethnographic study in which he examined the exchanges between students and the exchanges between the students and the facilitator. Allsup found that the difference in interactions among peers in one group differed from the interactions among peers in another group from the same class due to the variation in group dynamics and structure.

Allsup (2003) conducted his qualitative study in a rural high school located in New York over the course of four months from October 2001 to January 2002. A total of nine participants ranging in ages from 14 to 17 were all band students. Researchers selected participants based on their level of experience on their instrument and the fact that they were high school students. Allsup assumed the role of both researcher and facilitator of the small group. He met with the small group in the school's band room for

eleven 2.5 hour long sessions held once a week. Before the start of the study, Allsup informed the participants through a letter about the study design and rationale. Once the study got underway, Allsup recorded field observations as well as audio recordings of the small group sessions and interviewed some students through quasi-formal group interviews and others with exit interviews.

Allsup (2003) designed the study for students to work in two groups. In each group students were expected to work collaboratively in order to compose a musical piece with their instruments of the genre of their choice with minimal guidance from Allsup. Group 1 was comprised of five students who chose to compose a song with a popular music genre and Group 2 was comprised of four students who chose to compose a classical song. Allsup's role as researcher was to examine the group process as they composed their music. He noticed that Group 1 and Group 2 had different approaches to composing which carried over into their views of their group and process. Group 1 had an improvisational approach in which each student explored with their own instrument and then when they heard something they liked they combined their pieces to create one melody. In this group there was "an expectation that each group member br[ought] special qualities that enhance[d] a musical work in such a way that the piece" became greater once all ideas were shared (p. 30). Furthermore, the group benefited from multiple perspectives and ideas of different group members and became a community through their collective approach and discussion. On the contrary, Group 2's process was more individualistic in that they divided the work up amongst group members and they worked on their individual pieces at home to later bring to the whole group. Once the group was together they attempted to combine the different parts together but this proved

more challenging than expected because most of the composing was done individually rather than collectively. Allsup concluded that in Group 1 peers evaluated each other throughout their collective process which in turn allowed them to gain new insights and they discovered and learned from each other as well as created new friendships as opposed to Group 2 in which once each group member had composed their piece and there was minimal changes done to it thereafter especially after it was notated. This method tended to get in the way of the group process since it did not involve much discussion and focused mainly on individual progress as opposed to group progress.

Allsup (2003) found that the group process of Group 1 resembled a more democratic classroom than Group 2 in that students shared responsibility to fulfill their role as group members and learned from each other as opposed to relying on the teacher to transmit knowledge. Allsup found himself teaching with his students as opposed to teaching to his students, which made opportunities available for them to question the teacher and assume responsibility of their own. Furthermore, the freedom that students had to compose their own songs in small groups provided the flexibility needed to collaborate with group members and in the process formed a community in which classmates became friends and joined together to work towards one common goal. Allsup characterized this as democratic education because students experience moments of discovery in which they have a say in the direction of their work that reflects their worldviews and is meaningful to their experience.

Although Allsup (2003) claimed that participants “were not chosen according to socioeconomic status, ethnic background, gender, or health status” (p. 29) the fact that students selected for this study were band students limited the population and did not

provide a wide sample. Furthermore, Allsup did not include further information about the participant's demographics except for that he mentioned that two out of the nine participants were female and the remaining seven were male. In addition, one of the female participants testified that the imbalance of gender participation did indeed have an impact in the group dynamics due to the fact that composing music was seen as a male activity among her peer group and she felt that as a result of this she had to compromise a lot with the males. Moreover, Allsup did not provide information regarding the interviews.

Allsup's (2003) study supports citizenship education through the experience of collaborative group work in which students learn how to take ownership of their own work, work collaboratively in groups through a collective approach in which discussion is practiced in order to work together towards one common goal. These are the traits that young adults must be equipped with as they integrate into society and Allsup proves through his study that democratic teaching is one approach to yield these results.

In their study to evaluate the impact of the Kids Voting program on children's conceptions on voting, political knowledge, and their attitudes and behaviors towards the political sphere, Meirick and Wackman (2004) conducted a quantitative study to examine the outcomes of the Kids Voting program and the implications for political involvement in adulthood. Kids Voting was a national program that supplies curriculum to K-12 classrooms across America in an effort to strengthen political engagement such as voting beginning in childhood.

Meirick and Wackman (2004) conducted their study from September 2000 thru November 2000 in urban St. Paul, Minnesota. Their sample population represented

seventh and eighth grade students from four middle schools in the same school district that represented the district's demographics. Researchers conducted two questionnaires seven weeks apart from each other. They collected data for the first time (Time 1) five weeks before the 2000 general election and collected data for the second time (Time 2) two weeks after the 2000 general election. Demographics of participants from Time 1 ( $N = 385$ ) were not provided, however; participants from Time 2 ( $N = 648$ ) were represented by a 52% female population, 68% belonged to racial/ethnic minority groups, and 31% were children of foreign born parents. The researchers found that completed questionnaires touched on seven topics (kids voting exposure, political knowledge, issue attitudes, party identification, presidential candidate preference, campaign interest and attention, and other variables). They used these to analyze three main issues: kids voting and knowledge, closing knowledge gaps, and knowledge and attitude-behavior consistency. They measured seven different topics surveyed on different scales. Kids voting exposure measured student's questionnaire responses on a yes or no scale which reflected a reliability of  $\alpha = 0.49$ . Political knowledge measured student's responses on a 14 item multiple choice survey for which Time 1 provided  $\alpha = 0.66$  and Time 2 provided  $\alpha = 0.55$ . Issue Attitudes measured student's responses on an agree or disagree scale which proved to be a reliable scale with Time 1 resulting in  $\alpha = 0.57$  and Time 2 resulting in  $\alpha = 0.55$ . Party Identification measured student's responses on a bi-polar scale with Democrats (1) at one pole, Republicans (-1) at the other pole and other party/no party at the center (0). Presidential Candidate Preference also measured student's responses on a bipolar scale with Gore (1) at one pole, Bush (-1) at the other pole and the rest at the center (0). Campaign Interest and Attention was measured in three separate scales. One

scale measured the interest in presidential campaigns and senatorial campaigns for which Time 1 had an outcome of  $\alpha = 0.79$  and Time 2 had an outcome of  $\alpha = 0.71$ . Additionally, another scale measured the attention respondents paid to presidential and senatorial campaign news ( $\alpha = 0.69$ ). Lastly, a two-item scale measured the frequency that participants discussed the campaign with friends and parents ( $\alpha = 0.63$ ).

Varying results for kids voting and knowledge, knowledge gaps, and knowledge and attitude-behavior consistency were found. The Kids Voting program proved to be “a significant predictor of Time 2 political knowledge”  $p < 0.05$  (p. 1168). In regards to closing knowledge gaps, the results were mixed. The Kids Voting program did not narrow the knowledge gap significantly between males and females ( $F_{1,290} = 1.952$ , ns) nor the knowledge gap of students whose academic achievement levels are different ( $F_{2,278} = 0.779$ , ns). Additionally, another factor that did not significantly narrow the knowledge gap was race ( $F_{3, 278} = 2.030$ ,  $p = 0.11$ ).

Meirick and Wackman (2004) concluded that Kids Voting did in fact increase the political knowledge of participants although it did not narrow the knowledge gap; furthermore, increased political knowledge led to an increased voting behavior. The study (2004) demonstrated that a program such as Kids Vote had a positive effect on youth’s political knowledge and increased voting behavior. Therefore, a curriculum which fosters these characteristics is aligned with the citizenship characteristics that are necessary in a democracy

Although Meirick and Wackman (2004) conducted their study using questionnaires with varying subtopics and scales to best fit each one which provided them with data to make conclusions in regards to their three main issues: kids voting and

knowledge, closing knowledge gaps, and knowledge and attitude-behavior consistency. Unfortunately, their “study lacked a control group that was not exposed at all to Kids Voting” (p. 1175) and the sample was limited to one school district, therefore the findings cannot be generalized to middle schoolers. Furthermore, a longitudinal study is necessary in order to transfer the findings to adult citizenship.

In their study to examine the extent to which support for democracy can be learned at school, Slomezynski and Shabad (1998) analyzed the outcomes of the civic education program, Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC). The Ministry of National Education in Poland prepared and implemented the EDC curriculum among adolescents in the fall of 1994 in 56 schools. The new curriculum did not differ significantly from the traditional Knowledge About Society (KAS) curriculum in that both courses teach the principles of democracy. However, the EDC curriculum was taught in the last two years of elementary school for two one hour sessions a week as opposed to the KAS curriculum that was taught only during the last year of elementary school for a total of 30 hours. Another difference between the two curriculums was the pedagogical approaches. The EDC curriculum resembled an active teaching/learning model while the KAS curriculum took a traditional and authoritarian approach. The teachers who participated in the implementation of the program volunteered for the job and of those selected the majority had a master’s degree, had an average of 14 years of teaching experience, and had been teaching at the same school an average of 8.5 years. Teacher participants received an intensive 3-week training of the EDC curriculum.

