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ABSTRACT

Part of a project to assist educators, parents, and community leaders as they develop and implement citizenship education programs, the document identifies and describes citizenship competencies. The document is presented in five chapters. Chapter I introduces the handbook and considers factors influencing citizenship education including social change, diversity of citizenship-related approaches used by educators, and influences of family and community organizations. Chapter II identifies seven basic citizenship competencies--acquiring and using information, assessing involvement, making decisions, making judgments, communicating, cooperating, and promoting interests. Chapter III describes these competencies and suggests activities to help individuals reinforce and evaluate competency attainment. Activities include sketching maps to show space usage in the home (primary grades), interviewing city council members (middle grades), and gathering public opinion data (adult). Chapter IV describes a conception of citizenship useful for educators. It emphasizes that citizenship involves rights, responsibilities, and tasks associated with governing the various groups to which a person belongs. The final chapter provides criteria for evaluating citizenship-related learning experiences. Criteria stress de-briefing by learners and relating content to student experiences. The document concludes with a bibliography and checklist for assessing instructional materials and objectives. (EB)

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HANDBOOK OF BASIC CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

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by

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A project of the
Citizenship Development Program
Mershon Center, Ohio State University

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HANDBOOK OF BASIC CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

This *Handbook* identifies and describes basic citizenship competencies individuals need in their role as citizens. The *Handbook* provides an introduction and guide to basic elements of citizenship education today. As such, it aims to help users think more systematically about their goals and procedures in social education.

The *Handbook* has five parts. Part I introduces the purpose of the *Handbook*. Part II identifies seven basic citizenship competencies. Part III describes these competencies and related capacities in detail. Examples of learning experiences for each competency are also presented. Part IV describes a conception of citizenship useful for educators. Part V provides criteria for evaluating citizenship-related learning experiences.

An appendix contains a bibliography and a checklist derived from the seven competencies and criteria for learning experiences identified in the *Handbook*. The checklist may be used as a diagnostic tool to assist readers as they compare instructional materials; assess goals, objectives and classroom instruction; and set new goals related to citizenship education.

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This is one of several source documents developed by the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project. This is a joint project of the Mershon Center, The Ohio State University, and the Social Science Education Consortium, Boulder, Colorado. The goal of this project has been to prepare materials that will assist educators, parents and community leaders as they seek to identify basics, clarify goals, make assessments and develop action plans related to citizenship education.

Products developed by the Project are:

Handbook of Basic Citizenship Competencies

*Guide to Basic Citizenship Competencies:
Recommendations to Compare Curriculum Materials,
Assess Classroom Instruction, and set Goals*

*Principals and Citizenship Education: A Guide
for Effective Leadership*

*The Community and Citizenship: A Guide for
Planning and Leadership*

*Developing your Child's Citizenship Competence:
A Parent's Guide*

Executive Summary

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I. INTRODUCTION

Horace Mann was referring to citizenship education when he observed that:

In order that men may be prepared for self-government, their apprenticeship must commence in childhood. The great moral attribute of self-government cannot be born and matured in a day; and if school children are not trained to it, we only prepare ourselves for disappointment.¹

Citizenship education involves learning and instruction directed to the development of citizen competence. Learning may be seen as "a relatively permanent change in competence that results from experience and which is not attributable to physical maturation."² Instruction involves structuring a learner's environment to cause changes in capability. It is "the creation of conditions that facilitate learning."³ Citizenship education can occur both in school and in non-school settings. The development of competent citizens is the overall goal of citizenship education.

Some political scientists call this process political education.⁴ One recently described the process as involving "the training of people in the knowledge, skills and attitudes which are prerequisite for active and effective participation in civic life." The goal of this process, she added, "should be mature citizens who can both advocate and carry out appropriate political actions to further their perceived self-interest, while valuing longer-range perspective[s] . . . within some framework of the 'common good.'"⁵ In this sense, citizenship education is a continuing challenge for each succeeding generation. As societal conditions change, various facets of citizenship education will also change. However, the basic challenge of equipping people to behave competently in an imperfect world will remain.

Three conditions make it useful to systematically consider what constitute basic elements of citizenship education for today's students. First, citizenship has become more complex in the sense that the number and complexity of tasks and responsibilities associated with the citizen role has greatly increased. Critical societal changes in recent decades affecting citizenship have included: the rise of global interdependence; the growth of large-scale institutions, especially big government; technological innovation and a knowledge explosion; the re-emergence of racial and ethnic consciousness; the growth of concern for equality of opportunity; and an increase in alienation from social institutions, including public schools and large government.

Second, as our society has become more complex, citizenship education has become increasingly diversified. Citizenship education in the school today, for example, may include not only the familiar civics, history, and geography, but also such topics as law-related education, global education, social problems, values clarification, moral/citizenship education, and community participation programs. This trend represents a series of imaginative efforts by educators to specify more clearly parts of the citizen's role and to create instructional materials to enhance students' abilities in regard to that part of the citizen's role. Although they are not mutually exclusive or widely adopted by schools across the country, each of these approaches represent a somewhat different point of view.⁶

Third, citizenship education is a society-wide process.⁷

Unlike many other areas of the school curriculum, citizenship is taught and learned not only in school but also in the community.

Business, labor, voluntary organizations, religious organizations and the family all contribute formally and informally to citizenship education. For example, many community organizations such as the American Legion and the 4-H support or conduct their own citizenship education programs. At present, however, little is known about the relationship between citizenship education in school and non-school settings and the extent to which efforts in different sectors reinforce or contradict each other.

As a result of these conditions, there is a need for analytical "tools" or guidelines to help educators in school and non-school settings identify basics, clarify goals, assess needs, and develop action plans related to citizenship education. This *Handbook* is a problem-solving tool, not a new curriculum outline. Our goal is not to prescribe one course of study or instructional approach to citizenship education. Instead, it is to use existing knowledge to help bring clarity to a complex educational domain often characterized by frustrating ambiguity.

II. BASIC CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES--A SUMMARY

Citizenship concerns the rights, responsibilities, and tasks associated with governing the various groups to which a person belongs. What competencies do individuals need in order to discharge their responsibilities and protect their interests as citizens? In response to this question we have examined research, theory and practice related to political behavior and learning. Our goal was to identify the types of citizenship competencies which were basic and useful to a wide variety of individuals interested in citizenship education. By useful we mean a typology of competencies that could be used by educators to identify what is fundamental in citizenship education, to make comparisons between different approaches to citizenship education and to identify instructional practices and materials likely to promote citizen competence.

What do we mean by *basic* citizenship competencies? Considerable public attention has been given to the need for a return to "basics" in education. Educators have responded in a variety of ways. Today, there is disagreement and even confusion about the meaning of "basic" in education. By *basic* we mean a set of citizenship competencies that have these characteristics:

1. They are limited in number.
2. They are close to universally relevant in that they are linked to citizenship tasks all individuals--regardless of sex, race, ethnicity, social class, or other differences--face in some form in the course of daily living.
3. They are generic in that they apply to all of the various domains (family, school, city, state, nation, etc.) in which an individual may exercise citizenship.
4. They should be taught continually in all grade levels at increasing levels of sophistication and variety.

5. They are of the greatest value to individuals as they strive to discharge their responsibilities, to preserve their rights and to protect and pursue their interests as citizens.
6. They are of value to the society as it seeks to maintain and improve itself.

We have identified seven citizenship competencies which meet these criteria. In a democratic society the exercise of these competencies should be constrained and tempered by a commitment to human rights and to democratic participation in the shaping and sharing of values. The competencies are:

1. **ACQUIRING AND USING INFORMATION:**
Competence in acquiring and processing information about political situations.
2. **ASSESSING INVOLVEMENT:**
Competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies.
3. **MAKING DECISIONS:**
Competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and problems of citizenship..
4. **MAKING JUDGMENTS:**
Competence in developing and using standards such as justice, ethnics, morality and practicality to make judgments of people, institutions, policies, and decisions.
5. **COMMUNICATING:**
Competence in communicating ideas to other citizens, decision-makers, leaders and officials.
6. **COOPERATING:**
Competence in cooperating and working with others in groups and organizations to achieve mutual goals.
7. **PROMOTING INTERESTS:**
Competence in working with bureaucratically organized institutions in order to promote and protect one's interests and values.

These seven competencies should be looked upon as a set of flexible tools or guidelines for identifying what constitutes basic preparation for citizenship today. They are not intended to be a curriculum outline

in and of themselves. In addition to these competencies, many other goals in citizenship/social studies/social science education can and should be pursued.

The competencies meet our criteria for basic in these ways. First, they are limited in number. Second, they are universally relevant in the sense that all individuals--white or black, rich or poor, young or old--require some level of proficiency with such competencies if they are to be responsible and effective citizens in the various groups to which they belong. Of course, such factors as great wealth can make it easier and/or less necessary for a person to exercise these competencies. By the same token, racial prejudice or sexism can make it more difficult for some to develop and exercise such competencies. Nevertheless, these competencies are relevant to most individuals under most circumstances.

Third, the competencies are generic. They cut across and apply to all of the various domains in which citizenship is exercised. People face the task, for instance, of making decisions about governance not only as citizens of the United States but also as members of their state, community, school or family. Similarly, effective participation in the life of a family, labor union or city may require the citizen to cooperate with others or make judgments about the decisions of others.

Fourth, the competencies can and should be developed continuously from the earliest stages of learning throughout life. These competencies are relevant to elementary school-age children in settings encompassed largely by their interpersonal relations with parents, teachers, principals, peers, older children and various adults. As children mature, they develop both emotionally and cognitively, and the relationship of the individual to

the social environment changes. Hence, as they grow older, students will exercise these competencies in an increasingly wider variety of political settings. These settings will eventually directly involve governmental institutions and citizenship as it relates to community and nation.

Fifth, these competencies embody the types of behaviors that are necessary, if not always sufficient conditions, for preserving one's rights and protecting one's interests as a citizen. For example, while competence in communicating effectively with bureaucrats does not guarantee one can obtain certain benefits, it is hard to imagine being able to obtain anything without some such competence.

Sixth, the distribution of these types of competencies across the population is likely to be of value to the society as a whole. Societies without significant numbers of citizens who can, for example, acquire information, make independent judgments and communicate their opinions to public officials are less likely to be able to maintain democratic traditions and forms of governance than societies with such individuals.

Finally, it should be noted that the seven competencies are interdependent. This means that to some extent proficiency with any one competence is related to proficiency with one or more of the others. Making decisions, for example, involves collecting information. Competence in protecting one's interests when dealing with a bureaucracy will be enhanced by competence in communicating effectively with officials and leaders.

* * *

Up to this point we have briefly described seven citizenship competencies. These competencies, along with the concept of citizenship, will all be discussed in more detail in the remainder of the *Handbook*. Here we present a chart which summarizes the competencies and the discussion to follow. The chart lists the seven competencies, and capacities which

contribute to them. The chart also provides *examples* of knowledge, skills and attitudes related to each capacity. These examples are only intended to *illustrate* the various traits associated with each competency. They do not define the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that make up each competence and the capacities associated with it.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
1) acquiring and using information	<p align="center">*</p> <p>1.1) use newspapers and magazines to obtain current information and opinions about issues and problems. . . .</p> <p>1.2) use books, maps, charts, graphs and other sources. . . .</p> <p>1.3 recognize the unique advantages and disadvantages of radio and television as sources of information about issues and problems . . .</p> <p>1.4 identify and acquire information from public and private sources such as government agencies and community groups. . .</p> <p>1.5 obtain information from fellow citizens by asking appropriate questions. . .</p> <p>1.6 evaluate the validity and quality of information . . .</p> <p>1.7 organize and use information collected. . .</p>	<p>a) reading at an appropriate level;</p> <p>b) distinguishing the various parts of a newspaper or magazine (editorials, opinion columns, news stories);</p> <p>c) understanding possible sources of bias in news gathering and reporting;</p> <p>d) distinguishing statements of fact and value.</p> <p>a) reading at an appropriate level;</p> <p>b) identifying the most appropriate source(s) of information for a problem at hand;</p> <p>c) applying basic information processing skills (e.g., reading for the main idea; use of index headings and summaries) to the material.</p> <p>a) understanding the role and nature of the media in the American economic system;</p> <p>b) distinguishing between pseudo-events and real events.</p> <p>a) identifying the most appropriate source(s) of information from the problem at hand;</p> <p>b) using appropriate channels and procedures to obtain needed information.</p> <p>a) developing productive and relevant questions;</p> <p>b) identifying the best person(s) to answer a given question;</p> <p>c) selecting effective methods of communicating a question such as a letter, telephone interview or survey.</p> <p>a) distinguishing normative and empirical statements;</p> <p>b) understanding the nature of sampling</p> <p>c) understanding the nature and logic of evidence.</p> <p>a) making longitudinal and cross-sectional comparisons;</p> <p>b) clarifying information according to consistent sets of criteria;</p> <p>c) conceptualizing information by analyzing it, breaking larger concepts into sub-concepts;</p> <p>d) conceptualizing information by synthesis, combining objects or ideas into more inclusive concepts;</p> <p>e) making inferences from available information;</p> <p>f) developing hypotheses that assert a relationship between two or more variables.</p> <p>g) imagining alternative possibilities for existing realities;</p> <p>h) evaluating the reliability and validity of information.</p>