Slomezynski and Shabad (1998) conducted interviews with teachers (53) and school officials as well as surveyed teachers. Additionally, researchers collected the

same surveys from students who belonged to the treatment group ( $N = 295$ ) and the control group ( $N = 172$ ) in 1994 before the implementation of the curriculums and again in 1996 after the exposure to them in order “to assess the impact of the EDC program on students’ support for democracy” (p. 757). The treatment group participated in the EDC program and the control group participated in the KAS program. The treatment group was selected from 12 elementary schools in various regions of Poland and the control group was selected similarly.

Slomezynski and Shabad’s (1998) data analysis concluded that students in the treatment group responded as being uncertain towards democratic principles as opposed to the control group which responded as being more likely than the treatment group to take extreme anti-democratic positions as well as express strong support for democratic principles. In general, overall results among all students from both groups contradicted each other with “fewer than 20% of students expressed a pro-democracy stance on most items” (p. 762) while also only 10%-25% of respondents expressed anti-democratic responses. Therefore, neither of the responses were frequent nor consistent; however, “the lack of support for democratic principles” was the “most striking characteristic of students who” had been taught democratic values in school (p. 764). Despite this, what was frequent was the rate at which the treatment group selected neither agree or disagree.

Slomezynski and Shabad (1998) concluded from these outcomes that the treatment group had learned to question, analyzed information presented to them in a careful and critical way, and considered different viewpoints before completely accepting the democratic curriculum. Although results indicated that students were skeptical about the democratic curriculum they nevertheless demonstrated democratic characteristics in

their decision-making. Therefore, this holds value and from this perspective the curriculum ultimately resulted in diminished anti-democratic attitudes.

Although Slomezynski and Shabad's (1998) study yielded the desired effects of the EDC curriculum, the teachers who taught the curriculum had volunteered for the duty which limited the diversity of teacher philosophies. Therefore, it is safe to assume that the teachers who volunteered held democratic values which would in turn influence their motivation and efforts in the implementation of the EDC curriculum. Furthermore, due to the fact that the study took place in Poland, transferability to the US is limited.

In his quantitative study to generate guidelines for classroom rules in a democratic classroom, Bekir (2006) examined the current process of creating classroom rules in secondary schools. Bekir analyzed data from 200 questionnaires from participants in their first year at Gazi University in Turkey. The sample consisted of 41.5% male and 58.5% female students. Questionnaires contained 66 items which explored "the process of planning, preparation, application and evaluation of classroom rules at secondary schools" (p. 35). Responses were coded on a 5-point Likert scale with 1 being strongly disagree, 2 being disagree, 3 being undecided, 4 being agree, and 5 being strongly agree; Bekir disregarded undecided for data analysis. The questionnaire contained a reliability of 0.94.

Results from the analysis concluded mixed results. Based on their experience, 45% of respondents agreed as opposed to 26% who disagreed that classroom rules created a democratic classroom in which students developed responsibility (43%) and self discipline (48%). Although 80% of students preferred to have rules prepared in their attendance and 39% agreed as opposed to 32.5% that students who approve of the rules

obey them, 54% accepted the rules teachers prepared without discussion nor class meetings. Contrary to this claim, 40% of respondents also agreed as opposed to 34.5% who disagreed that rules were set by both the teacher and the students. Furthermore, 66% of respondents disagreed that teachers were “talented in terms of preparing the rules” (p.40). As a result, the plurality of students (38%) disagreed that rules encouraged cooperation and did not take into consideration the personalities and learning styles of students, nor do teachers themselves model the implementation of classroom rules. Despite this, 50% of students agreed as opposed to 25% who disagreed, that the “classroom rules are prepared according to legal texts” (p. 43).

Results from the study indicated that although participants expressed that they must be included in the creation of classroom rules and that students who approve classroom rules obey them, the majority of students nevertheless accepted the rules that were prepared by the teacher without their involvement. A possible explanation to this could be that since the majority of students responded that the classroom rules abide by the school policies they considered the rules to automatically be legitimate. Another explanation to the inconsistencies may be that when students are given the opportunity to voice their opinion they express what they would otherwise conceal. This is a weakness to the study, respondents contradict themselves and yet Bekir (2006) concluded that his sample claimed classroom rules were created in an environment belonging to a democratic classroom when they clearly were not. Furthermore, the small sample size limits the generalizability of the results and detailed demographics lacked. Additionally, the study took place in Turkey which limits the transferability of the study to the US.

In her qualitative and quantitative study to examine student perceptions of participatory decision-making (PDM), Kaba (2001) analyzed the experiences of Chicago's Student Local School Council (LSC) representatives. The latest school reform in Chicago impacted the school-based management (SBM) in that rather than elected student councils representing each school, high school students were elected to participate in a council of students and adults which was responsible for governing local schools. In this new system, ideally students were granted the authority to share decision-making with adults and administration. Kaba's study sought to investigate the authenticity of this organization through interviews and questionnaires directed towards the LSC student representatives.

Kaba (2001) conducted interviews with 20 LSC student representatives over the course of six months during the 1996-1997 school year. The researcher tape recorded and transcribed the open-ended, semi-structured interviews which lasted between 30 minutes to 2 hours. Kaba also recorded over 15 hours of observational data from school events and meetings. Kaba sent 70 LSC student representatives a survey in the mail of which 48 students responded. The sample ( $N = 48$ ) consisted of more females ( $N = 36$ ) than males ( $N = 12$ ) and more Black ( $N = 27$ ) students than Hispanic ( $N = 13$ ), Asian ( $N = 1$ ), White ( $N = 5$ ) and mixed race ( $N = 2$ ).

Results from Kaba's (2001) data indicated that although a majority (75%) of students strongly agreed that "students should have the right to participate in and evaluate their education" (p. 33), 37.5% of respondents claimed that students have very little power "to make real improvements in" their school (p. 34). Students responded that the matters they felt they had made meaningful contributions were in regards to student

complaints (93.8%) and sports concerns (50%). One of the matters that respondents considered they had the least impact on was textbook selection (16.7%). Furthermore, 43.80% of LSC members responded that adult LSC members always treated them as equal members, 54.20% responded that adult LSC members were always willing to listen to their ideas, 35.40% responded that adults LSC members took their ideas seriously and acted upon them, 33.30% responded that adult LSC members worked as a team with them to address issues, and 52.10% responded that adult LSC members valued and responded to their opinions. Therefore, Kaba concluded that although LSC student representatives were allowed to participate alongside adult educators in the school council and thus felt a sense of equality and ownership, students were not given authentic authority to “substantively affect policy and other changes in their school” (p. 21). Thus, the position LSC student members held were limited to the conditions adult council members set.

Although Kaba (2001) provided extensive demographic data of her sample, she failed to mention the role that race, sex, and other characteristics influenced the results or correlations.

In their study to investigate whether young children can be consulted in decision-making, Cremin and Slatter (2004) examined whether student voice from young children can be viewed as reliable. In their case study of six UK pre-school students aged four, researchers collected data from students, parents, and pre-school staff. The study took place in the pre-school which provided a natural environment for the research team to conduct their study. The sample consisted of two males and four females who attended class regularly beginning September 2001.

Cremin and Slatter (2004) conducted semi-structured interviews with parents ( $N = 6$ ) and staff ( $N = 2$ ) using similar interview questions. Recorded observations of children actively participating in their natural environment were also collected three times for each child. Triangulation assured validity of the researcher's classroom observations through interviews with parents and staff. As part of the study, child participants were given voice to their interests and likes by being asked to take photographs of objects they liked at their nursery using a disposable camera. Students were also presented with photographs from inside and outside their nursery and asked to select the ones that they liked best. Case analysis for each child allowed researchers to analyze data in order to answer their second question "what factors contribute to reliable consultation with these young children?" (p. 462).

Data results indicated an agreement between child and adults in five out of the six cases. Therefore, Cremin and Slatter (2004) concluded that it is indeed possible to rely on student responses regarding their opinions. Furthermore, given the data collected from parent interviews, researchers concluded that a factor contributing to children's reliability of statements is correlated to their home life experiences. Children from the sample developed decision-making skills as well as negotiating skills from experiences at home as well as at pre-school. Their confidence in decision-making had been fostered in environment that respected and accepted their opinions. Overall, results of the study indicated that it is possible for pre-school children to have a reliable voice in an educational setting.

Although results of the study provided answers to Cremin and Slatter's (2004) study, the small sample size of six pre-school students is not enough to generalize the

outcomes for all 4 year olds. Furthermore, the parents all appeared to have similar parenting approaches that influenced the outcomes student voice. Due to the lack of parenting approaches from the sample, transferability of results is also limited.

Helwig and Kim (1999) studied student's judgments on decision making in "peer, family, and school contexts" through methods of "majority rule (voting), consensus, and decision making by adult authority" (p. 503). Helwig and Kim examined 20-25 minute interviews of 72 first through sixth grade students from Toronto. The grade levels were divided into three age groups consisting of a "first and second grade" group, a "third and fourth grade" group and a "fifth and sixth grade" grade group all of which were equally represented by males and females. Researchers selected their sample from a science museum and a database from the University of Toronto Child Study Center. The majority of children were from middle class, two parent families and were 90% Caucasian and 10% Asian. The interviews consisted of children responding to different scenarios for which a decision was needed to be made within different social contexts. Children gave their preferred method of decision making for each scenario and their responses were evaluated for their method of choice, their reasoning behind their choice, and their personal reaction to majority ruling, consensus based decision making, and adult based decision making.

Helwig and Kim (1999) found that children of all age groups considered which type of decision-making method to use based on the social context. All age groups found that adult-based decision making most appropriate for classroom curriculum in a school context but they all favored consensus-based decision making for four out of the six scenarios. All age groups favored consensus-based decision making for deciding on a

movie to watch in a peer context, deciding on a game in a peer context, deciding on a vacation destination in a family context, and deciding on which school to attend in a family context. Furthermore, all age groups preferred a different decision-making method for deciding on a field trip destination in a school context. The majority of first and second grade children named consensus based decision making, the majority of third and fourth grade children named majority rule decision making, and the fifth and sixth grade children named adult-based decision-making. Helwig and Kim suggested that the difference in the field trip scenario in a school based context reveals that with age children become acknowledge aware of the developmental capabilities to make judgments on school related contexts. “children become increasingly aware of the role of issues of competence and ability in decisions made in the classroom” (p. 511).

Findings from Helwig and Kim’s (1999) study suggested that students are capable and willing to participate in school related decision-making especially with age; therefore, teachers must provide opportunities for students to practice and refine their decision-making skills in order to use them purposefully as adults.

In his study to examine children’s “judgments of the fairness of different types of governmental systems” and democracy, Helwig (1998) conducted a quantitative investigation into the developing ideas young children have towards democratic and non-democratic systems of government. His sample consisted of 72 elementary school aged children from first, third, and fifth grade. An even distribution of students from each grade level and of males and females characterized the sample. Helwig collected his sample from a data base maintained by the University of Toronto which compromised a

predominantly middle-class and European ancestry (94%) population and a 6% Asian representation.

Helwig (1998) interviewed participants in a three-part structured clinical interview that was tape-recorded and transcribed. Each interview lasted between 25-30 minutes that asked about their ideas of freedom of speech, fairness of democratic and non-democratic systems of government, and possible conflicts between the two. Helwig assessed interview responses based on the judgments and justifications which were then analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVAs) and 50% were randomly selected to develop a coding system. The other half of the interviews were then coded based on the system. Judgments were coded yes/no or OK/not OK and justifications were coded into 13 categories. To assess for reliability 18 interviews were then randomly selected and “scored by an independent judge for comparison with the original coding” (p. 522). Cohen’s kappa was then computed for the three separate parts of the interview. In regards to participant’s responses to government systems Kappa for judgments was .90 and Kappa for justifications was .83. In regards to speech/government conflicts Kappa for justifications was .79 and for freedom of speech Kappa= .79. Furthermore, “all post hoc analysis were conducted using Turkey’s HSD test, with  $p < 0.05$  unless indicated otherwise” (p. 523).

Helwig’s (1998) study demonstrated that freedom of speech in Canada and other countries was endorsed by the majority children from all groups; however, first graders endorsed freedom of speech less than older children. Freedom of speech in Canada was endorsed as follows: 62% of first graders, 92% of third graders, and 100% of fifth graders. Freedom of speech for other countries was endorsed as follows: 62% of first

graders, 71% of third graders, and 88% of fifth graders. Fifth graders were more likely than first and third graders to judge “laws restricting freedom of speech in other countries as wrong” (p. 524) as well as judge “violations of laws restricting freedom of speech as acceptable” (p. 524). Seven categories (personal choice/rights, societal progress/utility, voice, fairness, authority, cognitive/communicative functions, and harm) were considered to determine their justifications for their judgments on freedom of speech, governmental systems and speech/government conflicts. Of these, three categories had “significant main effects of grade” (p. 524): personal choice/rights  $p < 0.03$ , societal progress/utility  $p < 0.02$ , and voice  $p < 0.008$ . Furthermore, first graders were less likely to use these categories than fifth graders as indicated by post hoc tests and “a main effect of gender was found for societal progress/utility,  $p < 0.04$  with females less likely than males to use this category.

Although Helwig’s (1998) study revealed that children as young as first grade responded in favor of democratic traits such as freedom of speech, the limited sample size of 72 students from a predominantly white and middle-class limits the transferability of the findings. Furthermore, the study took place in Canada which also limits the transferability of results to the US. However, study results suggest that if students as young as seven accept and support citizenship rights then our nation’s education system must begin to incorporate citizenship education at younger grades in order to thoroughly and successfully prepare students to become participatory citizens in young adulthood.

In their qualitative study to investigate the effectiveness of school textbooks in the preparation of young children to become effective citizens, Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh (2005) examined the material found in school textbooks in order to determine if it

contributed to the development of the desired citizenship traits. The study took place in northern Jordan with a sample size of 75 primary teachers evenly distributed in grades 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup>. The teachers were chosen at random from 20 different schools with 34 being male and 41 being female. Also, the years of teacher's experience ranged from 5 – 25 years. Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh conducted, recorded, and transcribed semi-structured interviews. The interview questions focused on the teacher's opinions regarding textbooks and their approach to teaching citizenship which were later coded through an open-coding procedure. Additionally, to ensure reliability Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh shared the transcribed interviews with the interviewees to get their feedback on the validity of the data.

Results from the interviews focused on nine topics including cooperation, decision-making skills, and developing concepts of democracy in young children. Data analysis concluded that 15% of the sample population responded that textbook materials help to develop decision-making skills in young children, 27% responded that textbook materials help develop “the concept of cooperation in young children”, and 81% responded that textbook materials help develop “concepts of democracy in young children” (p. 191). Furthermore, 88% of responses agreed that textbooks helped to develop “young children’s role in their families” (p. 191) which is attributed to developing loyalty which in turn is transferred to citizenship development.

Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh (2005) concluded that the design of textbooks in Jordan does not provide enough opportunities for students to develop their learned concepts. They suggested that since textbooks are a requirement of Jordan’s educational system, textbooks must be designed to include activities that require the active

participation of students. Such activities include group-discussions in which students practice their decision making skills in order to find solutions to problems. In addition to increased activities as part of textbook material, Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh stated that it is also the teacher's responsibility to make use of these activities and incorporate them into the classroom environment.

The study had three major limitations. Two of the limitations dealt with the sample population. To begin, the small sample size of only 75 teachers represented the same region and had different levels of experience which interfered with the transferability. The fact that the study took place outside of the U.S. also limits transferability. Furthermore, the sample depended on the "consideration and thinking about each school" (p. 177) which may have excluded the participation of critical teachers. Still yet, the method of quantitatively collecting data through interviews "is a new tool in the Jordanian context" (p. 177). However, it is a strength that Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh (2005) provided background information for the study and background information of the educational system in Jordan to orient the reader in the context of the study. Overall, they suggest that it takes more than the teacher to assign a reading from a textbook to teach citizenship education. For schools that are required to teach from textbooks, the quality of textbooks must be improved so that they become more effective in teaching citizenship education. Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh suggested the incorporation of activities in textbooks for students to play out the concepts being taught through the active participation of students, such as discussions, problem solving and group work.

In her quantitative research to examine curriculum and schooling quality aimed towards educating students for equity and democracy, Holfve-Sabel (2006) compared student's attitudes towards school, teachers, and peers from a 1967/1968 cohort and a 2003 cohort. Holfve-Sabel studied data from 1,488 questionnaires collected from sixth grade students from Gothenburg City, Sweden in 1967/68 and again in 2003 ( $n = 1,540$ ). Students from the 2003 cohort were randomly selected from 30 schools that represented "18 of the 21 administrative areas of the city" (p. 61). Questionnaires were made up of 40 items pertaining to student's perceptions of schooling and the working atmosphere which were coded on a 5-point Likert scale.

Given a t-test analysis, Holfve-Sabel (2006) concluded that student attitudes towards schooling are significantly more positive in 2003 than in 1967/68 due to the changes in educational policies. Eta ( $\eta$ ) was computed in order to observe large differences between both cohorts by high  $\eta$  values. The items with the highest ( $\eta$  0.41-0.26) marked differences ( $n = 17$ ) pertained to positive attitudes of students, items with a medium ( $\eta$  0.25-0.17) difference were in regards to student's "enjoyment of school work" and the items with a small ( $\eta$  0.16-0.04) difference were in regards to "school quality, work order and personal motivation" (p. 62).

Overall, findings from Holfve-Sabel's (2006) study indicated that "the differences between classes had increased" (p. 69) to a more positive level today. This is imperative to education because schooling has an impact on youth character development and this study shows that student attitudes towards schooling, and peer relationships have positively increased which carry over to citizenship in young adulthood. However, specifics about the changes in curriculum and education polices that contributed to the

notable changes were not included in the study. Additionally, Holfve-Sabel (2006) emphasized that the changes in “society, family structures and child upbringing during the period of 35 years” (p. 72) may have had some impact in the results. Although Holfve-Sabel (2006) attempted to maintain validity in data gathering by using the original questionnaire from 1967/68, the fact that it was nearly forty years old at the time that the 2003 cohort was interviewed overlooked the historical differences and left out modern aspects of teaching.