*The numbering system for the capacities does not imply a hierarchy among capacities. Thus, for example, capacity 1.6 should not be taken as more important than 1.3 or 1.5 nor do the numbers imply that 1.1 to 1.5 logically or developmentally precede 1.6.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
2) assessing involvement	<p>2.1) identify a wide range of implications for an event or condition . . .</p> <p>2.2) identify ways individual actions and beliefs can produce consequences . . .</p> <p>2.3 identify your rights and obligations in a given situation.</p>	<p>a) identifying several groups affected an event or condition;</p> <p>b) seeing that an event or condition have: multiple consequences, different consequences for different groups, different consequences for different values such as wealth, health, safety, etc.</p> <p>a) empathizing with others and recognizing their needs, feelings and interests;</p> <p>b) holding others' interests as legitimate and valuable as one's own.</p> <p>a) taking a socio-centric rather than ego-centric perspective;</p> <p>b) identifying relationships among trends, changes, problems in a group;</p> <p>c) seeing how individual acts can accumulate to produce consequences which are difficult to predict.</p>
3) making decisions	<p>3.1 develop realistic alternatives . . .</p> <p>3.2 identify the consequences of alternatives for self and others . . .</p> <p>3.3 determine goals or values involved in the decision . . .</p> <p>3.4 assess the consequences of alternatives based on stated values or goals .</p>	<p>a) collecting information relevant to the decision problem;</p> <p>b) imagining alternative possibilities for existing realities.</p> <p>a) empathizing with others, and recognizing their needs and interest</p> <p>b) taking other's interests as legitimate as one's own interests;</p> <p>c) looking ahead and recognizing that actions have consequences which can ramify and accumulate.</p> <p>a) identifying the values which are involved in a decision problem;</p> <p>b) clarifying which values are of greatest importance.</p> <p>a) identifying the extent to which a consequence violates or reinforces a value.</p>

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
4) making judgments	4.1) Identify and, if necessary, develop appropriate criteria for making a judgment . . .	a) clarifying the purpose for which a judgment is being made; b) identifying one's beliefs and values relevant to the judgment problem; c) identifying and assessing the utility of "traditional wisdom" as a source of criteria.
	4.2) apply the criteria to known facts . . .	a) preparing a mental or written checklist of criteria; b) comparing the problem in terms of the items in the checklist.
	4.3) periodically reassess criteria . . .	a) using a variety of sources to collect information on the continuing relevance of criteria; b) judging whether criteria are workable in light of changing purposes and conditions.
	4.4) recognize that others may apply different criteria to a problem .	a) recognizing that people culturally different from oneself may have different standards; b) according legitimacy to standards different than one's own.
5) communicating	5.1) develop reasons supporting your point of view . . .	a) collecting information relevant to the problem at hand; b) logically organizing information to support one's position
	5.2) present these viewpoints to friends, neighbors, and acquaintances . . .	a) speaking clearly and writing clearly b) understanding the concerns and values of others.
	5.3) present these viewpoints in writing to public officials, political leaders and to newspapers and magazines . . .	a) identifying the appropriate audience for one's message; b) identifying the most appropriate form and procedures for submitting messages to target audience; c) writing clearly.
	5.4) present these viewpoints at public meetings such as committees, school board meetings, city government sessions, etc.	a) identifying the procedures involved in submitting such a message to a particular group; b) speaking clearly.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
7) Promoting interests	7.1) recognize your interests and goals in a given situation . . .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) asking what do I want; what are my goals in this situation; b) distinguishing between long-term and short-term interests; c) recognizing what may be realistical achieved in any given situation.
	7.2 Identify an appropriate strategy for a given situation . . .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) recognizing there may be alternativ ways to exert influence; b) calculating the costs and benefits one strategy over another in terms of one's purposes.
	7.3 work through organized groups to support your interests . . .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) finding groups most relevant to the problem, situation or issue with wh one is concerned; b) arranging one's time and responsibility to allow for participation in such groups.
	7.4 use legal remedies to protect your rights and interests . . .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) recognizing how and when one's lega rights are affected by a problem or issue; b) identifying basic types of legal procedures which may be related to the problem one is dealing with, including lawsuits, criminal procedures, and injunctions. c) identifying the principal legal institutions and actors available to an individual including lawyers, legal clinics, and small claims courts.
	7.5 identify and use the established greivance procedures within a bureaucracy or organization .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) recognizing the nature of bureaucra b) locate sources of information on orieivance procedures.

III. THE COMPONENTS OF BASIC CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

We have briefly summarized the most important characteristics of the seven competencies. And we have said that citizen competence is a primary goal of citizenship education. In this section we define citizenship competence and describe in detail each competency and specific capacities related to it.

A. The Meaning of Citizenship Competence

Competence is a familiar idea. In daily life we often make judgments about people's competence. We may say "he is a competent cook" or "she is a competent lawyer." But just what is competence?

Competence implies a capacity or ability equal to some requirement. It means an ability to do something well.⁸ To say a person is competent means that he or she is qualified or able to perform in a way that meets a standard or requirement in a given situation. A competent trial lawyer, for example, is able to make cogent arguments and purposefully cross-examine witnesses in a courtroom situation. A competent cook can consistently produce nutritious and appetizing results in the kitchen. Of course, we are all familiar with the idea that the same person may be highly competent in one role and less competent in another. The competent lawyer may be a mediocre cook and vice-versa.

In the same sense that individuals can be more or less competent in executing tasks associated with a particular occupational role such as that of lawyer, cook, plumber, secretary or bricklayer, individuals can be more or less competent in coping with tasks of citizenship. Citizenship competence refers to the quality of a person's participation individually or with others in processes related to group governance such as making

decisions, protecting one's interests, or communicating effectively with group leaders. This includes the capacity to act individually in one's own behalf and the capacity to act in concert with others. Thus, by citizenship competencies we mean the particular capacities an individual requires if they are to behave in such a way, or use their efforts in such a manner, as to produce consequences they intend in their role as citizens. In a democratic society, competence implies citizens will produce consequences which do not violate human rights and which are congruent with principles of liberty and justice.

Citizenship competence has both an individual and societal dimension. The individual dimension refers to the skills, abilities, motivations and knowledge developed by the individual as he or she matures. Thus competent citizens have the capacity to exercise leadership or communicate effectively when a given situation requires them to do so. Experience indicates some people are more competent as citizens than others.

The societal dimension of citizen competence refers to the extent to which institutional arrangements in a group permit or facilitate the exercise of individual capacities. An individual's competence in any given situation can be frustrated by social forces or conditions beyond their immediate control. Citizens, for example, have little opportunity to exercise their abilities as information processors in situations where institutions withhold information on public issues or provide only misleading information. Experience shows that some forms of governance and social conditions provide greater opportunity for the exercise of individual competencies than others.

Self-Esteem. Self-esteem has an important relationship to the individual dimension of citizenship competence.⁹ Self-esteem involves

a continuing series of self-other comparisons. For example, "I am smarter than John but not as smart as Mary." Self-esteem is one of the primary ways we locate ourselves in relation to others. One source of heightened self-esteem is the perception that one is good at doing something. Thus, increased self-esteem may result as a person develops citizenship competencies. Being good at the task of citizenship may lead to an increasingly positive self-evaluation.

At the same time, a high level of self-esteem can increase the likelihood an individual will develop greater proficiency with citizenship competencies. Research, for instance, clearly indicates that persons with high self-esteem are more likely to participate in social events than persons with low self-esteem. High levels of self-esteem then appear to facilitate the person's ability to both take part in and learn from their social environment. One implication for citizenship education is that learning experiences in any content area which promote the individual's self-esteem may indirectly contribute to the person's development of citizenship competencies.

Civic Literacy. What some have termed civic or political literacy also has an important relationship to the development of citizenship competencies by individuals. Civic literacy entails an understanding of the basic values of democratic society, knowledge of the operation of informal political processes and formal political institutions, and a continuing awareness of contemporary social issues and problems.

Civic literacy has both an independent and dependent relationship to citizenship competence. That is, at any age level competence in the citizen's role implies an individual will have sufficient knowledge and understanding of the political environment to act effectively. At the same time, competent participation in civic and public life can enhance

factual knowledge directly, deepen understanding and motivate the individual to acquire yet additional knowledge.

B. Seven Basic Citizenship Competencies

We will now take a close look at the components of each of the seven competencies identified earlier. For each competency we will identify several *capacities*. These capacities help us operationalize the competency. The capacities describe behaviors associated with each competency. Specifying capacities provides a way to think about two questions regarding each competency. These are:

1. What experiences will give individuals the chance to acquire and to practice the competency?
2. What behavior will demonstrate the attainment of some level of proficiency with each competency?

The capacities we identify are not intended to be totally exhaustive. Under certain circumstances, with particular individuals capacities other than those listed here may be involved in the exercise of a competency. In addition, the proficiency an individual may attain with any given competency and its related capacities will be constrained by the level of the individual's cognitive, emotional and perceptual development as well as by external factors in their social environment. The capacities we describe in turn involve complex mixes of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Such knowledge, skills and attitudes are generally identifiable but are likely to be uniquely configured in each individual.

For each competency we also identify illustrative learning experiences at each of several age-grade levels.* By learning experiences

*The sample learning experiences for the primary grades were prepared by Dr. Barbara Winston, Northeastern Illinois University. The sample experiences for the intermediate grades were prepared by Dr. Charlotte Anderson, Assistant Director, Law and Humanities Project, American Bar Association. The middle and high school experiences were prepared by Dr. John J. Patrick, Indiana University.

we mean planned exercises and activities wherein pupils interact with an instructional environment which may include a teacher and/or other adults, printed materials, and/or simulated or actual events. The sample learning experiences show that it is possible to provide competency-related instruction in school for individuals from the elementary grades through early adulthood. The examples increase in sophistication and complexity to mirror the expanding cognitive, emotional, social and physical maturation of learners.¹¹

The sample learning experiences have not been field-tested and are neither definitive nor the only instructional strategies for promoting each competency. Rather, they illustrate the kinds of learning experiences that could allow students to acquire and practice each competency. The learning experiences incorporate a wide variety of instructional techniques--such as case-studies, role-playing and group discussion--found in currently available social studies/citizenship materials.¹²

1. ACQUIRING AND USING INFORMATION:
Competence in acquiring and processing information about political situations.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

- 1.1 Use newspapers and magazines to obtain current information and opinions about issues and problems.
- 1.2 Use books, maps, charts, graphs and other sources.
- 1.3 Recognize the unique advantages and disadvantages of radio and television as sources of information about issues and problems.
- 1.4 Identify and acquire information from public and private sources such as government agencies and community groups.
- 1.5 Obtain information from fellow citizens by asking appropriate questions.
- 1.6 Evaluate the validity and quality of information.
- 1.7 Organize and use information collected.

How can I learn what benefits I am entitled under the Medicare system? Is a permit needed to remodel a front porch? Is it really the case that violence in our school is on the rise? What are the legal rights and responsibilities of a poll watcher?

From an early age on all citizens need to acquire and use information about their political environment. This is a task and a responsibility of citizenship from time immemorial. Children, for example, require such competence as they strive to understand why there are often fights on the playground or whether the sixth grade bullies will be hanging around Elm Street on the way to school. Adolescents may need such competence as they look for groups which may share their interests in ecology or as they seek to apply for a work permit. Adults need such competencies when they vote in a referendum on whether to lower property taxes.

Acquiring information means extracting information and data from the environment. Processing information means critically evaluating

and organizing and sensibly using information. We may, of course, acquire information simply for the joy of the process or because some topic or problem interests us. In our citizen role, however, the mere collection of information is often not an especially useful end in itself. Rather, competent citizenship often requires that "information acquired should be used in some purposive manner leading to greater understanding of a situation, an entity, a problem or ideas about productive solutions."¹³

Processing information has become increasingly important. We live in an information-rich culture characterized by public issues that are highly complex and technological in nature. We are often submerged by a torrent of information: economic information on the largest move of the consumer price index or the unemployment rate; sociological information on crime, the divorce rate or smoking habits; opinion polls on politicians or race relations; census information about population shifts or trends in education.

Yet any advantage citizens today might have from this flow of information is frequently offset by the complexity of contemporary issues. For the combination of big institutions and sophisticated technology confront us with an array of technological questions undreamed of two decades, let alone two centuries ago. Should, for example, the United States proceed with the development of nuclear power plants or divert resources to solar energy production? How will deregulation of natural gas affect the prices we pay for heating our homes? Thus in today's information-rich culture often the task facing the citizen is not to acquire additional information but rather to make sense out of and use the Niagara of data already pouring forth on complex topics and problems.

Competence in acquiring and processing information involves the capacity to use printed sources such as newspapers, magazines and books to obtain factual information and opinions about issues and problems. Such competence also involves the capacity to recognize the advantages and disadvantages of radio and television as sources of information, and the capacity to acquire information from sources such as government agencies and community groups. Finally, it involves the capacity to ask appropriate questions.

Competence in acquiring and processing information also requires the capacity to critically evaluate the validity and quality of information acquired. Frequently this information takes the form of assertions about the nature of reality or fact. Upon inquiring, for example, we are told that increasing taxes will help curb inflation, that the United States is dangerously behind the Soviet Union in military strength. What are the facts?

The citizen's task in assessing the quality of information is often confounded by at least two factors. First, biased, inaccurate or misleading information may be intentionally or unintentionally presented to support a particular factual claim. Proponents, for example, of one or another public policy may present "objective" information which only supports the policy, regulation or legislative action that benefits them. Further, the same information can be and often sometimes is introduced to support very different or even contradictory policies.

Second, the technological nature of many issues today means that pertinent information may be highly technical and difficult for a layperson to interpret and evaluate. Confounding this fact is the problem that experts often disagree themselves about the significance and quality of such technical information.

The capacity to evaluate information in turn involves specific abilities and understandings of the type associated with the process of social scientific inquiry. These include the ability to distinguish normative and empirical statements, some understanding of the logic of sampling, the ability to detect bias in data, some understanding of the nature of evidence and the like.

Finally, competence in acquiring and processing information requires the capacity to organize, store and use information in relation to given problems. This, in turn, involves specific abilities associated with critical thinking. These include: comparing, classifying, conceptualizing, inferring, hypothesizing, and imagining. To a considerable extent such thinking processes are interdependent; they cannot be separated. For example, when individuals classify complex data, they may make inferences and draw comparisons in order to categorize the information. Thus, in using any of the processes, individuals may summon one or all other intellectual operations.