In conclusion, Westheimer and Kahne (2004) addressed three main visions of citizenship including personally responsible citizens, participatory citizens and justice-oriented citizens. Although each vision teaches citizenship, each one has separate values and goals. Furthermore, in addition to the vision of citizenship that is being taught the instructional style through which it is delivered influences the outcomes. For example, Maitles and Gilchrist (2006) discovered that the most influential classroom environment through which citizenship education was taught and learned was in a democratic classroom setting. Additionally, Schultz and Oyler (2006) focused on the influence of shared power in a democratic classroom between the teacher and students. The results from this study indicate that teaching citizenship in a classroom environment and through an instructional style that reflects the concept being taught is the most successful. Haste and Hogan (2006) suggested that through civic activities and student participation citizenship education is best learned. Mitra (2004) and Krampen (2004) further claimed that students learn to use their voice in issues that pertain to them and therefore their involvement in such cases rises. Through group work Ogden (2000) and Allsup (2003) claimed that students gain reciprocal communication skills and a sense of shared

responsibility. Furthermore, this approach of active teaching as Slomezynski and Shabad (1998) explained fosters what Cremin and Slatter (2004) consider crucial to citizenship education, decision making skills and negotiating skills. Overall, Helwig and Kim (1999) found that students who experience this education will gain confidence in themselves and therefore put into use their decision making skills. Additionally, Helwig (1998) found that citizenship education is appropriate to even children as young as preschool age for they too support democratic principles. As a whole, Al-Barakat (2005) found that students who learn citizenship education through an experiential model will increase student participation and as Holfve-Sabel (2006) claimed, students who have an increased knowledge base will increase their positive attitude about citizenship which will in turn increase overall youth citizenship.

### *Student Empowerment*

The following section will focus on four studies conducted by researchers who centered their investigations around the value of empowerment in citizenship. Researchers agreed that it takes a degree of initiative to be participatory citizens which schooling can promote through a classroom environment and structure that fosters empowerment.

In their study to investigate the citizenship of Norwegian youth, Fjelstad and Mikkelsen (2004) examined youth's competence towards democratic principles. Researchers conducted their study on a random sample of 3,200 ninth grade (U.S. equivalent 11<sup>th</sup> grade) students from 150 schools. Participants took the 100 minute Norwegian Main test in the months of April/May 1999. Additionally, as part of the Civic Education Study 90,000 students from 27 countries also participated in a similar test.

Comparisons between the Norwegian results and the international results yielded positive outlooks for Norway.

Fjeldstad and Mikkelsen (2004) constructed attitudinal scales and cognitive scales from the results of the tests. The international mean of the cognitive scales was set to 100 with 20 as the standard deviation and the international mean of the attitudinal scales was set to 10 with a standard deviation of 2. In 9 out of 14 variables from the Civic Study, Norwegian students scored above the international mean in variables such as: civic knowledge (10.3), skills in interpreting political information (10.3), confidence in participation at school (10.3), and importance of social-movement-related citizenship (10.2). However, contrary to democratic beliefs only 70% agreed that good citizens vote in elections “and as few as 37% believe that a good citizen should participate in political discussions” (p. 624). Additionally, 81% of Norwegian students reported that they have participated in “planning of teaching” little to none, 60% reported that they have discussed “how to work in classes or subjects” little to none, and 62% reported that they have been “been invited to discuss how to assess tests and essays” little to none (p. 629). Fjeldstad and Mikkelsen argued that young people are not invited to make meaningful contributions nor influence classroom affairs despite their eagerness and intellectual abilities to do so. Therefore, without the experience “of real influence” in matters that impact their education and lives at a young age, youth are being programmed to believe that they hold no real power to influence issues that impact their everyday lives as young adults (p. 628). Furthermore, Fjeldstad and Mikkelsen suggested that a democratic classroom climate is one in which students replicate the behaviors that they will internalize and exhibit as participatory citizens as adults.

Fjeldstad and Mikkelsen (2004) provided details of the Norwegian sample for their study; however, they provided minimal details about the international sample that they used to compare Norwegian results with. Overall, the conclusions they offered were based on the results from Norwegian students. Fjeldstad and Mikkelsen concluded that students are interested in taking part of class decisions although they are not granted the opportunity to do so in school. Therefore, students begin to internalize the idea that they hold no real power to cause change or influence decision making and consequently they become non-participatory young adults. In order to combat this pattern, a democratic classroom in which students practice and internalize their role as participating young adult citizens through active participation and taking ownership of decision making must be fostered early on while students are still developing their identity.

In their study to investigate how classroom structure influences student power, Cornelius and Herrenkohl (2004) conducted a qualitative study in which they examined the role of students in the classroom. The study took place in four elementary classrooms in a diverse urban school (50% nonmajority backgrounds and 27% free or reduced lunch recipients) of which two of them were fifth grade classrooms and two of which were sixth grade classrooms. However, the researchers used data from only one of the sixth for this article. From this sixth grade classroom the researchers focused on two students in the investigation and aside from videotaped classroom observations, they also conducted interviews. These two students were chosen for the case study for four reasons. (1) their precision during reflections (2) their thinking process “during class discussions” (3) “their relationship to one another” and (4) their strengths proven during the course of the unit (p. 475). One of the students was a Euro-American female who had lived in the

school district for over 10 years and the other student was a Korean male whose family had been living in the United States only three years at the time of the study. Both students were friends and were the most forthright about their ideas and input in class discussions.

The study took place over the course of a science unit. The science unit was part of a “larger study called Promoting Argumentation in the Teaching of History and Science (PATHS)” (p. 472). PATHS’ purpose was to provide curriculum that would allow students to experiment, work in small groups, and state a case for one’s theories. As part of the experiment students formulated their own theories to a science experiment and presented and defended their findings to the class. The role of the audience was to ask “appropriate and relevant questions” that pertained to the scientific process. The teacher’s role was to provide sufficient time to conduct and carry out problem-based instruction as well as bestow authority unto students by allowing them “to be active participants in classroom discourses” (p. 477).

Cornelius and Herrenkohl’s (2004) study yielded results that demonstrated student ownership is fostered in a classroom that encourages discussion and problem-based instruction. The results of this study indicated that when students are given the opportunity to conduct an investigation of their own they become empowered and engaged in formulating their own theories and solutions to problems. Therefore, when students possess “their own motives and ideas” to work with they assume ownership and are eager to share, discuss, and learn with their classroom community (p. 495).

This depiction of participatory students is aligned with Westheimer and Kahne’s (2004) description of justice-oriented citizenship in that students do more than study a

problem but they actually analyze a problem in order to define the cause and possible solutions. The scientific problem-based instruction that Cornelius and Herrenkohl (2004) supported is one that will get students to theorize, make predictions, and find possible solutions to scientific concepts that are transferable to the solution of social issues just as justice-oriented citizens do.

Although researchers observed the participants in their natural environment, the study had a very small sample size consisting of only two students. Furthermore, both students were academically advantaged which questions the “generalizability to other students and settings” (p.495).

In their investigation to study the reasons for school dropout, Ahola and Kivela (2007), conducted a qualitative and quantitative study funded by the European Social Fund, EQUAL II which supported a project by the name of VaSkooli. Through this multiple case study, VaSkooli aimed to provide a place for at-risk youth to complete comprehensive schooling (US equivalent to high school) and transition them to secondary education in which students continue their upper general education or attend vocational schooling. Ahola and Kivela argued that the role of schooling is to socialize youth for their role as adults in society and if youth are dropping out of high school because they are being excluded then it is probable that they will continue to be marginalized and excluded from the larger society in the future. This is a concern to Ahola and Kivela, therefore they found it imperative to conduct this study in order to prevent young adults from being marginalized by society.

Ahola and Kivela’s (2007) study took place in south-west Finland in the summer and fall of 2005. The 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade student subjects were considered at-risk for

dropping out of comprehensive schooling based on their difficulties experienced in school. Another set of subjects who participated were post comprehensive schooling students who were selected on the basis of four possibilities. Either they had not yet applied to secondary schooling, had applied but had not yet gained admission, had already dropped out of secondary education or who were on verge of doing so. Reaching this youth group proved to be a challenge due to some being homeless or being involved in violence or crime, reaching subjects for this study required “collaboration between researchers, social workers and other professionals, and even the police” (p. 248). The partnership of all these agencies allowed for the distribution of questionnaires via post mail and interviews to be conducted. The researchers mailed questionnaires to 174 youth of which 124 were returned. In addition, researchers conducted 15 interviews based on an opportunity sample of which 9 were conducted at an agency center and six were conducted over the telephone. Each interview differed considerably in length with the range being 15 minutes to 1 hour. Given the responses attained from the questionnaires, Ahola and Kivela concluded that schooling was at the bottom of the priority list for these students. On a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being the least important and 5 being the most important, youth placed family and home, friends, work and free time above school and hobbies with school receiving a mean of 3.96. Ahola and Kivela attributed this to the disaffection that the respondents had towards school as a result of the discipline and punish nature of Finnish schools. Instead of empowering students by allowing them to expand on their strengths, schools restricted students by creating an authoritarian environment which does not serve to benefit the at-risk youth who are in need of guidance counselors who will take “preventative and rehabilitative measures with these

youth" (p. 255). Therefore, Ahola and Kivela argued that perhaps there is something wrong with schooling rather than with the students that is causing youth to drop out. They suggested shifting the attention from trying to change at-risk students to doing something to change the school system. For that reason schools ought to be less authoritarian and instead be more flexible in their discipline policies and procedures that allows room for students to learn through different approaches and expand on their strengths in order to become empowered. Once students are empowered they will participate in society rather than withdraw from it.