Competence with acquiring and using information is related to all six other competencies. In particular, this competence will be enhanced by the capacities associated with competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situation (number 2) and by the capacities related to making judgments (number 4). At the same time, competence with information acquisition and processing and processing is especially important to proficiency in making decisions (number 3), communicating effectively with others (number 5) and working effectively with bureaucratic institutions (number 6).¹⁴

The following learning experiences illustrate ways individuals can be helped to develop competence in acquiring and processing information about political situations in their environment.

Primary Level (Grades K-3)

Students could interpret a teacher-drawn map that shows how a family uses space in their home. Using the map key, students identify spaces that adults use, spaces that children use, and spaces that the whole family shares. Then children sketch maps to show how space is divided and shared in their own homes. Children's maps and the teacher-drawn map can be compared to find similarities and differences in ways families divide and share space.

* * *

Students could identify the best person to ask when given a list of situations or questions and possible people to go to e.g.--

You Want to Know--

1. When will the school gym be open?
2. What are the rules in the cafeteria?
3. Where can I find out about the first school in our community?
4. How do I report a fire or other emergency when I am home alone?

The Best Person to Ask Is--

1. -your mother
-the crossing guard
-the school nurse
-the school principal
2. -a police officer
-the school nurse
-your teacher
3. -the school librarian
-a police officer
-a baseball player
4. -a little boy or girl
-my parents

Intermediate Level (Grades 4-6)

Students could interview members of the city council to find out what decisions they have made in the last year that directly affect the children in the community. For each 'case' locate and review newspaper accounts and relevant council minutes to identify facts and issues in the case. Answer such questions as: How does the council make decisions? Do the newspaper accounts adequately and accurately reflect the council deliberations as recorded in the minutes? What were the differing opinions expressed? What were the concerns of each interested party? Evaluate the council's decisions on the basis of criteria the students identify.

* * *

Students could keep a record of the contents of the classroom wastebasket over several days. Record the information on a chart according to established categories, e.g., notebook paper, ditto sheets, candy/gum wrappers, pencils/crayons, . . . At the end of the period, identify and compare the quantity discarded in each category. Discuss possible waste and ways of curbing the waste. Put this plan into action. Continue to record the discarded items for another period of time equal to the first. At the end of this time, compare findings with the first period. What changes are there? Are fewer items being discarded? Did the plan work?

Middle School Level (Grades 7-9)

Students can become more competent finders of information by practice in using the index section of books. For example, learners might use the index in three U.S. history textbooks to locate all the references to Thomas Jefferson. Learners can practice the skill of information processing by organizing

the findings about Jefferson into three lists: (1) contributions to achievement of American independence, (2) achievements as a public official, and (3) achievements as a scholar and writer.

Grade 10-Adult

Focus the attention of learners on a current public issue that has divided the community. For example, banning or restricting the use of throwaway bottles has been an important issue in many communities. Ask learners to construct a set of questions to uncover public opinions about the issues. Then have learners administer the questionnaire to a representative sample of respondents. After gathering these public opinion data, learners can organize, interpret and report their findings.

2. ASSESSING INVOLVEMENT:

Competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

- 2.1 Identify a wide range of implications for an event or condition.
- 2.2 Identify ways individual actions and beliefs can produce consequences.
- 2.3 Identify your rights and obligations in a given situation.

Will defeat of the school bond issue effect property values in my neighborhood? Does it matter that my fellow team members want to elect the captains next year rather than let the coach choose them? How might a change of government in the Middle East affect the family plan to drive to the west coast next summer? Does it matter whether I report the crime just witnessed? Do I have an obligation to attend the next committee meeting? City officials want to prohibit smoking in public places, what are my rights?

Competence with assessing one's involvement in political situations is important in itself. Some people, while walking through a forest, see nothing. Others perceive the variety of plants, detect growth and decay, observe signs of birds, mammals and insects, and of evolutionary history in the rocks around them. Citizens who can perceive the richness of the political forest around them are more able to protect and promote their interests than citizens who cannot. Such competence, for example, can help an individual make choices about when in cost-benefit terms participation is worth the effort. In addition, this competence is often a necessary condition for proficiency with other competencies such as making judgments, acquiring information, and making decisions.

Assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations means identifying consequences for self and others that may stem

from political events and conditions and identifying the implications for others of one's own actions, values, beliefs and feelings.

Events or conditions impact individuals when they have an affect on one's personal circumstances or physical well-being in such terms as wealth, health, safety and the like. Decisions, for example, regarding food and drug laws may affect one's health. Policies regarding taxation may affect one's wealth. The creation of a civilian review board for a police force may affect one's safety, rights and liberties.

Events or conditions also impact individuals when they affect the person's sense of humanity in terms of their sense of moral integrity, ethical commitment, or spiritual commonality with fellow humans, or sense of pride, patriotism and the like. Discrimination against Jews in Russia is an event likely to be perceived in such ways. Such events may have no immediate or direct impact on one's own physical well-being but their indirect effect on us may be very real nevertheless.

Competently assessing one's involvement or stake in group life requires a capacity to identify the implications of an event or policy. Does, for example, the decision to build a superhighway through town affect only those whose homes that will be lost or does it also have an impact on merchants, trucking companies, paving contractors and engineers among others? The more groups an individual perceives affected by an event or condition, the greater the chance they will be a member of such a group and hence discover how such events or conditions can affect them.

Competence in assessing one's stake in political situations also involves a capacity to identify ways individual actions and beliefs produce consequences in small and large group settings. The competent citizen can see the relationship between his or her actions in a small group and group welfare. For example, the competent union member sees the potential relationship between their economic welfare, declining union memberships

and a steward's request for help with a recruitment drive next Saturday night. Competence involves the capacity to see how individual behavior has consequences for large groups by aggregating or accumulating to produce often unintended consequences for oneself and others. The competent citizen can see, for example, how failure to report a crime is not an isolated act but rather a behavior which, if repeated by many citizens in a community, can lead to a decrease in safety for all.

Finally, competence in assessing one's involvement in group life involves the capacity to identify one's rights and obligations in a given political situation. Rights are prerogatives and protections to which a person is entitled by virtue of their human nature and their membership in a group. Obligations are duties or responsibilities which flow from membership in a group. Obligations may be legally or socially imposed. Citizenship in a group implies a reciprocal relationship between rights and obligations. As one political scientist explains, "citizenship thus is conceived as a condition of reciprocity . . . in which one both enjoys rights and performs duties, in which liberties are mutually balanced by obligations."¹⁵

Competence with assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations is enhanced by competence in acquiring information and making judgments. At the same time, competence in assessing involvement contributes to all the other basic competencies, particularly competence in making decisions (number 3) working with others (number 6) and promoting one's interests (number 7).

The following learning experiences illustrate ways individuals can be helped to develop competence in assessing their involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies.

Primary Level (Grades K-3)

Students could imagine what school would be like if there were no rules (about running, raising one's hand, taking responsibility for one's supplies, etc.). Children draw pictures or write stories to show how they and other children and adults in the school would be affected by the imaginary situation. Pictures or stories can be discussed to identify the people affected and ways in which they were affected by the imagined condition. Children can then discuss the value of given rules.

* * *

The students could listen to or read short stories which present dilemmas such as the following: "The teacher has just told the children that two dollars is missing from the Red Cross collection. Jane saw two children playing with the money while the teacher was out of the room. What should Jane do?" After reading each dilemma story, the children should be directed to identify alternatives open to the person; note the possible consequences of following each suggested course; and determine the best action considering the interests of both the group and the individuals involved.

Intermediate Level (Grades 4-6)

Students could develop a plan for each classroom to assume responsibility to clean-up the school playground, cafeteria, gymnasium, halls or classrooms. The plan could also involve monitoring safety, decorating an area, improving order, etc. The students should then prepare a poster with the names of people assigned to each job so that obligations are recognized.

The governing council presents awards at the end of the year to good citizens who fulfilled their obligations. They should also evaluate overall consequences of the plan, its weaknesses and strengths, and make recommendations for the following year.

* * *

Students could use graphs that show available quantities of a given resource (fuel, metals, forested land, etc.) and graphs that show use of that resource by people in the U.S. in 1930 and 1970. Students project quantities for the graphs during the year 2000. Discuss implications with students if the present trends continue. Have them suggest reasons why they might wish to change the trends and make specific recommendations on how their own behaviors and the behaviors of others might help to accomplish this.

Middle School Level (Grades 7-9)

Present brief examples of decisions by policy-makers in local and national governments in this country and in other countries. For example, one might describe a decision by a local government to ban smoking in public places. Or a decision by a middle eastern government to cut oil production and raise prices might be described. Divide learners into small groups of four or five. Then engage them in a "brainstorming" discussion in which they offer speculative responses to two questions: (1) how might the decision affect me and (2) how might it affect various others. Challenge each small group to generate as many valid responses as possible

within a specified period of time. Then have the groups report their responses to others in the class and defend them against possible criticisms.

Grade 10-Adult

Assign the task of keeping a journal, for one week, to describe political decisions reported in local news media. In addition, ask learners to note in their journals any policy decisions they have experienced directly during the week. Tell learners to assess their stakes in each decision by noting how the decisions might affect them and various others.

3. MAKING DECISIONS:

Competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and problems of citizenship.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

- 3.1 Develop realistic alternatives.
- 3.2 Identify the consequences of alternatives for self and others.
- 3.3 Determine goals or values involved in a decision.
- 3.4 Assess the consequences of alternatives based on stated values or goals.

Should I vote for candidate x or y in the next election? Should I join with my fellow students in protesting the high school's new parking regulations? Should we support the principal's new staff development program? Should I attend the public hearing on rezoning the land next to the new school or not bother.

Decision-making is an inescapable part of citizenship for young and old alike.¹⁶ Children require decision-making competence when they must choose a leader for a playground game or decide whether or not to break a school rule. Adolescents need decision-making competence when a problem requires them to choose between loyalty to their peers or to their family. Adults need such competence when they choose local, state and national political leaders.

A decision is a choice among two or more alternatives. As individual citizens we constantly face the task of making choices among many possible alternative courses of action. In addition, we often cooperate or take part with others in group decision-making activities. For example, when we serve on a committee or vote in an election we are taking part in group decision-making processes.

Over a lifetime citizens face an incredible variety of decisions regarding phenomena, problems and processes of group governance. These include selecting leaders, deciding how to manage or resolve conflict

or disagreements; choosing ways to handle the effects of interdependence such as a gasoline shortage; determining what rules to make, how to allocate benefits, what goals to set and on.

Three enduring decision problems faced by young and old alike have to do with loyalty, compliance or support, and participation in group life. These enduring dilemmas of citizenship are: (1) under what conditions should I (as citizen of a family or a city, or a nation, or the global community) be loyal to and proud of my group, and when should I be critical? (2) under what conditions should I (as citizen of a given group) actively participate in the political life of the group and if necessary sacrifice for the common good and when should I defend or assert my private interests or withdraw to nurture my private life.

Thoughtful decision-making involves a conscious search for alternatives and assessment of the consequences of alternatives in light of the decision-maker's values or preferred goals. Thoughtful decision-makers take account of the impact of their choices on both self and the group. Consideration of both facts and values are involved in thoughtful decision-making.

Facts are involved in the identification and consideration of alternatives and their consequences. Should, for example, the principal make rules that restrict individual rights but promote orderly behavior? In part the decision involves gathering and evaluating information about facts. How unruly are students? What evidence is there that proposed remedies will have any effect? Are there legal implications in limiting students' speech?

Values and value judgments are also a critical part of thoughtful citizenship decision-making.¹⁷ The thoughtful decision-maker makes value judgments when labeling consequences as negative or positive. While establishing goals, the thoughtful decision-maker engages in clarification

of values and ethical reasoning. Such clarification involves asking, "What is important, what do I want, and what is right or wrong in this situation?" Citizen decision-makers who lack the capacity to clarify and analyze their values may establish goals or choose alternatives that unwittingly contradict their own or democratic values.

Thoughtful decision-making related to group governance involves several capacities. These are a capacity to identify alternative courses of action; a capacity to determine important values or goals affecting the decision and a capacity to consider the positive and negative consequences of alternatives in terms of stated goals or values.

In any decision situation, these capacities may apply unequally. For example, in some situations one may know the available alternatives, but be unclear as to what one's goals really are. In other situations, the heart of the decision-making task may be to think creatively of alternatives for reaching a clear and longstanding goal. In yet other situations, alternatives and goals may be clearly known, but the real challenge is to predict accurately the consequences of alternatives.

Competence with making decisions clearly involves several other competencies. In particular, decision-making competence will be enhanced by the one's competence in acquiring and using information (number 1), by competence in assessing one's involvement in political situations (number 2) and by one's competence in using appropriate standards to make judgments (number 4).

The following learning experiences illustrate ways individuals can be helped to develop competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and enduring dilemmas of citizenship.

Primary Grades (K-3)

Students could look at pictures showing two or more children faced with a problem situation (a child chasing a ball into the street and a car approaching, a kite caught in a tree, an animal caught in a house on fire and unnoticed, etc.). Children identify the problem, generate alternative solutions to the problem, evaluate consequences of each alternative in terms of their own welfare and the welfare of others, and decide on a course of action with a rationale.

* * *

The students could look at pictures of children responding in different ways to the same choice situation. Describe the situation and way each is responding. Tell what seems to be important to each child as suggested by their behavior. Evaluate the responses on basis of criteria established and suggest other possible responses. Consider own responses in similar situation. Pictures might show; e.g., a small child who has fallen off a tricycle and is sitting next to the fallen bike crying. Picture 1 shows a 6 or 7 year old running past to flag down the ice cream truck. Picture 2 shows another 6 or 7 year old running past to join a ball game. Picture 3 shows 6 or 7 year old stopping to comfort and help the crying child.