Although Ahola and Kivela (2007) addressed that schools need to empower students to become the agents of change in their own lives, the data they collected was based on an opportunity sample which does not provide a holistic picture of the at-risk youth population. Furthermore, although there were strengths in the collaboration between the researchers and the number of social agencies there were also weaknesses associated with the partnerships such as a lack of confidentiality. Additionally, the interviews were conducted by the researchers which the youth were not as familiarized with as opposed to the project workers at the agencies with whom they were more in contact with.

In their study to investigate the engagement and empowerment of at-risk youth, Wallace-DiGarbo and Hill (2006) examined an art intervention program in order to determine the impact of the program on seventh and eighth grade students. The sample consisted of 12 participants who volunteered from a small city in a mid-Atlantic state. The students ranged in ages from 13 to 16 and 11 of them were female and one was male. The majority of students were Hispanic ( $N = 8$ ), two were African American, one was

biracial, and one was of European descent. According to school records, these students were considered at-risk based on their struggles in school. During the course of the study, five of the students were suspended from the program and only six of the remaining students participated in all three of the assessment instruments that were used as data.

Three adults attended to the functioning of the art program, a local artist facilitated the art program, an undergraduate psychology intern assisted, and a clinical psychologist supervised. Students attended the art program 10 times over a six week period. The structure of the program allowed students to have a voice in the creation of classroom expectations, conducted group discussions, and group work. At the beginning of the program participants completed the Adolescent Self-Assessment Profile (ASAP) which contained 225 items. Six topics were created from the 225 items including: family adjustment, psychological adjustment, peer influence, school adjustment, deviancy, and attitude. At the end of the program participants completed the Outcome Inventory (OI) which retested the 225 items from the ASAP, furthermore; a follow up assessment was conducted six months after the completion of the program. The reliability of the assessment instruments was reported as: family adjustment, .86; psychological adjustment, .88; peer influence, .79; school adjustment, .74; deviancy, .92; attitude, .83; and disruption. Wallace-DiGarbo and Hill (2006) found no statistically significant changes in the data collected from all three periods of any of the six variables; however, the most notable changes were in psychological adjustments ( $p = 0.078$ ) and improved attitudes ( $p = 0.078$ ). The results “indicated that there [was] less than an 8% chance that the participant’s improved functioning on these dimensions [were] the result of chance”

(p. 122). Therefore, the chance that the improvements were related to the program were better than a 92% chance.

Although positive outcomes resulted from the program especially in the attitude and psychological adjustment variables, the sample population was extremely small which eliminated any generalizability of the results. Furthermore, neither control group nor random sampling was carried out for the experimental design. Student volunteers were recruited; therefore, student's motivation to improve may have been present from the beginning of the program which contributed to the improvements. However, it is important to point out that "the most at-risk participants showed the greatest improvement" (p. 124). Overall, Wallace-DiGarbo and Hill's (2006) study concluded that a youth program with a structure that allows students to take part in the creation of classroom expectations as well as participate in group discussions, and group work positively impacts the engagement and empowerment of at-risk youth. This suggests that classrooms which intend to encourage citizenship in youth must have a similar structure.

Fjelstad and Mikkelsen (2004) examined the value of experiential learning in order for students to gain the confidence they need to use their power as citizens to influence matters that are important to them. Similarly, Cornelius and Herrenkohl (2004) discussed how problem based instruction leads to the gain of student ownership and empowerment that contributes to their role of someone who belongs to a community. Furthermore, Ahola and Kivela (2007) reminds us that students who are at risk of dropping out of school also benefit from citizenship education especially with the gain of empowerment for them to take control of their lives in order to prevent from being marginalized in society. Finally, Wallace-DiGarbo and Hill (2006) reiterate the need for

students to take part in contributing to classroom expectations, group discussions and group work in order to gain and practice citizenship skills.

#### *Educational Approaches Emphasizing Democratic Characteristics*

The following section will discuss three studies in which researchers investigated the components that educational approaches must have in order to emphasize citizenship education.

Crystal and DeBell (2002) sought out to investigate “factors that would predict children’s and adolescents’ favorable orientation toward” civic participation (p.114). Through their quantitative study, Crystal and DeBell sampled 6<sup>th</sup> graders ( $n = 81$ ), 8<sup>th</sup> graders ( $n = 160$ ), and 10<sup>th</sup> graders ( $n = 60$ ) from Washington, DC and San Francisco Bay areas who attended private schools. Within the sample, approximately half of all participants were male and half were female; additionally, there was a range of socioeconomic statuses among the sample ranging from middle-class to wealthy. Race was broken down to: White (73%), Asian American (7%), African American (4%), Hispanic American (2%), Other (8%), and data of 6% is missing. Religion was also noted and represented by 41% Jewish, 17% Catholic, 14% Protestant, 12% Other, and 17% non-religious. Participants completed questionnaires during school hours and usually required two 40 minutes sessions to complete. The questionnaires posed 12 scenarios involving social problems and a possible course of action. Responses were scored on a six-point Likert scale with 1 being “no good at all” and 6 being “excellent.”

Crystal and DeBell (2002) found that males scored higher with a mean of  $M = 5.0$  than females ( $M = 4.3$ ) in regards to individualism ( $p < 0.001$ ) and social responsibility. Furthermore, Crystal and DeBell concluded that females ( $M = 3.67$ ) felt

more effective in community service than males ( $M = 3.33$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) as well as valuing public citizenship activities ( $M = 3.83$ ) than males ( $M = 3.50$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). A significant finding was that 64 % of 10<sup>th</sup> graders had run for a student government office and only 41% of 6<sup>th</sup> graders had and 37% of 8<sup>th</sup> graders had. Predictors for civic orientation in regards to effective community service include trust, importance of religion, grade, and internal locus of control. Furthermore, predictors that were most significant to civic orientation include individualistic problem-solving and interpersonal trust.

Although the results of the study were aligned with the expectations of the researchers, the sample was limited to students from private schools which put a limit to the generalizability of the results since it did not include public school students. Furthermore, the study did not include a pre-assessment nor post assessment; therefore, to strengthen their analysis a longitudinal study is needed. However, this study suggested that interpersonal trust and individualistic problem-solving must continue to be emphasized in classrooms in order to raise the level of civic engagement in youth and increase their participation in their civic duties.

In his study to investigate Japan's democratic educational model, Le Tendre (1999) examined how Japan's model fits into America's vision of educating students for democracy. Le Tendre carried out an ethnographic study in Japanese rural and urban middle schools as well as collected information from the Third International Math Science Study (TIMSS). Alongside teachers, Le Tendre studied the guidance and counseling procedures that students received from school staff that are characteristic of democratic practices. In addition, Le Tendre conducted interviews lasting one hour with educators and attended a variety of meetings with staff and students. In his work for the

TIMSS, Le Tendre conducted a set of more than 80 interviews with students, parents, and teachers. In addition to interviews, Le Tendre recorded classroom and student activity observations. The selected schools had a makeup of high, medium, and low overall student academic achievement. This makes the generalizability of the results possible across public schools on a national level.

Le Tendre (1999) found that the lifestyle guidance that is representative of Japan's democratic teaching model was characterized by a collective effort in which all students were included in the decision making process and conflict resolution as well as were granted a collective "range of choice and autonomy" (p.292). Le Tendre found that through the Japanese method of democratization, individuality was downplayed and instead group identity was emphasized. Le Tendre identified this as a distinction from the Western norms of autonomy in which individuals take credit of accomplishments for themselves. Le Tendre identified this as a potential weakness in the model because "students are slow to assert individual opinions or preferences and reluctant to challenge aspects of schooling even though they disagree with them" (p.310).

Although Le Tendre (1999) identified a trait in Japan's democratic educational model that could be altered in order to create a more successful model, he failed to provide information about the similarities or differences between Japan's public schooling and America's ; therefore, a strong transferability of the data is not supported due to the missing details. However, what can be gathered from this study is that classrooms which invite students to take part in the decision making process of the classroom, foster problem solving skills, and are given choice and autonomy are traits of

a democratic educational model which will successfully teach citizenship skills through practical experience .

In her qualitative and quantitative study to compare civic education in different countries with similar political structures, Hahn (1999) conducted the investigation in order to examine the democratic classroom climate. The six target countries for the study include USA, Britain, Germany, the Netherlands, Australia, and Denmark. Within each country, Hahn selected secondary schools from different regions of the country and with different populations for the sample population. Some schools were located in large towns, some were in small cities, and others were from the suburbs of metropolitan areas, therefore; the socio-economic status of the school's populations ranged from the working class to the wealthy.

Hahn (1999) collected data through questionnaires issued to students aged 14-19 from 50 different schools in the six target countries. Students completed questionnaires in 1985-86 and again seven years later in 1993-94 and were designed to "measure adolescent's political attitude and behaviors as well as their perception of classroom climate" (p. 232). In addition to student questionnaires, Hahn took observation notes from site visits to the majority of the participating schools in 1986, 1993, and in 1995. Furthermore, Hahn interviewed students and teachers. Semi-structured interviews occurred individually, in small groups, or in a whole class setting during a 20 minute to 1 hour time frame. For the interviews conducted in a language other than English, interpreters played a role in the interview process; when the occasion did arise the teacher took the role of interpreter. Additionally, for further comparative analysis researchers collected handouts, assignments and other class materials.