Intermediate Level (Grades 4-6)

Students could evaluate a state highway department's proposal that a new highway should be built through a large park. The department's arguments say that the proposal would be cheapest since the route is the shortest between two cities and park land is government owned. Students identify groups that might

be affected by the decision (taxpayers, families with homes around the park, wildlife groups, people who use the park for recreation or study, etc.), and role-play how each group might feel about the proposal. Students decide if the highway department's proposal should be supported or whether alternative proposal(s) would be preferable, and present reasons for their decisions.

* * *

Students could establish criteria needed to make a decision about a class party, a field trip, or a speaker. Groups of children discuss alternative ways to carry out the activity and present suggestions to the class. The whole group votes on a plan based on one or more proposals consistent with established criteria.

Middle School (Grades 7-9)

Students can sharpen decision-making skills by keeping a log of important decisions made during one week. They can be required to chart these decisions by identifying alternatives, likely consequences of each alternative, and their goals in each occasion for decision. Finally, students can reveal their choices in each instance, why they made the choice, and whether or not they are satisfied with the outcome.

Grade 10-Adult

Decision-making skills can be practiced through analyses of realistic cases of group governance. For example, learners can read a case study about public officials trying to decide whether or not to ban swimming in a large lake. The city health officer has presented evidence of pollution in the lake that might be dangerous to the health of swimmers.

However, the city's businesses, which depend on tourist trade,

could be damaged severely if the council decides to ban swimming. Furthermore, the pollution levels are not so high that the danger to swimmers is certain. In this case, the city council faces a decision in which basic environmental and public health values are in conflict with basic economic values. Learners can be asked to analyze this case, make a justifiable decision and then defend it in discussion with other learners.

4. MAKING JUDGMENTS:

Competence in developing and using standards such as justice, ethics, morality and practicality to make judgments of people, institutions, policies, and decisions.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

- 4.1 Identify and, if necessary, develop appropriate criteria for making a judgment.
- 4.2 Apply the criteria to known facts.
- 4.3 Periodically reassess criteria.
- 4.4 Recognize that others may apply different criteria to a problem.

Is it fair that the teacher cancelled recess because several kids were talking during the spelling lesson? Was the mayor's decision to buy new snow plows a wise use of tax money? What criteria should we use to judge whether the proposal to locate a nuclear power plant in our county is good or bad? How should we evaluate the performance of our club's officers last year?

Making judgments is one of the most pervasive tasks of citizenship. Competence with making judgments is required when citizens evaluate whether it was a mistake for the President to veto a new law or students determine whether it is unfair that the city prohibits bike riding in city sidewalks. Such competence is also required when citizens must determine what judgment criteria or standards to use in a situation. Does, for example, one evaluate a court's decision to permit a neo-Nazi march in terms of individual liberties, public safety or yet other criteria?

Judgments involve evaluative activity. Judgments are claims about the goodness or badness, the desirability or undesirability, the appropriateness or inappropriateness of given phenomena. To judge a person, institution, policy or decision is to weigh its worth in terms of some set of criteria. Judgments may be rigorous, take a long time, involve an

elaborate set of criteria, be based on limited data or intuition, and be made quickly.

Criteria are standards or rules for making judgments; they are assertions about the qualities, characteristics or properties in terms of which a phenomena will be judged. Criteria help individuals evaluate and determine the worth of something. For example, the use of majority rule is one criterion for judging whether a group makes decisions democratically. As individuals develop into adult citizens they learn criteria to make many different judgments associated with the citizen role. These are, in effect, "ready-made" criteria and they make it easy for people to make judgments quickly. For example, individuals learn that honesty is a standard for judging the worth of a political candidate. Some people are more aware or conscious than others that they are using criteria when they make judgments as citizens. Conscious use of criteria can result in more effective citizen judgment-making.

Competent citizens will use criteria which are consistent with their purposes and values. Thus, competence with making judgments involves the capacity to consciously identify and develop if necessary criteria to make a judgment that reflect one's needs and values. For example, a competent citizen who values the arts and cultural programming will not judge a candidate's qualifications for public office solely in terms of the candidate's physical appearance. Rather, they will use criteria related to the candidate's past record in support of the arts as at least one important criterion for judgment. Establishing criteria is the value phase of making judgments and reflects the individual's claim about the values in terms of which a phenomena should be judged.

Competence with making judgments involves the capacity to apply criteria systematically to a given issue or problem. When applying criteria the individual assesses the extent to which the phenomena

being judged does or does not possess or measure up to the desired qualities, characteristics or properties reflected in one's criteria. Applying criteria is the performance phase of making judgments in that we appraise the "performance" of a policy or individual terms of criteria.

It should be noted here than an important ability or skill associated with this capacity is the ability to prioritize or rank multiple criteria in terms of their importance. This is because individuals rarely make judgments in terms of a single criterion. Rather, they use multiple criteria to make judgments and frequently these criteria are of unequal importance.

Competence with making judgments also involves the capacity to periodically reassess criteria in light of available evidence about their workability and the degree to which they continue to reflect one's values. For example, it was once thought horsepower and speed were sufficient criteria to judge the performance of automobile engines. Today, however, for many energy conscious citizens miles per gallon and pollution emission levels have also become important criteria in judging engines.

Finally, competence with making judgments involves the capacity to recognize that other individuals and groups may use different criteria to make judgments. In contrast to the west, for example, Asians learn that assymetry rather than symmetry is a standard for judging the beauty of an object.

Competence with judgment making is closely related to competence with making decisions (number 3), working with others (number 6) and promoting one's interests. At the same time, competence in acquiring information (number 1) and assessing one's involvement in political situations will greatly enhance proficiency with making judgments.

The following learning experiences illustrate ways individuals can be helped to develop competence in developing and using standards such as social justice, morality and practicality to make judgments of persons, institutions, policies, and decisions encountered in political situations.

Primary Level (Grades K-3)

Students could generate a list of criteria for judging the arrangement of their own classroom and explain why each is important. This list may include such criteria as: safe; looks nice; places for people to do different things. Place students in small groups to build models of the room based on established criteria. Present, compare, and evaluate individual models. Arrange the classroom according to one of the most highly rated models. After a period of time, re-evaluate this arrangement; make appropriate adjustments. Do the criteria still stand? Are others needed?

* * *

Students could generate a list of several things they like to do (a range of activities such as running, resting, climbing, digging, reading, eating, etc.) They observe various rooms in the school to see which of their favorite activities would be appropriate for the spaces available. As they observe each room and make suggestions for possible activities, children provide reasons why the observed space might be more appropriate for one activity than another (e.g., the gym is better than the classroom for running because there is more space, fewer obstacles, running is allowed, etc.).

Intermediate Level (Grades 4-6)

Students could use a graph that shows amounts of money spent in one year by the U.S. government on health, education, military expenses, and help to foreign countries. Discuss the information on the graph and designate groups of students to assume the following roles and write letters to the government: a) a school principal, b) a doctor, c) a person from a country where people do not have enough to eat, d) a military leader. Have students read completed letters aloud and discuss reasons for similarities and differences in their opinions.

* * *

Students could imagine they are sign painters for a multinational corporation with factories in Nairobi, Paris, Madrid, Tokyo, and Brazil. Their task is to prepare signs for use in every factory to communicate messages such as No Parking, Visitors Welcome, No Smoking, Turn Out the Lights, etc. Have two groups of students work on one message, two more groups on another message and so on. Groups should design the most effective way to carry out the task. Students show completed signs while others guess the messages. Through discussion, students see the relevant criteria for judging the sign (whether it communicates the message and can be used in all locations) and see that there may be more than one "right" way to communicate the same message.

Middle School (Grade 7-9)

Students could be asked to formulate in writing one standard, or criterion, for justifying each one of several choices encountered in daily living, such as buying a pair of shoes,

selecting players in a pick-up basketball game, or casting a vote in a public election. Then learners can be paired and each person in every pair can be asked to report and justify his/her criterion to the partner.

Grade 10-Adult

Learners could complete a written exercise in which they formulate, justify, and apply a set of criteria for judging the performance or personalities and/or institutions. For example, they might be asked to use criteria to judge the role behavior of a public official, a candidate for public office, or a salesperson advertising a product. Begin the lesson by having each learner select an object for appraisal. Then require the learner to formulate and justify at least three criteria by which to judge to object. Finally, have the learner rate the object in terms of the criteria and justify the rating in an oral report.

5. COMMUNICATING:

Competence in communicating ideas to other citizens, decision-makers, leaders and officials.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

- 5.1 Develop reasons supporting your point of view.
- 5.2 Present these viewpoints to friends, neighbors, and acquaintances.
- 5.3 Present these viewpoints in writing to public officials, political leaders and to newspapers and magazines.
- 5.4 Present these viewpoints at public meetings such as committees, school board meetings, city government sessions, etc.

Maria wants her 4-H club to enter a project in the county fair--she stands up in a club meeting to argue for her position. A group of high school students encounter the assistant principal in the hall. They discuss ideas for an after-school gym program. The assistant principal asks them to "put their ideas for a new program in writing." Tom is asked by his neighborhood association to testify at the next city council meeting.

Competence in communicating one's ideas to others is an essential part of citizenship in a democracy. Children and adolescents, for example, require such competence when they seek to influence the decisions of their peers or when they participate in school or club activities. Adults may need such competence when they try to influence the decision of a public official or when they need to provide information in order to obtain benefits from or deal with a bureaucracy. Competence in communicating one's ideas is relevant to citizens of all ages when they simply wish to make the opinions known regarding an issue or problem.

The term communicating is used here in the narrow sense of passing along or transmitting ideas and information to others in either written or oral form. Communicating as meant here may or may not involve two-way interaction between communicator and an intended recipient of information.

In one sense formulating an argument and presenting it effectively has been a task of citizenship from time immemorial. In another sense, communicating information and ideas to officials and political leaders has become increasingly challenging as the scale of society and the complexity of issues has increased. Today one may need or wish to communicate with officials in a bewildering array of agencies far removed from one's immediate community. Often communicating with such officials involves coping with esoteric jargon and a cobweb of regulations and procedures.

Competence in communicating with others involves the capacity to construct an argument representing one's point of view. It further involves the capacity to present information and/or one's argument to others in writing or orally. And it involves the capacity to accomplish personal presentations in either informal settings with neighbors and acquaintances or in public arenas such as school board or city council meetings.

Proficiency with this competence will be greatly facilitated by competence in acquiring and processing information (number 1) as well as by competence in making judgments (number 4). At the same time, facility with communicating information to others can enhance one's competence in cooperating and working with others (number 6), and one's competence in working effectively with bureaucratically organized institutions (number 7).

The following learning experiences indicate ways individuals could be helped to develop competence in communicating their ideas to fellow citizens and decision-makers, leaders and officials.

Primary Level (Grades K-3)

The students could discuss possible ways of resolving some problem in the classroom. For example, if people are not

hanging up their coats and putting their boots away properly when they come in the morning and after recesses, what should be done about it? Think of all the reasons this is good and all the reasons this is not good. After having an opportunity to think about responses, sit in a circle and listen to each person present his or her position in turn. After everyone has had an opportunity to speak, identify each of the reasons why this is good and each of the reasons why this is not good. On the basis of these reasons, decide what the class should do and why. Agree to each follow the decision of the group.

* * *

Students could identify an issue in the school (gum on desks, a clean-up problem, or another relatively simple issue). They should seek information about the problem with special attention to who is affected and who will be affected by its resolution. Students should then solicit opinions about resolving the issue from a reasonable sample of concerned individuals or groups. Based on information from interviews, students construct and present arguments to student governing body.

Intermediate Level Grades 4-6)

Students could study a relevant problem in the community. After study, students decide on their positions relative to the problem and prepare supportive arguments to defend their viewpoints. Identify the appropriate means for presenting arguments (letters, orally, etc.), and decide on people to whom arguments should be presented. Follow-through with oral and/or written presentations to designated audiences.

Middle School (Grades 7-9)

Assign students to look at the Letters to the Editor section of a local newspaper for a one or two week period. Tell each student to select one letter, which takes a stand about a current issue, and try to criticize the letterwriter's position. Have the learner write a letter to the editor to rebut the letter he/she has critiqued in class.

Grade 10-Adult

Require learners to use newspapers, TV newscasts, and radio news programs as sources of information about a current issue before their state legislature or city council. Have them chart the decision making situation and arrive at a defensible choice. Then have each person draft a letter to communicate his/her opinion on the issue to a representative in the state legislature or city council. Require each learner to exchange his/her draft with a partner. Have each person in every pair critique his/her partner's letter in terms of criteria for writing letters to public officials that should have been taught previously. Conclude the lesson by having learners write final drafts of their letters, taking account of criticisms, and sending the letters to their representatives in the state legislature or city council.

6. COOPERATING:

Competence in cooperating and working with others in groups and organizations to achieve mutual goals.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

- 6.1 Clearly present your ideas about group tasks and problems.
- 6.2 Take various roles in a group.
- 6.3 Tolerate ambiguity.
- 6.4 Manage or cope with disagreement within the group.
- 6.5 Interact with others using democratic principles.
- 6.6 Work with others of different race, sex, culture, ethnicity, age and ideology.

Steve has been selected as the 5th grade safety patrol captain and now must work with other patrol members to devise next week's schedule. Carlos wants to continue working as a volunteer with the local court watching project but he disagrees with many of the project director's ideas. Sheila has gotten most of her fellow tenants to go along with the idea of a rent strike--now they look to her for continued leadership.

Much of the citizenship and politics of daily life occurs in relation to the governance of such groups as the family, school, the work place, and voluntary organizations. In addition, participation in the governance of larger groups often occurs through the medium of small groups such as councils, task forces, committees and the like. Competence in cooperating and working with others is required when a student is appointed to a group planning the class picnic. It is also exercised when high school students organize a demonstration in support of a popular teacher who was dismissed. Similarly, such competence is displayed when a group of adults form a committee to distribute petitions required to get a candidate's name on a ballot in a local election.

This competence involves a range of human relations and self-management capacities requisite to relating effectively to others. These capacities have a distinctly affective dimension. They entail attitudes and emotional orientations associated with ways people interact with each other. The capacities are the capacity to clearly present one's ideas in written or oral form; the capacity to take various roles in a group such as leader or follower; the capacity to tolerate ambiguity, the capacity to manage conflict; the capacity to guide one's interaction with others by democratic principles.

This last capacity--to apply democratic principles--deserves special attention. Democratic citizenship means a commitment to the dignity of all individuals and the preservation of the values of life, liberty and property. In a democracy these rights are seen as inalienable; that is, they were not given to individuals by governments, and no government may legitimately take them away. Democratic citizenship also means commitment to equal opportunity for all people to develop their individual capacities. This commitment applies to the chance to influence public policy. It also applies to equality of opportunity in the social, educational, and economic as well as political aspects of life.

Competency in this regard, however, does not mean abstract commitment to these ideals but the *application* of these ideals in dealing with others in daily life. For adults this means relating to and making decisions about others in group settings in non-egocentric, non-ethnocentric and non-stereo-typic ways. Neither a teacher nor a parent should be very satisfied with students who could recite the Golden Rule and Bill of Rights accurately but who consistently infringed on the rights of those around them.

Unfortunately, research indicates we have often been more successful in developing students' cognitive knowledge of democratic principles than in developing their capacity to act on those principles in their daily relations with others.

The National Council for the Social Studies Revised Curriculum Guidelines emphasize this point when they note:

This century has witnessed countless blatant violation of human dignity in the presence of supposedly well educated populaces. It has been frequently asserted that knowledge is power; however, there is little evidence to assert that people who know what is true will do what is considered right. Commitment to human dignity must put the power of knowledge to use in the service of humanity.¹⁸

Finally, it should be noted that while self-esteem is related to all the basic citizenship competencies, it probably bears a special relationship to this competency. Research consistently affirms that self-esteem is fundamental to active citizenship in small group settings. And "if an individual feels worthless and ineffective, he or she will perceive that there is nothing to be gained by becoming involved."¹⁹

Competence in working with others will be enhanced by proficiency with making decisions (number 3) and judgments (number 4). At the same time this competence can enhance one's competence in protecting one's interests (number 7). Often the most effective way to promote and protect one's interests is to join forces with others with similar interests.

The following are illustrations of learning experiences which can help individuals develop competence in cooperating and working with others in group and organizational settings in order to achieve goals.

Primary Level (K-3)

Students could role-play a problem situation involving a child and adult. The problem should incorporate (a) a responsibility for the child (doing the dishes, cleaning-up the art table, erasing the board, etc.), (b) the child's desire to do something

"legitimate" other than his or her responsibility (play baseball with the team, do a homework assignment, help a friend fix a wagon, etc.). After children understand the problem, have them role-play alternative solutions including the following examples: a) compromise, b) the adult "giving-up," b) the child "giving-up." Discuss the consequences of each solution.

* * *

Students could look at pictures that show ways in which family members depend on one another. Pictures should show children depending on adults (for protection, to learn, etc), and adults depending on children (for love and affection, to learn, to do chores, etc.). Then children draw one picture showing how adults in their families depend on them, and one picture showing how they depend on adults.

Intermediate Level (Grades 4-6)

The students could observe the teacher leading a demonstration discussion. After discussing the roles of the leader and the participants, the students will form small groups with student discussion leaders. An observer, assigned to each group, will report at the close of the discussion what the group did. After considering what might be done differently, new leaders will be identified and the process repeated focusing on a new topic.

* * *

Students could use case studies to practice identifying and evaluating alternative means of managing conflict growing out of group membership. The following is a useful case: "A group of girls built a clubhouse in Erica's backyard. Ann and Pam brought all the lumber while everyone worked to make the

clubhouse. After the clubhouse was finished, Erica took a new way home from school. When she passed the lumberyard, she heard two people talking about the lumber that was missing. One hundred dollars worth, from the pile out in front! Erica's heart jumped into her throat. Where did Ann and Pam get all that beautiful new lumber? What should she do now?"

Middle-School (Grades 7-9)

Organize students into small groups of four or five members. Give each group the task of planning and carrying out a certain classroom assignment, such as (a) creating a bulletin board display, (b) organizing and conducting a classroom discussion on a current topic of interest to the group, (c) choosing, inviting, and hosting a guest speaker on a current topic, and (d) organizing and conducting a classroom social event. One inviolate requirement of each small group activity is that every group member must make a tangible and significant contribution to achieving the group's goals. Conclude the lesson by conducting a debriefing discussion that focuses on problems and successes in cooperating to achieve a group goal.

Grade 10-Adult

Require small groups of learners, four or five members to a group, to identify, plan, and carry out a community service project such as (a) an anti-litter campaign in the school or community, (b) a fund-raising project to provide money for a local charity, (c) a get-out-the-vote drive in a neighborhood during an election campaign, etc. Have participants keep a

log of their experiences. Finally, have them report and debrief their experiences in a discussion with other learners.

7. PROMOTING INTERESTS:

Competence in working with bureaucratically organized institutions in order to promote and protect one's interests and values.

Which involves and is demonstrated by a CAPACITY to:

- 7.1 Recognize your interests and goals in a given situation.
- 7.2 Identify an appropriate strategy for a given situation.
- 7.3 Work through organized groups to support your interest.
- 7.4 Use legal remedies to protect your rights and interests.
- 7.5 Identify and use the established grievance procedures within a bureaucracy or organization.

A fourth grader talks with friends about how to get into the "neatest" activities at summer camp. A teenager registers with the Bureau of Motor Vehicles in order to obtain a drivers license and in the same week visits his father's union office to learn how to qualify for college scholarship benefits available from the union. A group of irate homeowners files a complaint with the state insurance commission against a disreputable property insurance company.

Contemporary society is marked by the growth of large institutions that have an increasing influence on our daily lives.²⁰ Along with the growth of big government and big business in a modern life has come an increase in professionalism, technocratic decision-making and bureaucracy in the political and economic sectors of society. When organizations reach a certain size, whether they are schools, summer camps, corporations, universities, labor unions or government, they take on universal bureaucratic characteristics. These characteristics include specialization or division of labor; hierarchy, or fixed lines of command; and job security incentives to attract workers and build their loyalty. In turn, such characteristics are usually understood to lead to impersonality, devotion to rules at the cost of individual values, rigidity, too much paperwork and red tape.

Competence in dealing effectively with bureaucratically organized institutions is increasingly a part of citizenship. Citizens acting individually and with others interact with these large, bureaucratically organized institutions in two ways. First, we are consumers or recipients of public services and products of such organizations-- particularly of government institutions. There has been a tremendous growth of the role of government in providing goods and services since the end of World War II. Today, local, state and national government provides electricity through government-owned utilities, inspects the food we eat and the medicines we use, provides weather forecasts via satellites, finances low-interest mortgages, operates school buses, provides welfare payments and food stamps, trains the handicapped, runs hospitals, sets health and safety regulations, regulates the stock market and so on--indeed any list of government services and activities today seems almost endless.

Government provision of services is part of a societal movement toward a "service-consumer society" in which society related work and the consumption of service are replacing manufacturing as primary factors. Social scientists explain that the basic framework of the emerging service society is a political economy characterized by a tremendous expansion occurring in health, education and welfare services and in government employment.²¹

Second, citizens increasingly look to various government agencies to promote their interests, values and causes. Thus, for example, blacks, Mexican-Americans and Indians may look to the Department of Justice to promote their civil rights. Citizens concerned with the quality of the environment attempt to promote their interests through federal, state and local environmental agencies. Similarly, citizen groups often must

work with consumer agencies as well as large corporations in order to promote and protect their economic interests.

Competence in working with bureaucratically organized institutions involves a range of capacities. These are the capacity to identify one's interests and goals in a given situation; the capacity to identify an appropriate influence strategy or tactic in a given situation; a capacity to use organized groups to support one's interests; a capacity to use legal remedies to protect one's rights and interests.

Thus, a competent citizen could, for instance, determine whether it would be more appropriate to work with a lawyer or a doctor to obtain Medicare benefits which were unfairly denied. A competent citizen would recognize the value of finding an interest group such as a local consumer organization which supported his or her values in a given conflict. A competent citizen could know how to enlist legal assistance (e.g., a small claims court, a legal clinic) when necessary to protect their rights.

Competence in dealing with bureaucratic organizations is enhanced by several other competencies, especially competence in assessing involvement (number 2), making decisions and judgments (numbers 3 and 4) and communicating with others (number 5).

The following learning experiences illustrate how individuals can be helped to develop competence in working effectively with bureaucratically organized institutions in order to promote and protect their interests and values.

Primary Level (Grades K-3)

The students could identify problems in the school which directly affect them. Find out if there are any rules which should be preventing the problem. If so, devise strategies to have the

rules more effectively enforced. If not, devise strategies to establish rules to correct the situation. For example, a group of third graders is unhappy because the older students are always using the monkey bars at recess with the result that they never get a chance to play on the monkey bars.

* * *

The students could identify, role-play and evaluate alternative ways to exert influence when assuming the role of the central character in cases such as the following: (1) Mary Jane's family is trying to decide whether to go to the zoo or a ballgame this weekend--Mary Jane wants to go to a ballgame; (2) Dick's teacher has told the class they can decide whether to have math first in the morning or after recess--Dick wants math first; (3) Barbara's club is trying to decide how to spend the money they have earned mowing yards--Barbara thinks half the money should go to charity.

Intermediate Level (Grades 4-6)

The students could organize a club. Working together as a group decide what will be the purpose of the club. Identify other potential members and have a membership drive. During the first club meetings determine what activities the club members will participate in, what the dues will be, and elect officers.

* * *

The students could investigate a problem in the community. After doing research on the problem, determine the position the group will take. Identify other community groups which are likely to support that position and invite them to join in a cooperative effort to influence other citizens and

and community officials. Evaluate alternative strategies to use such as making posters, writing letters, holding public informational meetings or demonstrations, conducting a telephone campaign, etc. Possible problems might be: children crossing unsafe streets on the way to school; limited and inaccessible recreational facilities; abandoned and unsafe buildings which children are playing in; too many dogs running loose and scaring children.

Middle School (Grades 7-9)

Present tips for effective citizen action in influencing public officials. For example, indicate how to use the law to pressure bureaucrats or how to use ombudsmen of the type provided by certain metropolitan newspapers or television stations. Then have students apply tips for influencing public officials to the analysis of case-studies of citizens faced with problems of dealing with recalcitrant or incompetent bureaucrats. Have students devise strategies for solving the citizen's problem in each case.

Grade 10-Adult

Have learners "map" a local bureaucratic agency to find out who is who, how the agency works, who to see to obtain different services, who has certain kinds of decision-making authority, the chain of command, etc. Some of this information can be obtained from an organizational chart of the agency. Other information might be obtained through interviews of personnel within the agency.

Finally, information may be obtained through interviews of some of the agency's clients and from recent newspaper stories about the agency. Conclude the lesson by having learners report about how the agency functions and whom to approach and how in order to obtain services.

C. Testing for Citizenship Competencies?

The citizenship competencies described here represent desired goals or outcomes of citizenship education. This typology of competencies can help educators clarify their goals in the area and assess the degree to which their current programming teaches basic skills individuals need as children and as adults.

Can these competencies be reliably and validly measured through minimum competency testing programs or state and national assessments? The question is important because there is a growing concern for minimum competency testing. Currently thirty-six states have set up testing programs to measure student skills in such areas as reading, writing and mathematics. Nine of these states have included citizenship as one of the areas in which competency should be demonstrated.*

Research and experience indicate that it may be very difficult to meaningfully test large numbers of students for important citizenship competencies and to interpret test results once obtained. There are special considerations involved in measuring citizenship competencies which do not apply equally to such areas as science, mathematics, reading and writing.

Difficulty in mass-scale testing of citizenship competencies arises from the fact that unlike the sciences, reading and writing, some of the

*These are California, Georgia, Missouri, North Carolina, Oregon, Utah, Vermont, Virginia and Wyoming.²⁷

most important citizenship competencies involve human relations and social skills which are extremely difficult to measure using paper and pencil tests. Yet at present practical considerations all but require the use of paper and pencil tests in minimum competency testing programs. As a result, some of the most important citizenship competencies such as making decisions, making judgments, working with others, are extremely difficult to reliably and validly measure in such programs.

What appears to be happening where such testing is attempted is that important competencies or objectives are reduced to often trivial aspects of the citizen role. The result is that schools, teachers and programs are assessed in terms of those aspects of citizenship competence which can easily be measured. Thus, the importance of what is being measured becomes inversely related to its measurability.

Difficulties in interpreting citizenship test scores stem from the nature of the political learning process through which citizenship competencies are developed. Research indicates that political learning is a society-wide process affected by many "agents" or societal forces in addition to the schools. Individuals can and do acquire citizenship related knowledge, skills attitudes and values on the street, in the home, from television and peers as well as from teachers and classes in school.

In contrast, while non-school forces can effect a students' ability to learn other subjects, we do not expect the mass-media or peer groups to teach students physics, chemistry, writing or mathematics. In today's society this educational task has become largely specialized to the school.

The implication of the society-wide nature of citizenship education is that when students are given citizenship competency tests it may be difficult to attribute variance in test scores between school and non-school

factors. This means it can be difficult to determine the contribution to students' scores of the schools as opposed to the home, peers, television, and the like. The National Assessment of Educational Progress recently faced this problem. Results from a recent citizenship/social studies assessment of junior and senior high students showed students' knowledge of basic legal rights had increased since the last assessment. However, it was very difficult to ascertain to what extent this outcome was attributable to increased exposure to police-oriented television shows or to increased efforts at legal education in the schools.

Competence testing is often advocated as a means of forcing greater accountability upon the schools. However, given prevailing competency-testing and assessment techniques, there is presently little reason to believe that such testing can help educators, policy-makers or parents make more informed judgments about the contribution of the schools to basic citizenship competencies.