Hahn's (1999) definition of a democratic classroom for this study is a classroom climate "in which students are encouraged to investigate and express diverse views on social issues" (p. 232). Hahn's definition of a democratic classroom is aligned with John Dewey's in that she also believes that children must be active and have experiences in which they can have open dialogue about questions that arise in the classroom.

Hahn (1999) found that the democratic education in the six different countries were variable. For example, unlike Denmark, USA and Germany which have citizenship educational policies, Britain, the Netherlands, and Australia do not have citizenship education policies. Denmark is noted to provide the most extensive experiences to its students in regards to citizenship. The folkskole law requires that schools must model democracy to students in years 9 or 10. This entails weekly class meetings, class decision-making, and class discussions. In both Germany and the USA secondary students are required to take certain civic, social studies, or social science courses to contribute to their citizenship education. Although some classrooms also hold classroom meetings and class decision-making such as in Denmark, it is not a state requirement. On another note, the findings from the Netherlands show that students were not required to participate in discussions nor class decision-making. On the contrary, most of what Hahn (1999) found was that Dutch students in comparison to students from other countries were not required to express their opinions on issues nor actively participate in the classroom. Similarly, although England has a national curriculum which includes citizenship, teachers are not held accountable to its inclusion nor is it taught persistently. Findings for citizenship education in Australia are similar to those of England in that

there is no emphasis on the “preparation of citizens for democracy” (p. 240) nor is it mandated.

The questionnaires that were conducted measured four main topics, political interest, political efficacy, political trust, and political behavior. In addition, these same topics were revisited during conversations with the sample students to gain further insight. Responses were coded on a five-point Likert scale with 5 being the highest and 1 being the lowest point. In regards to political interest, Hahn (1999) found that the country with the highest mean was Denmark ( $M = 3.29$ ), followed by the USA ( $M = 3.10$ ), Germany ( $M = 2.96$ ), England ( $M = 2.94$ ), Australia ( $M = 2.49$ ) and the lowest being the Netherlands ( $M = 2.41$ ). Political Efficacy among students also came in the highest in Danish students ( $M = 3.47$ ), followed by the USA ( $M = 3.40$ ), the Netherlands ( $M = 3.25$ ), England ( $M = 3.23$ ), Australia ( $M = 3.17$ ) and lastly Germany ( $M = 3.00$ ). Political Trust among students once again was highest in Denmark ( $M = 2.87$ ), followed by the Netherlands ( $M = 2.84$ ), England ( $M = 2.52$ ), the USA ( $M = 2.42$ ), Australia ( $M = 2.36$ ), and lastly Germany ( $M = 2.28$ ). The fourth and final topic to be addressed was Classroom Climate which Denmark once again reported having the highest mean of 3.87, followed by USA ( $M = 3.74$ ), England and Germany both having a mean of 3.71, the Netherlands ( $M = 3.50$ ), and finally Australia ( $M = 3.51$ ). Furthermore, data analysis of 1986 show noteworthy correlations of classroom climate with political interest ( $r = 0.21$ ), political efficacy ( $r = 0.20$ ), and political trust ( $0.21$ ) as well as with data analysis of 1993; political interest ( $r = 0.18$ ), political efficacy ( $r = 0.26$ ), and political trust ( $r = 0.17$ ). These findings suggest that educational policies that emphasize citizenship education generate higher levels of political interest, efficacy, and trust within

students than those that do not. Denmark is a prime example of students who have a well fostered notion of citizenship due to its educational policies that allow them to actively participate in discussions, decision-making, and observe role models that display their character of citizenship. Therefore, in order to have an educational model that promotes citizenship education, having one as Denmark has is likely to produce positive outcomes. Finally, Hahn demonstrated the lack of consistency of citizenship education cross-nationally and urges educators to react to this concern in order to develop our youth into becoming participatory citizens.

Although Hahn (1999) included a balance in countries with similarities and differences in their citizenship education, the drawback was that even though translations for the questionnaires were done to ensure the same meaning, the cultural differences may have influenced a change in meaning. In support of the study, themes were created based on the triangulation of data gathered by different methods.

In conclusion, Crystal and DeBell (2002) raised the importance of increasing civic engagement in students through their educational policy in order to increase students' participation in civic duties. Furthermore, Le Tendre (1999) added that students must acquire decision making skills and conflict resolution skills to use as they participate in civic duties. Finally, Hahn (1999) claimed that the main purpose of educational approaches that emphasize citizenship education is to foster participatory citizens as opposed to simply informed citizens.

### *Volunteerism and Citizenship*

The following section addresses volunteerism as a means of teaching citizenship values.

In their qualitative and quantitative research, Hart, Donnelly, Youniss, and Atkins (2007) studied the correlation between community service participation among high school students and their future involvement in “civic participation in adulthood” (p.200). The researchers found that a predictor of local and presidential voting in early adulthood depended on the participation from high school students in community service whether voluntary or not. Furthermore, their study also revealed that a predictor of volunteerism in early adulthood relied on the participation of high school students in community service.

Hart et al. (2007) examined data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 as their base year for a collection of five surveys beginning in 1988 through 2000. The 1988 survey represented a random sample of 25,000 eighth grade students from across the nation. Follow up surveys of the original 25,000 eighth graders conducted in 1990, 1992, 1994, and in 2000 revealed a slow decline in participants over the years. Therefore, the data presented by the researchers consisted of results from the year 2000 participants which represents 57% of the original 1988 sample. The surveys consisted of questions regarding their recent community service involvement and their participation in recent elections as well as their civic attitudes towards their community. The paper’s most striking finding was that “high school community service predicted adult voting and volunteering” (p.203). They attributed these results to the belief that active participation among youth during critical years of identity formation shaped their self-concept as contributing members of their society. Hart et al. suggested that youth make connections and create networks of people and local organizations during their years in high school with others who participate in the same activities. Over the years

these students maintained some of their connections and became involved with them during their years of young adulthood. Therefore, the researchers suggested that if society wants to increase the civic participation in adults, schools must begin by making opportunities available for students to directly participate in community service and contribute to their communities so that they internalize a sense of responsibility to their community rather than simply take civic courses and sit in on classroom lectures.

Although the study by Hart et al. (2007) provided a suggestion to increase civic participation among young adults, their study did not “control for factors that are known to influence civic development such as personality and neighborhoods” (p.205). Furthermore, they suggested that an investigation with an experimental field study that controls for all the predictable factors ought to yield more precise results in relation to youth’s potential for civic participation in young adulthood. Hart et al. (2007) stated that currently adults are less likely now to participate in community and voting than before. Therefore, their research suggests that including community service and volunteerism in schools is a way of interrupting this trend.

In her study on student’s citizenship development, Hahn (2004) examined the potential of their civic participation in the future as young adults. The study consisted of a national sample of a total of 2,811 ninth grade students from 124 schools from the Northeast (23%), the Southwest (20%), Central (26%), and the Western (30%) United States. Of those students, 51% were female and 49% were male; furthermore, the ethnic composition consisted of 63% White, 13% Black, 14% Hispanic, 4% Asian, 4% multicultural, and 2% other. Researchers interviewed participants in regards to their civic

education and their opinions about democracy, the two main topics were: perceptions on democracy and perceptions on citizenship.

Hahn (2004) found that 90% of students agreed that democracy entitles everyone to freely express their opinions, 88% agreed that in a democracy citizens have the right to elect political leaders, 86% agreed that in a democracy organizations are available for people to belong to, and 78% agreed that it is good for democracy when people protest against what they believe is unjust. Furthermore, in regards to perceptions of citizenship, students claimed that helping others through community activities (89%), promoting human rights (84%), and protecting the environment (83%) are all characteristics of good citizenship. However, “one-third of US ninth graders did not think it was important for good citizens to engage in political discussions” (p. 640). Although collected data revealed that students are willing to help others by participating in community service, a smaller number claimed to be engaged in political activities. Therefore, although volunteering is “a healthy sign for the future of civil society” (p. 641) it does not however assure that young people will be engaged in and influence public policy. As a result, Hahn suggested that students must be educated on real public and political issues aside from just volunteer work. Therefore, in order to educate students into becoming well rounded participatory citizens, Hahn’s study demonstrated that all facets of citizenship education must be taught in addition to the emphasis currently being placed on community service. Specifically, Hahn placed importance on including politics such as public policy and political discussions into classroom instruction.

Although, Hahn (2004) satisfactorily differentiated the interview data between student perceptions of democracy and perceptions on citizenship, she failed to provide details of the data collected process.

In a quasi-experimental quantitative study to investigate civic engagement in recent high school graduates, Henderson, Brown, Pancer, and Hale (2007) examined the impact of mandatory community service on youth. The study investigated the impact of the adopted 1999 high school curriculum requirements which mandated 40 hours of community service in addition to a mandatory civics class in order to graduate as well as one year less of high school. Therefore, the graduating class of 2003 had two cohorts, the last cohort to graduate with five years of high school and the first cohort to graduate with four years. The researchers chose these cohorts because the main difference between them was that one met the 40 hours of community service to graduate and the other did not, therefore, they compared the differences in civic engagement in order to make conclusions about the impact of mandatory community service.

Henderson et al. (2007) gathered their sample population from first year university students ( $n = 1,768$ ) at Wilfrid Laurier University in southwestern Ontario. The majority of students had similar demographics such as parental income and education; however there was an imbalance in age and gender. Given the reason that one cohort had graduated high school after completing four years (Grade 12 cohort) and the other after five years (Grade 13 cohort) a difference in age is evident with Grade 12 cohort being 17.8 years and Grade 13 cohort being 19.2 years. Additionally, although both cohorts were overrepresented by females, Grade 12 cohort had the most (68%) with Grade 13

cohort (58.4%). Furthermore, Grade 12 cohort also had the greatest number of students (31%) who attended religious services monthly as opposed to 25.1% of Grade 13 cohort.

Henderson et al. (2007) conducted their study through surveys based on participant's volunteering experiences from the past. The surveys occurred during the first two weeks of their university freshmen year in either a science, business, or art class and generally "took about 20 minutes to complete" (p. 854). The following six main topics pertaining to the student's volunteering experiences included: attitudes toward volunteering, confidence in public and private institutions, interest in politics, media exposures, political cynicism, and community and political engagement. Each topic was scored on differing Likert scales. Furthermore, participants responded in the surveys to the types of volunteering activities they had participated in including: nonprofit organization, health service sector, school system, community sports programs, local community or service club projects, and other. Likert scales of 0 to 4 with 0 representing no involvement and 4 representing a lot of involvement measured each response for each sector. The maximum score for each respondent was 24 and when averaging the scores for the entire sample the mean score was 7.23 with a standard deviation of 4.60. Likert scales also measured attitudes toward volunteering on a five-point scale of 1 to 5 with 1 representing strongly disagree and 5 representing strongly agree, the scale had a  $\alpha$  0.73. In addition, a four-point Likert scale with 1 being the lowest and 4 being the highest measured student's confidence ratings for nine public and private institutions. The reliability score for the public institution scale was 0.69 and 0.57 for the private institution scale. Another Likert scale with a reliability score of 0.84 measured student's interest in politics on seven items. An additional Likert scale with a reliability score of

0.63 measured two media exposure items. The last Likert scale which had a reliability score of 0.45 measured three political cynicism items.

Results from five of the six sectors concluded that Grade 12 cohort students volunteered more than Grade 13 cohort students as predicted by Henderson et al. (2007) however, findings were non-significant. In addition, although “possible short-term effects of community service” (p. 857) were found, the lack of a longitudinal study presented itself as a weakness, furthermore; given the fact that Wilfrid Laurier University is an alternative school in Canada with a homogeneous student population the study also faced a lack of generalizability. The overall findings were not enough to prove that mandatory community service in high school will have long term effects of increase civic engagement.

Hart, Donnelly, Youniss, and Atkins (2007) investigated the influence of community service among students as part of the school citizenship education curriculum. Furthermore, Hahn (2004) claimed that it takes more than community service to teach citizenship. Hahn argued that students must also be educated on real public and political issues in addition to volunteering in the community. Additionally, Henderson, Brown, Pancer, and Hale (2007) also studied the impact of mandatory community service in high school among youth’s civic engagement.

#### *Other Considerations*

The following section includes one study on the impact of parental involvement in the development of youth’s political and civic attitudes, another study describes the best classroom environment for effective citizenship development and another study on the

impact of a peer conflict mediation program on the democratic principles that students learn on their path to becoming participatory citizens.

In her quantitative study to investigate youth citizenship, Smith (1999) examined the influence of social capital on citizenship formation. Smith collected data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS) of a six year project that began in 1988 and carried out until 1994. Surveys represented a national sample of 25,000 eighth grade students from 1,052 schools who were surveyed once beginning in 1988 and then again in the 10<sup>th</sup> grade, 12<sup>th</sup> grade, and two years after graduation. Questionnaires targeted nine latent variables associated with social capital including parental involvement, religious participation, voluntary association participation, self-concept, locus of control, sociability, civic virtue, political participation and academic proficiency.

Smith (1999) concluded that parental involvement as social capital positively ( $p < 0.001$ ) impacted youth's political and civic behavior by building up their self-concept, locus of control, sociability, and academic proficiency. Questionnaire results indicated that parental involvement in their child's education promoted higher rates of student participation in extracurricular activities and increased self-concept. Parental involvement and increased self-concept is represented by a path coefficient of 0.41 in 8<sup>th</sup> grade, 0.20 in 10<sup>th</sup> grade, and 0.14 in 12<sup>th</sup> grade. These characteristics resulted from the modeled behavior parents demonstrated to their child through their active participation which influenced their child's engagement in school activities and sense of entitlement. Smith stated that when students are empowered they are prone to carry out their duties as citizens.

Although Smith's (1999) longitudinal study traced the development of youth from the eighth grade through two years after high school graduation, the study would be strengthened by further following up on the sampled population through young adulthood. However, results indicated that parent participation in student's education is a predictor of citizenship in youth. In regards to democratic classrooms this implies that it is essential to include parent involvement in the classroom on a daily basis.

In her quantitative study to investigate democratic classroom management, Psunder (2005) examined different classroom management approaches that teachers take and their effectiveness in preparing students to become responsible citizens. Psunder sampled 55 teachers who taught the fifth (21.8%), sixth (27.3%), seventh (27.3%), and eighth (23.6%) grades with the majority (94.55%) of them being female. In addition, Psunder sampled 245 sixth (49.80%) and eighth (50.20%) grade students representing six primary schools in Maribor, Slovenia. Of the participating students, 48.16% were female and 50.20% were male. The researcher administered anonymous questionnaires that required narrative responses pertaining to classroom management that were conducted in 30-45 minute timeframes in groups for students. Teacher participants completed the questionnaires individually and handed them in to the principal. A Likert scale of a 4-point rating with 0 representing (teachers ignore action) and 4 representing (teachers carry out the consequences) coded the responses to the questionnaire.

Psunder (2005) derived from the data that students and teachers gave significantly ( $p < 0.02$ ) similar responses about the powerful and direct disciplinary actions that teachers take for students who misbehave for the first time in "cases of actions that are not specifically defined as violations of school rules" (p. 279). For cases when students

committed mild violations for the first time, students and teachers did not respond significantly similar ( $p > 0.05$ ). Teachers responded that nondirective statements were used as a form of intervention and then proceeded to use direct statements secondly. Students, however, responded that opposite but both groups responded that teachers actually carry out a consequence uncommonly. In the cases when students repeated mild violations students and teachers responded significantly similar ( $p < .02$ ). Both students and teachers responded that teachers carried out threatened consequences to repeated mild violations and proceeded to carry out direct statements as secondly; both groups responded that teachers would ignore an action the least frequently. Finally, in cases where students committed severe violation of school rules, teachers and students did not respond significantly similar ( $p > 0.05$ ). Teachers responded that direct intervention occurred most and students responded that directive statements occurred the most; both groups responded that ignoring the behavior occurred the least often.

The overall evidence suggested that teacher control over student behavior is the predominant classroom management style used in classrooms as opposed to a classroom management style in which students have the inner motivation to respect rules through a democratic setting. Psunder (2005) concluded that classroom management must take a preventative approach to misbehavior instead of solely the intervention approach. Through a democratic approach students learn through guided discussions how to recognize appropriate behaviors and decide on relevant consequences. This approach takes into account the participation of students and bestows a degree of responsibility onto them which will encourage their and further their citizenship development.

Psunder (2005) provided coherent background information on the different classroom management approaches to base her study on. However, a weakness of the study is in part found in the research design in which respondents are asked to react to vignettes rather than more “general questions about dealing with problem student types” (p. 283). This approach provoked respondents to respond in ways which made their discipline approach “appear more dominant and less democratic than it might actually be” (p. 283).

In her study to investigate the democratic principles learned by students from participating in a peer conflict mediation program, Bickmore (2001) examined the procedures that students took to resolve peer conflicts in their schools and the impact it made among students and the school community as a whole. Through a qualitative and quantitative study in which Bickmore conducted six case studies from different Cleveland intercity elementary schools in the same district, she conducted interviews on separate occasions in the first year of the study with administrators, program advisors, other teachers, peer mediators, and other students at each school.

Bickmore (2001) recorded observations over a two year period from 1997-1999. The initial study involved twenty schools in the peer conflict mediation program however only six of the participating schools were chosen for case studies for two specific reasons. One reason that they were chosen was because the adoption of the peer mediation program had caused a significant enough impact on the school itself to make a difference on the school climate; the other reason being that the outcomes of the program on the school climate had been so different from other schools that it was enough to show how the same program that intended to promote citizenship towards a democratic way of

living could and was interpreted differently. The schools that adopted the student lead conflict resolution program had students take an active role to learn and practice the anticipated citizen behaviors expected of them in a democratic society.

In each of the six participating elementary schools 20-30 students and one or two adult advisors took part in the three day training provided by the Cleveland Public Schools Center for Conflict Resolution (p.142, 2001). The third through fifth grade students chosen to participate in this training ideally would have been selected to ensure an equal representation of the school's racial, cultural, and gender populations however that was not the case in all schools. For example, Atlantic School had a disproportionately white/Anglo and female population among their nearly 25 active student mediators and Dixon School had nearly 24 student mediators who also "were not typical of the school's student population since they tended to be mainly academically successful students who rarely go into trouble. However, at Ellison School and Fairview School diverse groups of student mediators that represented an equal number of boys and girls made up the schools student mediator participants.