However, difficulties of the type just described do not mean teachers and curriculum supervisors working closely with students in classroom settings cannot evaluate student progress in developing basic citizenship competencies. Quite the contrary. Good teaching must include procedures for determining whether instruction has or has not been successful in helping students achieve desired changes in competence. These procedures should not be add-ons but rather an integral, continuing part of the instructional process. Instructional theorists such as Davies, Popham and Baker and Patrick consider in detail the theory and practice associated with assessing instruction and learning.²³

A variety of appraisal strategies are likely to be necessary to assess student achievement of knowledge, skills and attitudes pertinent to basic citizenship competencies. These would certainly include paper and pencil type tests. However, in addition, appraisal would likely require somewhat less familiar techniques including teacher observation of student performance in real and/or simulated settings and student self-reports and diaries. The ultimate goal of all such appraisal of student learning should be to assist teachers and/or curriculum developers to improve their instructional techniques and materials.

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IV. A WORKING DEFINITION OF CITIZENSHIP FOR EDUCATORS

The basic competencies described above are anchored in and derive from a broad rather than a narrow, legalistic conception of citizenship. It is useful to consider this conception because as interest in citizenship education has grown, both educators and policy-makers have found the citizenship concept ambiguous. This in turn has frequently led to difficulty in identifying the focus for citizenship education programs.

One alternative, attractive to some, has been to view citizenship narrowly in terms of the individual's relation to formal institutions and processes of government at the local, state and national level. Individuals are taken to be acting in the status of citizen when they are dealing with governments in some way or others. This conception has the advantage of precision and a kind of attractive simplicity. However, it also has disadvantages for educators concerned with preparing young people for competent membership in society presently *and* as adults.

A narrow conception largely overlooks the political interactions which occur in daily life in such settings as the home, school and club. As a result, it is largely divorced from the experiential world of all but the oldest students. Hence, it implies citizenship education programming which is not personally meaningful for students and which treats students as passive learners who are future entrants to adult, governmental institutions. In addition, a narrow or state-centric conception slights the fact that today important values are often authoritatively allocated by large, non-governmental organizations in the civic rather than the public order. Finally, the narrow view does not readily square

with the conceptions held by many teachers and parents who think of citizenship as somehow relating to student behavior in many different domains.

An alternative has been to view citizenship as related to the totality of our sociability. In a word, the status of citizen is seen as a complex intertwining of the personal, social, anthropological and ecological dimensions of human identity. In the popular version of this view citizenship often comes to refer to practically all pro-social behavior. A difficulty here is that one quickly finds the citizenship concept of little use for developing instructional programs and making curriculum decisions. Citizenship viewed so broadly loses all empirical referent and comes to include everything and hence nothing. Put another way, such a broad conception makes it very difficult to distinguish instances and non-instances of the concept of citizenship.

The inherent ambiguity in the citizenship concept can be satisfactorily handled by considering key characteristics of the role of citizen in today's society.²⁴ These are:

1. Citizenship is exercised in relation to governing or managing a group. Thus while citizenship is an inherent part of human sociability, not all social behavior is citizenship behavior.
2. Citizenship is exercised in relation to many types of groups including but not limited to cities, states and nation.
3. Citizenship is exercised by young and old alike and involves a wide range of decisions, judgments and actions which include more than such adult activities as voting, paying taxes and obeying laws.
4. Citizenship involves participation in group life but the relationship of participation to citizenship is complex. For example, there is not necessarily a direct relationship between "good citizenship" and political participation.
5. Citizenship behavior in large groups such as a nation is linked to issues of group governance through *aggregative*

processes. For example, the supply of energy for the nation is not a direct result of decisions made by any one citizen. Availability and price of energy are rather a cumulative consequence of aggregating the energy-related decisions and actions of millions of citizens.²⁵

6. Citizenship is increasingly exercised in an international or global context.

With these characteristics in mind, the following is a useful working definition of citizenship for educators:

Citizenship involves the rights, responsibilities and tasks associated with governing the various groups to which a person belongs.

These groups may include families, churches, labor unions, schools and private associations as well as cities, states, the nation and the global system. As members of these groups, young people as well as adults are involved--directly or indirectly, knowingly or unknowingly--in citizenship problems and tasks associated with participation in group life. As the basic citizenship competencies indicate, this conception of citizenship implies that the task of citizenship education is not simply a task of preparing the young for a future adult role. Nor is it simply a task of teaching facts and loyalties relevant to governmental institutions.

A. Governance as a Central Feature of the Citizenship Role

The notion of governance is fundamental to concepts of both citizenship and political life. All groups must govern themselves in some fashion in order to survive. Schools must make rules for student and faculty behavior, city dwellers must decide whether to increase taxes or reduce services, and community club members decide whether or not to raise dues. Citizenship behavior can be distinguished from other types of social behavior because it occurs in relation to such problems of governance.

Some groups such as cities or nation-states have over time evolved specialized political institutions which have responsibility for the governance of the group. In western society these include city councils, parliaments, legislatures, presidents, kings and queens, dictators, courts, the armed forces, regulatory agencies and bureaucracies. Of course, other social institutions, particularly economic institutions such as large corporations, may make decisions and policies which affect the welfare of the group. Such policies may in turn create governance problems for the group. Thus, a large corporation may close a factory in a town. The consequences of this action (unemployment, loss of tax revenue, etc.) may cause new governance problems for the city (how to combat unemployment, attract new industry, etc.).

Governance in other groups such as a family, labor union or voluntary association like a civic club or fraternal club may occur in less formalized ways. That is, some groups may not have evolved highly specialized routines and roles to handle such jobs as setting goals or making and enforcing rules for the group. Nevertheless all groups face the fundamental political problem of governing themselves.

The way a group governs itself affects how values such as wealth, safety, power and the like are created and shared among members of a group. Or as one noted social scientist put it, politics determines "who gets what, when and how."²⁶ And this is the case whether we are talking about the governance of the family, the school or the nation.

Choices are made concerning the governance of a classroom, for example, when an elementary teacher decides which students can operate the audio-visual equipment. Some students will have the pleasure of operating the equipment, others will not. A city council's decision

to build the new library on the east rather than the west side of town is also a governance choice. It means people on the east side of town will have easier access to entertainment and enlightenment than people on the west side. Group governance is accomplished through processes which are authoritative. Authoritative processes are collectively binding; that is, potentially enforceable for all members of the group. Thus we can say political situations within a group are those situations that involve phenomena, problems and processes associated with governance of the group.

Basic *phenomena* associated with group governance are decision-making conflict, authority, change and interdependence. These phenomena are repeatedly experienced by young and old alike. They are present at all levels or domains of citizenship. Thus, individuals confront these phenomena as they wrestle with problems of governance in their family, their school, their labor unions, their city, their state and their nation. For example, individuals often face the task of making, judging or influencing decisions, they often have to manage conflicts, they must resolve who has authority and they must deal with the effects of change.

Basic *problems* associated with group governance include the problem of coping with disparities between political ideals and political realities; the problem of balancing the condition of political rights and responsibilities; and the problems of controlling the abuse of power. Examples of basic questions are: Why is political authority necessary? How do political decisions affect me and other people? How can I influence political decisions? What is a good or just political decision? What are my political rights? What are my political responsibilities and obligations?

Basic *processes* associated with political life and governance are making rules for the group, distributing resources within the group and setting group goals. Examples of rule-making include allowing 18 year olds to vote, prohibiting running in the school halls, or creating a 55 mile an hour speed limit on highways. Examples of distribution resources within a group include establishing a social security system for citizens or giving some teachers more supplies than others. Examples of goal setting include deciding to lower the inflation rate or to establish minimum competency levels for graduation in a school district.

B. Citizenship in Many Groups

Citizenship is not exercised only in relation to the institutions of government. Rather, citizenship behavior occurs in relation to the school, the social club, or the labor union as well as in relation to the city or the nation. Thus there are many domains or arenas for the exercise of citizenship. As one scholar put it, "There is no citizenship in general. It exists only in the particular domains of one's life."²⁷

As a result, citizenship behavior is a very complex phenomena. Social scientists have yet to clearly untangle the nature of the connections between citizenship behavior and practices in different domains or arenas. For example, it remains unclear the extent to which active participation in governance problems in one domain (such as the school) prepares individuals for more effective participation in other realms (such as the workplace or nation). It is possible, however, to identify attributes and characteristics relevant to one domain of citizenship (such as knowledge of the bylaws of one's social club) and other attributes that are generic and cut across the various domains in which we exercise

citizenship (such as the ability to make thoughtful judgments). Our concern in this *Handbook* is with such generic attributes of citizenship.

C. Citizenship Involves Young As Well As Old

Citizenship is not something that only adults "do." The fact that citizenship involves governance issues in many groups means that citizenship education can do more than simply prepare the young for an adult role. It is possible to identify rights, responsibilities and tasks of citizenship that children and adolescents encounter in the course of their relations with parents, teachers, other school personnel, peers, and a wide variety of adults in neighborhood and community settings.

For example, in their daily interactions with peers and adults youngsters deal with the problems of political life. Rule-making for example, is found when a group of students create new rules for a social club or a class reaches an agreement about what behavior will and will not be permitted at their daily meeting. Conflict and its resolution, to take another example, is found in the fight between two children over the possession of a toy, in a playground argument about the rules of game, or in a dispute between a teacher and a student.

Unfortunately, this immediate dimension of citizenship has not been a chief concern of traditional civics programs. Citizenship and politics is treated as something children can study from a distance and for which they can prepare, but in which they cannot participate until they reach the age of majority and become voters, taxpayers, campaign workers, public officials or candidates for electoral office. However, it should be clear from our discussion that citizenship learning experiences for students do not have to be confined to experiences associated with governmental institutions at the city, state and national level.

D. Participation

The notion of citizenship clearly implies taking part in the political life of a group. However, the relationship between citizenship and participation is complex and goes beyond either simple exhortations that "all good citizens must participate actively," or that participation by large numbers of people is a clear sign of democracy at work. As to the latter point, we only need remind ourselves that massive citizen participation has been the hallmark of such societies as Nazi Germany and the People's Republic of China.

Useful or desirable citizen participation may encompass a wide range of behavior undertaken for an equally wide range of reasons. In any group, whether it be a city or social club, some members will want to participate by assuming very active roles where they hold office, lead discussions, set agendas and the like. Such individuals often have a clear sense of responsibility along with a sense of purpose aimed at gaining certain benefits or protecting specific interest. Such participation may also suit their personality needs and/or be an enjoyable activity akin to sports, card-playing or other forms of social diversion.

But most people participate less actively by simply supporting or complying through voting, obeying the law, paying dues or taxes and keeping generally informed about current affairs within the group. Participation at such a level may be an indicator of apathy, alienation or deficient citizenship but it may also simply reflect a realistic appraisal of one's power position in a group, a reasonable trust in the performance of existing leaders and/or a personality syndrome which is less extroverted than that displayed by more active group members.

The point is that, under certain circumstances, good citizens can be informed followers as well as leaders or activists. As for group welfare, some political theorists and contemporary social scientists argue that massive participation can be a mixed blessing which can introduce instability and turmoil into group life. For example, there are circumstances when greater participation increases the intensity of social conflict. As one political scientist has asked: "Would a society in which every member was a vigorously outspoken activist be one in which enough agreement could even be reached to accomplish anything."²⁸ There is a classic dilemma in political theory between the efficiency in group decision-making resulting from the limited participation of citizens as opposed to the values obtained from wide-scale participation in such processes.

Our purpose in a few paragraphs is not to resolve such complex issues regarding citizen participation. It is only to call attention to the fact that while participation in political affairs is a key dimension of citizenship, there is not always a simple one to one relationship between active participation and either "good citizenship" or group welfare.

E. Cumulative Effects of Individual Behavior

In large scale groups such as a city or nation our behavior as citizens is linked to problems of governance and public affairs through aggregative processes. This means our individual actions, decisions and judgments may have not only immediate, short-term consequences we can foresee but also more long-term affects which often are only apparent when our individual behavior is added up or aggregated with the behavior of thousands or millions of fellow citizens.

Political scientist Lee Anderson explains the aggregative process this way.²⁹ Imagine an individual walking on a public street who observes a crime and does nothing either to aid the victim or to alert the police. The individual's inaction affects the distribution of an important value within his city; namely security from violence. The direct and immediate consequence of the inaction is readily apparent; the victim is left unaided. But there also are systemic or aggregate consequences of such behaviors if repeated by many other citizens. As indifference to crime increases the frequency of crime is likely to rise and the level of security from crime enjoyed by all members of the community to decrease. This, in turn, may pose new governance problems for the community involving curfews, the allocation of more resources for additional police and the like.

In short, the linkage between an individual's behavior and the group's governance may be direct and readily apparent in small, face-to-face groups such as the family, club or classroom. In large, impersonal collectivities such as a city aggregative processes link the individual to the public affairs and governance of the group.

F. The Global Dimension of Citizenship

The competencies we have described are exercised by citizens in an increasingly globalized environment. Although some might wish otherwise, the effects of global interdependence have become inescapable for all citizens. Global interdependence is a condition we must deal with, not some theory about other people's problems. International relations scholar Chadwick Alger points out that when we observe our own daily life we quickly become aware of how we are linked to a variety of international processes. In a single day the "typical" American citizen, for instance, may be awakened by a Japanese clock radio, drink morning coffee from Brazil, drive to work in a Fiat on tires made of Malayan

rubber, buy Saudi Arabian gas, and listen on a German-made radio to a news report about a visiting Iranian trade delegation.³⁰

Our contact with the rest of the world is not only linked to our lives as consumers. Money we put in a savings account at a local bank is reinvested in an apartment complex in Chile. A donation in our church collection plate helps to build a hospital in Nigeria, modern data processing facilities permit scientists in Columbus, Ohio, Geneva, Switzerland and several African cities to quickly exchange data on biological controls for insects harmful to people. A business investment in a local industry helps produce weapons that kill people in distant lands.