Bickmore (2001) concluded that critical reasoning and reflection as well as shared decision making embody the qualities of a democratic citizen. Given that students had the experience to responsibly mediate peer conflict Bickmore found that students at only certain schools actually exemplified these important traits throughout their experiences.

Bickmore's (2001) study acknowledged that there are different ideas and values of what a democratic citizen's traits should be and was able to demonstrate this by contrasting the same peer mediation program outcomes at the six schools she conducted case studies at. However, Bickmore failed to provide the reader with her data gathering

procedures such as details about the interviewing process and or details about the schools demographics. Furthermore, the article claimed to have a quantitative method aspect in additions the qualitative method but the quantitative procedures and findings were missing from the article.

Smith (1999) argued that the modeling that parents display in front of their children of participatory citizens influences the child's citizenship development. In addition, another influential factor of citizenship development is the classroom environment. Psunder (2005) argued that the best classroom environment for preparing students to become participatory citizens in through a democratic classroom management. Similarly to Smith's emphasis on modeling, Psunder argued that through a democratic classroom the teacher as well as the students have the opportunity to display their understanding of citizenship in order to model the expected behavior. Furthermore, Bickmore (2001) concluded that students learn critical citizenship skills through the practical experience they gain in a peer conflict mediation program.

### *Summary*

Many researchers have investigated citizenship education and the approaches through which it will successfully be accomplished. In addition, the citizenship curriculum that is used correlates with the type of citizens that will come out of the programs. However, citizenship education requires more than the curriculum through which it is taught with. Citizenship education requires the appropriate classroom environment and atmosphere that will foster student learning and provide a place in which students can actively experience their roles as young citizens. Including

volunteerism, parent involvement, and the appropriate classroom management are all factors that must be carefully considered to be a part of citizenship education.

## CHAPTER FOUR: CONCLUSION

### *Summary of Findings*

Citizenship curriculum is designed around the definition of citizenship itself. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) explored three main definitions of citizenship: personally responsible citizens, participatory citizens, and justice oriented citizens. They argued that justice oriented citizens are the type of citizens schooling out to educate. These are the citizens who critically analyze issues in order to do problem-solving all while actively participating in society. Furthermore, Westheimer and Kahne emphasized that teachers must be aware of which type of citizen they are crafting through their citizenship curriculum because in order to educate students towards one type of citizenship, the appropriate curriculum must be applied. For example, Al-Barakat and Al-Karasneh (2005) explained that a citizenship curriculum derived from a textbook must include active learning activities such as group discussions, decision-making, and problem solving. Otherwise, students will learn to become passive citizens as adults by passively learning the curriculum from the textbook in school. Cornelius and Herrenkohl (2004) further stressed that class work intended to foster justice oriented citizens must assign an active role to the student in the classroom. When students actively learn they begin to take ownership and feel empowered in their school work just as adults who take ownership of their civil rights feel empowered to protect and advocate for them. Similarly, Wallace-DiGarbo and Hill (2006) argued that when students have a voice in the classroom it will translate into them having a voice as adults in the future. Furthermore, Ahola and Kivela (2007) asserted that as students gain empowerment, they transform into agents of change in their own lives and specifically students who are considered at-risk

will realize their potential which will in turn prevent them from dropping out of school.

As Holste-Sabel (2006) revealed, student attitudes towards schooling and peer relationships have positively increased over the years which is encouraging to educators.

How do students become empowered in their lives and attain positive attitudes towards their society through education? Le Tendre (1999) claimed that students will gain confidence and feel empowered once they are given autonomy to make decisions that will impact them as well as given the opportunity to execute problem solving and conflict resolution skills. Additionally, Helwig (1999) revealed that although students found adult-based decision making the most appropriate for classroom curriculum, they favored consensus based decision making. This suggests that if students are given the opportunity and bestowed the responsibility to make important decision for themselves they will. Furthermore, Mitra (2004) demonstrated that given student leadership roles, students gain an increased sense of belonging, competence, agency, and have a higher sense of social responsibility; all of which positively impact their youth development.

Researchers such as Hart et al. (2007) suggested that a predictor of adult participation in community service and voting, community service and volunteering in schools are key. However, Hahn (2004) claimed that volunteer work alone is not sufficient in citizenship education and students must also be educated on public and political issues in order to become knowledgeable in other aspects of citizenship. Also, Henderson et al. (2007) concluded from their findings that involvement in community service at a young age will not have long term effects in increased civic engagement. However, Smith (1999) identified parental involvement in their child's life outside of

school as well as in their education to be one variable that did indicate to be a predictor of citizenship in the long run.

What type of classroom fosters critical analysis, problem solving skills, active learning, group discussion, decision-making, student ownership and empowerment, volunteerism and citizenship? A democratic classroom. Haste and Hogan (2006) revealed an encouraging finding, civic participation among youth is higher than expected. Furthermore, Cremin and Slatter (2004) affirmed that children as young as preschool age voice their interests and can be reliable for decision-making. Thus there is no age in students for which democratic classrooms are not suitable. In fact, Kaba (2001) stressed that students favor participatory decision-making and would be more involved in classroom affairs if teachers gave them the autonomy in the classroom to do so. Otherwise, Fjeldstad and Mikkelsen (2004) argued that without the experience of active citizenship, youth are being taught to believe they hold no real power to influence issues that impact their everyday lives and are being deprived of learning these skills that will enable them to become participatory citizens are adults. Therefore, a democratic classroom is essential to the development of citizenship in students.

A democratic classroom encompasses everything from classroom management, curriculum, role of teacher and students, and how time is spent in the classroom. For example, Psunder (2005) explained that a democratic setting fosters motivation within the student to respect classroom rules because it provides the opportunity for students to hold discussions to help create the classroom rules as opposed to an authoritarian classroom management approach; furthermore, class discussions also serve to provide a platform for students to recognize appropriate behaviors for the classroom and decide on appropriate

consequences. Additionally, in the case of inappropriate behaviors, Bickmore (2001) emphasized the role of students as peer mediators. When students have the responsibility and experience of mediating peer conflict, they use critical thinking skills as well as reflection and shared decision making to come to a decision. Therefore, Bickmore concluded that students who demonstrated these traits embody the qualities of a democratic citizen. Moreover, the role of teacher and students and how classroom time is spent during the school day is also crucial. Both Ogden (2000) and Allsup (2007) advocated for group work versus individual work in the classroom. Ogden asserted that as a result of authentic group work reciprocal communication skills are cultivated which are characteristic of participatory citizens. Additionally, Allsup identified shared responsibility among group members as another characteristic of participatory citizens in that each member is expected to fulfill their role in order to collaborate and experience discovery learning in the process. Additionally, Krampen (2000) asserted that students must become aware of political activities in everyday life as well as develop their own personal self-concept of political competence and knowledge. Krampen found that these variables are indicators for voting in young adulthood. Similarly, Meirick and Wackman (2004) concluded from their investigation of the citizenship curriculum Kids Voting that increased political knowledge was an indicator for increased voting behavior among young adults. Furthermore, Slomeznyski and Shabad's (1998) study on a particular citizenship curriculum indicated that students learned to question, analyze information, and consider different viewpoints before accepting information. Moreover, Maitles and Gilchrist (2006) declared that students gained positive attitudes towards marginalized populations and showed a rise in their levels of confidence, respect, and classroom

participation due to participatory citizenship curriculum. Clearly, evidence suggests that democratic classrooms foster citizenship traits in students of all ages.

### *Classroom Implications*

The implications of democratic classrooms on citizenship education entails teachers to create classroom environments in which students have the opportunities to critically analyze and perform problem solving, participate in active learning, group discussions, and decision-making strategies in which students gain ownership and empowerment. Hahn (1999) suggested classroom meetings as a means of providing a structured open forum for students to communicate and participate in classroom matters which also encourage citizenship qualities to grow and strengthen. Furthermore, Schultz and Oyler (2006) recommended implementing role plays, mock interviews, problem posing, questioning, and decision-making into the curriculum in order for students to practice and apply the skills they learn that will translate into ownership and engagement.

### *Implications for Further Research*

A substantial amount of research on citizenship education is available for review which includes suggestions for the appropriate approaches to carry it out. However, research on democratic classrooms and the implications for citizenship education is limited. Additionally, longitudinal studies on citizenship education and the correlation of adult citizenship including voting rates are also necessary. Current research describes citizenship education through a constructivist approach to be more effective than a traditional approach, however; research that describes a constructivist approach as unsuccessful is also needed to balance out the current findings.

### *Summary*

This paper examined the impact of citizenship education through a classroom model of democratic principles. Importance and relevancy to teaching and education was provided with a rationale as well as a brief overview of the history of citizenship education. An analysis of citizenship curriculum and the corresponding teaching methods revealed that citizenship education that fosters participatory citizens is accomplished through a constructivist teaching model and a democratic classroom.

Research revealed that given a citizenship curriculum that nurtures student's identities as citizens as well as empowers them and teaches them the necessary skills that are characteristic of participatory citizens will carry over into their adult life and activities they take part in such as voting, community service, and political engagement.

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