In short, global interrelationships that substantially affect the lives of all Americans have gone far beyond traditional diplomatic negotiations and distant military confrontations. Our growing linkages to nations, communities, peoples and events in other parts of the world affects the quality of our air and water; the price of sugar, coffee, and gasoline; the size of our armed forces; the taxes we pay; the levels of employment and inflation and so on. Similarly, how we behave can affect the lives of others in a similar manner. Our decisions and actions as citizens involve us in housing policy in Chile, health care in Nigeria, international scientific networks and death in far-off places. They link our lives to the lives of Japanese factory workers, laborers on Malayan rubber plantations and corporate executives in Germany and Italy.

Despite growing attention to the globalization of the human condition, we are only beginning to appreciate the impact of this change on our lives as citizens and on the task of citizenship education. At a minimum it means people now confront the tasks and responsibilities of citizenship in a global or internationalized context. Longshoremen,

for example, decide whether or not to load American grain on ships bound for Russia, or a group of business leaders seeks to influence a state legislature to provide financial inducements to foreign companies to locate in their state, or members of a university committee vote to restrict programs for foreign students, or local church members judge it unfair that church policy toward the world food problem is set by their national headquarters rather than being individually determined in each diocese. Thus, effectively exercising the seven competencies we have described may increasingly require simultaneous attention to citizenship responsibilities in the context of many territorial units in addition to the nation-state. It may involve for the first time in human history not only an awareness of physically proximate neighbors but a capacity on the part of all citizens to perceive and understand local/global linkages. It may also involve a capacity to see how one's nation, one's community and one's self are linked to nations, communities and people elsewhere in the world--a self-conscious awareness of how we affect each other.

Unfortunately, in large measure citizenship education and "global, international, world-order, foreign affairs" education in the schools have been mutually isolated from one another.³¹ In the past, this state of affairs may have been both natural and tolerable. Today it is neither. If the expanding scope and scale of global interdependence is eradicating the boundaries that once separated foreign and domestic affairs, the same forces are eroding the boundaries that once separated education about American society from education about the rest of the world.

Hence, an important part of the challenge of citizenship education today is to recognize that global education and citizenship education are not mutually exclusive but mutually compatible. It is possible to see examples of the major elements of citizenship in both global and domestic areas. Individuals can, for example, have a sense of loyalty and belonging to a global human community as well as to a national political community; they can support international human rights as well as domestic civil rights; they face tasks like making, judging and influencing decisions in relation to both domestic and global issues.

V. CRITERIA FOR LEARNING EXPERIENCES TO PROMOTE CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

There is an old Chinese proverb which runs:

I hear and I forget.
I see and I remember.
I do and I understand.

The basic citizenship competencies described here must be developed by actual practice and active learning. As with any set of skills, the more opportunities individuals have to practice, reflect upon and demonstrate their citizenship competencies, the more likely it is they will develop proficiency with them. Carl Rogers put it clearly: "Significant learning is acquired through doing."³²

The case of learning to ride a bicycle is instructive. To develop such competence a person must have the experience of actually riding a bicycle under a variety of conditions. One may prepare for the experience and contribute to one's proficiency by studying the physics involved in bicycl riding, by learning safety rules or by studying the design of bicycles. And parents can structure the learning experience to increase the probability of success by providing advance instructions, training wheels, the proper size and type bicycle, a safe area to ride, feedback on progress and remedial instruction. But without continued practice, there is little likelihood one will even become a competent bicycle rider.

Similarly, to develop competence with citizenship decision-making a person must have the experience of actually making thoughtful decisions under a variety of conditions. The learner may prepare for the experience and contribute to their proficiency by learning the rules of formal decision-theory, or by studying the lives of great decision-makers. And educators and parents can facilitate learning by, for example,

providing appropriate decision problems, the chance to make decisions without unduly suffering their full repercussions and appropriate feedback and instruction. But, as with bicycle riding, learners must have repeated experiences with actually making choices if they are to become competent decision-makers.

Thus practice and actual experience play a key role in developing citizenship competencies. The question then for educators, parents and community leaders is: what kind of learning experiences will give students the opportunity to exercise and practice citizenship competencies in order to improve their level of proficiency and demonstrate attainment of competencies? These experiences are not confined to formal schooling. In fact the schools may not be the only or best institutions to provide some types of learning experiences.

In this section we consider four criteria for evaluating citizenship learning experiences. These criteria can serve as standards or tests for the design, implementation, and evaluation of citizenship learning experiences. They are drawn from theory and research on sound principles of instructional design. Learning experiences which meet or conform to these criteria will be more beneficial than learning experiences which do not. Learning experiences can be created and curricula can be compared in terms of these guidelines.

1. Citizenship learning experiences should incorporate reflection or de-briefing by the learners.

De-briefing or reflection by students upon their experience is critically important. Such reflection builds self-consciousness into the learning experience. It is the necessary bridge between the "raw" experience and the individual's capacity to learn from that experience.

De-briefing may take many forms including hypothesis testing, group discussion, written or oral reports, and the like. The key notion is an analysis and self-consciousness of what happened on the part of the learner.

2. Citizenship learning experiences should be connected to the experiences of learners so they perceive them as meaningful.

Learning information and skills within a meaningful social context enhances both achievement and retention of learning.³³ Citizenship learning experiences should be made personally meaningful for students by being connected to their experiences with teachers, other school personnel, peers, older students and various adults in their community. Learning experiences can and should draw upon the political phenomena students encounter daily in the role as citizens of the family, school and community.³⁴

At the same time citizenship learning experiences should extend students' horizons. Students who learn only in terms of immediate experiences are likely to be less capable than those with expanded horizons. Thus, learning experiences should also expose learners to new ideas and information and enable them to generalize from familiar personally meaningful events to situations outside their immediate experience. Adequate citizenship learning experiences enable students increasingly to expand the range of political situations and events that may be perceived as meaningful to them.

3. Citizenship learning experiences should provide for cumulative reinforcement without boring repetition.

Learning experiences should be iterated so there are repeated opportunities for students to develop and practice basic competencies and associated abilities. Thus learning experiences should provide for

continuous practice, reflection and application in ways suitable to the cognitive, emotional and physical attributes of the learner at varying age/grade levels.

To the extent possible, learning experiences also should link capacities and abilities developed in one lesson or area of the curriculum to other lessons in different subject areas. The more connections that can be made between knowledge and skills developed in one learning experience to the competencies taught through other learning experiences, the more powerful the experience--the more one can do with the learning gained from it. Forging connections between learning experiences reinforces prior learning and also fosters new achievements.³⁵

4. Citizenship learning experiences should encourage active competency learning.

Learning experiences should be arranged so students actively perform cognitive tasks directly related to the citizenship competencies they are learning about and so competence-related abilities, phenomena and problems are inescapable. For example, students should not only read about making decisions, they should practice actually making decisions. Active learning may be accomplished through many means including real events, simulations or games or other instructional strategies. The key is student application of knowledges and skills to the completion of various tasks directly related to one or more basic citizenship competencies.

Prominent learning theorists such as Dewey, Bremer and Rogers stress the importance of students being involved as active learners. Dewey put it this way, "Only in education, never in the life of the farmer, physician, laboratory experimenter, does knowledge mean primarily a store of information aloof from doing."³⁶ Piaget explains, "A truth

is never truly assimilated except insofar as it has first been reconstituted or rediscovered by some activity." Such activity "may begin with physical motions" but comes to include "the most completely interiorized operations."

FOOTNOTES

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²John J. Patrick, "Political Socialization and Political Education in Schools" in Stanley Renshon (ed.) Handbook of Political Socialization Research (New York: The Free Press, 1977), p. 191.

³Ibid.

⁴For the distinction between "political education," "political learning" and "political socialization" see Patrick, "Political Socialization," pp. 191-3.

⁵Karen S. Dawson, "Political Education--A Challenge," News for Teachers of Political Science, (No. 20, Winter, 1979) p. 4.

⁶Fred M. Newmann, "Building A Rationale for Civic Education," in James P. Shaver (ed.), Building Rationales for Citizenship Education (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977). pp. 4-10.

⁷Richard C. Remy, "The Challenge of Citizenship Education Today," Paper prepared for the U.S. Office of Education, Citizen Education Staff, August, 1977. The implications of this phenomena for social studies education are considered in Richard C. Remy, "Social Studies and Citizenship Education: Elements of a Changing Relationship," Theory and Research in Social Education, Vol. IV:4 (December, 1978).

⁸For a discussion of competence see Fred M. Newmann, Education for Citizen Action (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975), pp. 12-40, and Robert W. White, "Motivation Reconsidered: The Concept of Competence," Psychological Review, 66, 1959, pp. 297-333.

⁹Robert C. Ziller, The Social Self (New York: Pergamon Press, Inc., 1973), pp. 6-8.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 7

¹¹Instructional theorists indicate that complexity in learning experiences is increasing when one or more of the following conditions are met: (1) learning experiences move from the use of concrete data to using abstract data, (2) they require learners to process an increasingly large number of variables, (3) they require learners to perform increasingly complicated tasks and/or (4) they require learners to perform an increasingly large number of tasks. Barbara J. Winston and Charlotte C. Anderson, "Skill Development in Elementary Social Studies: A New Perspective," published by ERIC/ChESS and the Social Science Education Consortium, 1977, p. 6.

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¹³ Winston and Anderson, "Skill Development," p. 7-8

¹⁴ Ibid., pp. 7-8.

¹⁵ Herbert McCloskey and Alida Brill, "Citizenship" in the 1976-77 Annual Report of the Russell Sage Foundation, p. 86.

¹⁶ Richard C. Remy, "Making, Judging and Influencing Decisions: A Focus for Citizen Education," Social Education, Vol. 40:6 (October, 1976), pp. 360-66.

¹⁷ See, for example, Philip E. Jacob and James J. Fink, "Values and Their Function in Decision-Making," American Behavioral Scientist, Supplement, Vol. V:9 (May, 1962).

¹⁸ NCSS Ad Hoc Committee on Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines, Revision of the NCSS Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines, Social Education, 43:4 (April, 1979), p. 262.

¹⁹ Winston and Anderson, p. 49.

²⁰ See, for example, Eugene Lewis, American Politics in a Bureaucratic Age: Citizens, Constituents, Clients and Victims (Cambridge, Mass.: Winthrop Publishers, 1977).

²¹ See, for example, Alan Gartner and Frank Reissman, The Service Society and the Consumer Vanguard (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1974), p. 3-5.

²² LeAnn Meyer, "The Citizenship Education Issue: Problems and Programs," The Education Commission of the States, Report No. 123, February, 1979, p. 20.

²³ Ivor K. Davies, The Management of Learning (New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, 1971), W. James Popham and Eva L. Baker, Systematic Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), Ehman, Mehlinger and Patrick, Toward Effective Instruction, pp. 111-156 and 321-371.

²⁴ For an excellent discussion of citizenship see Lee F. Anderson, Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age (Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 1979), Chapter 10. See also Volume 41, Number 4, Social Research, "The Meaning of Citizenship" (Winter, 1974), and McClosky and Brill, "Citizenship."

²⁵ Anderson, Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age, pp. 336-337.

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- ²⁷ Robert H. Salisbury, "Key Concepts of Citizenship: Perspectives and Dilemmas," U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, HEW publication No. OE 78-07005, 1978, p. 6.
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- ³⁰ Chadwick F. Alger, "Increasing Opportunities for Effective and Responsible Transnational Participation," Mershon Center Quarterly Report, 1:4 (Summer, 1976), p. 2.
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- ³² Quoted in Robert G. Kraft, "Bike Riding and the Art of Learning," Change (June-July, 1978), p. 41.
- ³³ Scribner and M. Cole, "Cognitive Consequences of Formal and Informal Education," Science, 1973, 182, 553-559; Criteria 2, 3 and 4 are based, in part, on John J. Patrick and Richard C. Remy, "Essential Learning Skills in the Education of Citizens," Agency for Instructional Television, Bloomington, Indiana, 1977, pp. 2-4.
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- ³⁵ S. Wiggins, "Economics in the Curriculum," in I. Morrisett & W. Stevens, (eds.), Social Science in the Schools (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1971).
- ³⁶ Quoted in Kraft, "Bike Riding and the Art of Learning," p. 41.
- ³⁷ Ibid.

GLOSSARY

basic citizenship competencies - a set of competencies that are limited in number, close to universally relevant, generic, teachable across grade levels at increasing levels of sophistication and variety, and are of the greatest value to individuals as they perform their role as citizens.

citizenship - the rights and responsibilities associated with membership in the various groups to which one belongs.

citizenship competencies - the particular capacities an individual requires if they are to behave in such a way, or use their efforts in such a manner, as to produce consequences they intend in their role as citizens.

citizenship education - involves learning and instruction directed to the development of citizen competence.

competence - a capacity or ability equal to some requirement.

generic attributes of citizenship - fundamental characteristics of citizenship, such as the ability to make thoughtful judgments, which are found in all citizenship domains, i.e. schools, family, city, etc.

governance - the function of governing (rule making, the distribution of resources, etc.) in groups of all kinds.

learning experiences - planned exercises and activities wherein pupils interact with an instructional environment which may include a teacher and/or other adults, printed materials, and/or simulated or actual events.

political situations - any situation in any group that involves phenomena, problems and processes associated with the governance of the group.

self-esteem - the individual's perception of their worth.

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The Basic Citizenship Competencies Project has made use of extensive and diverse sources to create a selected bibliography which can be used as a reference for the seven citizenship competencies identified by the project.

The ERIC computer information reference system provided several extensive searches of education related books and articles. The Education Index supplemented the ERIC search.

Indexes of relevant social science handbooks were also examined. A chart of references to current social science theory on topics, such as decision-making, directly related to the competencies is included as part of this bibliography. Examples of the handbooks used are, The Handbook of Political Science-Cumulative Index, and the Handbook of Political Socialization.

Indexes of major political science journals were also searched for articles pertaining to the competencies. Journals researched included the American Political Science Review, the American Journal of Political Science and the Political Quarterly.

Also utilized were books, articles and other materials referred to the project by its National Advisory Panel.

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CHART OF BASIC THEORY REFERENCES

Below are listed theoretical sub-groups relevant to the competencies as discussed in social science handbooks. Under each subgroup are handbook citations which will provide a ready reference to current theoretical statements on each topic.

<u>Theoretical Subgroup</u>	<u>Citation *</u>	<u>Competency Code</u>
<u>Conflict</u>		
Bargaining theory	HPSC 1:191, 2:321	6
Conflict resolution	HPSC 8:396 HPSC 5:321-333, 338-340, 342-345, 352, 354	
Dispute settlement	HPSC 5:338	
Management of,	HSTR 554-557, HPSC 2:326	
measurement of conflict		
of interest	HPSC 7:183-184	
Theories of,	HPP 4-5	
<u>Decision-making</u>		
Appraisal,		6
alternative	HPSC 6:14-15	
base values	HPSC 6:9-10	
criteria for	HPSC 6:13-14	
goals of	HPSC 6:10-14	
participants	HPSC 6:8-9	
process of	HPSC 6:8-10	
Criteria, conflicts among	HPSC 1:349-357	6
Decision-making	HPSC 1:203, 6:389	3
Decision-making models	HPSC 6:390	3
Decision process	HPSC 6:1, 2, 4	3
Decision Theory	HPSC 2:320, 341	3
certainty	2:335	
and compromise	2:326, 349	
risk	2:320, 335	
transitivity of choice	2:326	
uncertainty	2:320, 335-347	
viewed as process	2:326	
Goals	HPSC 2:324, 349	6
Invoking Decisions	HPSO 458, 463	3
Private and Public Goals	HPSC 2: 157	7
Problem Solving	HSTR 574	3
Rule-making	HPSC 5:177	3
Simulation of,	HPP 386, 405-406	3

*

Abbreviations:

HPSC—The Handbook of Political Science Cumulative Index, Greenstein, Fred I. and Polsby, Nelson W., Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1975.

HPSO—The Handbook of Political Socialization, ed. Renshon, Stanley A., The Free Press, 1977.

HPP—The Handbook of Political Psychology, ed. Knutson, Jeanne N., Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1973

HSTR—The Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research, ed. Goslin, David A., Rand McNally College Publishing Co., 1973

Theoretical SubgroupCitationCompetency CodeEducation

1

Adolescent socialization and the school and authoritarianism as political socialization agent	HSTR 844-851 HPP 159-160, 162,163 HPP 129-132
Childhood socialization, formal education influences on Implications of Social theory for Political attitudes, schools and	HSTR 810-811 HSTR 571-613 HPSO 195-196, 201-202,204,212-213, 215-216
Schools	
Civics courses	HPSO 128-129, 131, 202, 369,409
influence of, in childhood socialization	HSTR 810-811
influence of, on minority socialization	HSTR 1135, 1136-1137
political socialization and school politics	HPSO 127-131, 190-222 HPSC 2:191

Groups

6

Conflict	HPSC 3:343-344
Cooperation learning of	HSTR 405
Interest groups	HPSC 2:233, - 3:338-339, 5:266,375,381,391,392, 393,395-397, 401-403,423
benefits derived by members as decision-makers	HPSC 4:184-185,192 HPSC 4:210-211
interaction with government lobbyists	HPSC 4: 206-209 HPSC 4:205-206,209-213
as organizations	HPSC 4: 181-182
pressure groups	HPSC 4:176
Politics	HPSC 7:134
Processes, simulation of	HPP 399-406
Small group theory	HPSC 2:320

Information

1

Acquisition of	HPSC 4:96
Costs	HPSC 4:96-97,98,111,121
Gathering, and cognitive theory	HSTR 338-339
Levels of public	HPSC 4:79, 81-83, 93, 102,156
Processing	HSTR 579-584
Theory	HPSC 2:332,334

Political Participation

Citizen-initiated contacts	HPSC 4:10-11,13	5
Citizenship	HPSC 3:183, 602-05, 607-08	
Leader responsiveness	HPSC 4: 63-68	5
Particularized contacting	HPSC 4:21-22, 69	5
Skills	HPSO 195, 199-201, 211-212	6

Values

4

Clarification	HPSO 360
Judgments	HPSC 1:315,317
Moral judgment	HPSO 339-341, 348,349,352
Moral reasoning, skills of	HPSO 210-211
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And social structure	HSTR 618-619

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- Pranger, Robert J., "Experience as a Form of Political Education" Report for 1971 APSA Chicago, Illinois. Political education should blend abstract ideas and concrete experiences. 1
- Ravitch, Diane, "Moral Education and the Schools" Commentary Vol. 56, No. 3, September, 1973. All education transmits values. The school environment itself requires the continual exercise of moral choice, and is thus an excellent focus for giving children experience in evaluation and decision-making.
- Remy, Richard C., "High School Seniors' Attitudes Toward Their Civics and Government Instruction," Social Education, Vol. 36, No. 6 (Oct. 1972). Study found students wanted a change in curricula that would help them develop their abilities to analyze and evaluate political life.
- Remy, Richard C., "Making, Judging and Influencing Political Decisions: A Focus for Citizenship Education," Social Education, Vol. 40, No. 8 (Oct., 1976). Classrooms must facilitate the development of decision-making capabilities in students to bridge the gap between future political choices made by students and decisions made by students in their daily lives. 1

Remy, Richard C., Anderson, Lee F., and Snyder, Richard C., "An Experience-Based Approach to Citizenship Education in Elementary School," Theory Into Practice Vol., XIV, No. 1 (Feb. 1976). New programs need to make students active learners. This means they must teach competencies transferable to problems of everyday life.

Senesh, Lawrence, "Orchestration of Social Science in the Curriculum Social Science on the Schools: A Search for Rationale" ed. by J. Morrisett and W.W. Stevens, Jr., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971. A pre-requisite of good citizenship in a free society is the development of children's problem-solving ability. 1

Descriptors for Political Understanding: A Guide to Asking Questions About Learning Related to Political Literacy in Wisconsin Schools, K-12. Wisconsin State Dept. of Public Instruction. The guide's main objective is to promote civic literacy through increased knowledge and understanding of political structures and processes and of effective citizen participation. Emphasis is on helping students develop skills to participate in a democratic society. 3,2,4.

COMPETENCY CHECKLISTS

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS					TOTAL	GOALS	TOTAL	INSTRUCTION					TOTAL	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT	
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA						Your Goals: Are These Included?	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA				
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application	Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides Application	Yes	No		
1. <u>Competence in acquiring and processing information about political situations.</u>																
1.1 Students have the opportunity to use newspapers and magazines to obtain current information and opinions about issues and problems.																1.1
1.2 Students have the opportunity to use books, maps, charts, graphs and other sources.																1.2
1.3 Students have the opportunity to recognize the unique advantages and disadvantages of radio and television as sources of information about issues and problems.																1.3
1.4 Students have the opportunity to identify and acquire information from public and private sources such as government agencies and community groups.																1.4
1.5 Students have the opportunity to obtain information from fellow citizens by asking appropriate questions.																1.5
1.6 Students have the opportunity to evaluate the validity and quality of information.																1.6
1.7 Students have the opportunity to select, organize and use information collected.																

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS						TOTAL	GOALS		INSTRUCTION						REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA					Your Goals: Are These Included?	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA				TOTAL	
			Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application					Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application		
Yes	No						Yes	No								
2. <u>Competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies.</u>																
2.1 Students have the opportunity to identify a wide range of implications for an event or condition.														2.1		
2.2 Students have the opportunity to identify ways individual actions and beliefs can produce consequences.														2.2		
2.3 Students have the opportunity to identify their rights and obligations in a given situation.														2.3		

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS					TOTAL	GOALS	INSTRUCTION					TOTAL	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT	
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA					Your Goals: Are These Included?	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA				
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement				Materials Provide Application	Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing			Instruction Is Personally Meaningful
3. Competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and problems of citizenship. 3.1 Students have the opportunity to develop realistic alternatives. 3.2 Students have the opportunity to identify the consequences of alternatives for self and others. 3.3 Students have the opportunity to determine goals or values involved in a decision. 3.4 Students have the opportunity to assess the consequences of alternatives based on stated values or goals.													3.1		
														3.2	
														3.3	
														3.4	

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS					TOTAL	GOALS	INSTRUCTION					TOTAL	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT	
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA					Your Goals: Are These Included?	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA				
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Reinforcement Materials Provide Application				Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful			Instruction Provides for Reinforcement
<p><u>Competence in developing and using standards such as justice, ethics, morality and practicality to make judgments of people, institutions, policies, and decisions.</u></p> <p>4.1 Students have the opportunity to identify and, if necessary, develop appropriate criteria for making a judgment.</p> <p>4.2 Students have the opportunity to apply the criteria to known facts.</p> <p>4.3 Students have the opportunity to periodically reassess criteria.</p> <p>4.4 Students have the opportunity to recognize that others may apply different criteria to a problem.</p>															
														4.1	
														4.2	
														4.3	
														4.4	

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS				TOTAL	GOALS		INSTRUCTION				TOTAL	CLASSES FOR WHICH THIS JUDGMENT
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA			Your Goals: Are These Included?		Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA			
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful		Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application		
5. <u>Competence in communicating ideas to other citizens, decision makers, leaders and officials.</u>													
5.1 Students have the opportunity to develop reasons supporting their point of view.												5.1	
5.2 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints to friends, neighbors, and acquaintances.												5.2	
5.3 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints in writing to public officials, political leaders and to newspapers and magazines.												5.3	
5.4 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints at public meetings such as committees, school board meetings, city government sessions, etc.												5.4	

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS					TOTAL	GOALS Your Goals: Are These Included?	INSTRUCTION					TOTAL	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
	Curricular Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA					Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA				
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement			Materials Provide Application	Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful		
6. <u>Competence in cooperating and working with others in groups and organizations to achieve mutual goals.</u>														
6.1 Students have the opportunity to clearly present their ideas about group tasks and problems.														6.1
6.2 Students have the opportunity to take various roles in a group.														6.2
6.3 Students have the opportunity to tolerate ambiguity.														6.3
6.4 Students have the opportunity to manage or cope with disagreement within the group.														6.4
6.5 Students have the opportunity to interact with others using democratic principles.														6.5
6.6 Students have the opportunity to work with others of different race, sex, culture, ethnicity, age and ideology.														6.6

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS					TOTAL	GOALS		INSTRUCTION					TOTAL	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT	
	Do They Include These?		CRITERIA				Your Goals: Are These Included?	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA						
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement			Materials Provide Application	Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement			Instruction Provides for Application
<p>7. <u>Competence in working with bureaucratically organized institutions in order to promote and protect one's interests and values.</u></p> <p>7.1 Students have the opportunity to recognize their interests and goals in a given situation.</p> <p>7.2 Students have the opportunity to identify an appropriate strategy for a given situation.</p> <p>7.3 Students have the opportunity to work through organized groups to support their interests.</p> <p>7.4 Students have the opportunity to use legal remedies to protect their rights and interests.</p> <p>7.5 Students have the opportunity to identify and use the established grievance procedures within a bureaucracy or organization.</p>														7.1		
															7.2	
															7.3	
															7.4	
															7.5	

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS		CRITERIA	GOALS	INSTRUCTION		CRITERIA	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?				Your Goals: Are These Included?	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		
2. Competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies. 2.1 Students have the opportunity to identify a wide range of implications for an event or condition. 2.2 Students have the opportunity to identify ways individual actions and beliefs can produce consequences. 2.3 Students have the opportunity to identify their rights and obligations in a given situation.	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Your Goals: Are These Included?	Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	2.1
			Materials Are Personally Meaningful		Instruction Is Personally Meaningful			2.2
			Materials Provide for Reinforcement		Instruction Provides for Reinforcement			2.3
			Materials Provide Application				Instruction Provides for Application	

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS				GOALS	INSTRUCTION				REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT		
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA			Your Instructions: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA				
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application	Your Goals: Are These Included?	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application	
3. Competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and problems of citizenship. 3.1 Students have the opportunity to develop realistic alternatives. 3.2 Students have the opportunity to identify the consequences of alternatives for self and others. 3.3 Students have the opportunity to determine goals or values involved in a decision. 3.4 Students have the opportunity to assess the consequences of alternatives based on stated values or goals.												
												3.1
												3.2
												3.3
												3.4

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS					GOALS	INSTRUCTION					REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT		
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA				Your Goals: Are These Included?		Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA			
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application	Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application		
<p>4. <u>Competence in developing and using standards such as justice, ethics, morality and practicality to make judgments of people, institutions, policies, and decisions.</u></p> <p>4.1 Students have the opportunity to identify and, if necessary, develop appropriate criteria for making a judgment.</p> <p>4.2 Students have the opportunity to apply the criteria to known facts.</p> <p>4.3 Students have the opportunity to periodically reassess criteria.</p> <p>4.4 Students have the opportunity to recognize that others may apply different criteria to a problem.</p>													4.1	
														4.2
														4.3
														4.4

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS				GOALS	INSTRUCTION				REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT					
	Do they include These?		CRITERIA			Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA							
	Yes	No	Curriculum Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application	Your Goals: Are These Included?	Yes	No	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application	
<p>5. Competence in communicating ideas to other citizens, decision makers, leaders and officials.</p> <p>5.1 Students have the opportunity to develop reasons supporting their point of view.</p> <p>5.2 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints to friends, neighbors, and acquaintances.</p> <p>5.3 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints in writing to public officials, political leaders and to newspapers and magazines.</p> <p>5.4 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints at public meetings such as committees, school board meetings, city government sessions, etc.</p>															
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COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS				GOALS	INSTRUCTION				REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT	
	Curriculum Materials Do they include These?		CRITERIA			Your Goals: Are These Included?		CRITERIA			
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful		Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful		
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											6.1
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											6.6

6.2

