Competencies for educators in Citizenship Education & the Development of Identity: 1

Justin Rami, John Lalor, Wolfgang Berg, Jan Lorencovic, Eva Lorencovicova, Concha Maiztegui Oñate and Annika Elm CiCe Guidelines on the Design of Higher Education Courses 5





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Volume 1

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Contents

About these booklets	1
Introduction	2
Teacher Education, Tuning principles & the Bologna Process	3
Bologna	3
Teacher Education	3
The Tuning Process	8
Teacher Competencies	9
Research Methodology	11
The Child as a European Citizen	13
How do the European policy makers view the ideal EU citizen?	15
Summary	17
References	18

These two booklets are structured as **Volumes 1** & **2.** The working team responsible for researching and writing them come from five member states within the European Union: Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, Spain & Sweden.

We were asked to prepare guidance for CiCe member institutions and other Universities/Colleges on what *specific competencies in Citizenship Education and Identity might be included in* 1st & 2nd cycle courses that educate/train *professionals who will work with children/young people.* A secondary aspect of the booklets was to show how the 'Tuning Principles'¹ could be applied to develop Specific Competencies for undergraduate and graduate cycle programmes that relate to Citizenship Education & Identity *with respect to young people.*

We approached this specifically in relation to Teacher Educators, and after the initial research phase we decided to work together to address this without being constricted by the Bologna Cycle system. Teacher Education is an anomaly within this context, and we decided to produce two booklets.

Volume One takes a wider, theoretical and more sociological perspective primarily relating to the Bologna Process and the Tuning Principles in a European and National context. It also examines the broader concepts of Teacher Education relating to Citizenship and Identity.

Volume Two relates closely to specific country contexts and examines comparables and competencies generated from the research data as well as discussion about the research process.

Each Volume can be read independently, but for a greater understanding of the themes and key concepts it is advised that both are read together.

¹ Tuning Principles - The Tuning Project addresses several Bologna action lines, notably a system of easily readable and comparable degrees, based on three cycles and a system of credits. The Tuning project contributes also to the realisation of the other Bologna action lines.

Introduction

So what competencies do teachers require when they work in Citizenship Education? When asked this question, our colleagues answered

- They should have good didactic competencies, and understand appropriate and relevant methods of teaching.
- They should be able to teach young people about what the role of being a good citizen should be.

At first glance both answers seem quite reasonable. But they are not. The first answer presupposes that Citizenship Education is a subject like others and there is just a practical question about how to bring it over. The teacher has a clear control over the subject and needs just some methodological hints. The teacher is competent when he achieves the objectives. But what are the objectives of Citizenship Education? The first answer presupposes also that the teacher is not involved in that teaching as a personality. What, and that is the problem of the second answer, is a good citizen? Are there any methods which are not appropriate to teach citizenship because they do not fit to this subject? Is it, for instance, possible to *lecture* citizenship? If citizenship needs models, what about the teacher in this case?

If so, teacher education has to make sure that teachers advocate good citizenship and are capable to communicate this. Citizenship Education addresses mostly young people and children. So if the focus of these booklets is on teacher education we must begin with a look at teacher education in the European context, specifically an important issue relating to the Tuning Principles and the Bologna Declaration.

Teacher Education, Tuning Principles & the Bologna Process

The Bologna process proposes to harmonise higher education qualifications within a European Higher Education Area (EHEA), to be established by 2010. Although the framework is moving to define qualifications in terms of learning outcomes, the length and the cross-over between Cycles is not set in stone and in 2006 it is still the subject of considerable debate. A Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area was adopted by the Ministers responsible for higher education in Bergen in May 2005. Programme length tends to vary from country to country and, less often, between institutions within a country.

The Bologna process

Does the Bologna process relate to teacher education? Ulf Fredriksson (2005) suggests that it may be necessary first to examine whether teacher education is a part of higher education. The recent trend to move all types of teacher education into tertiary education (Eurydice, 2002a) has meant in most cases that teacher training colleges have become departments within universities, but in some countries they have continued as separate tertiary institutions. It seems fairly clear that teacher education in most European countries is a part of higher education (Zgaga, 2003). Changes within higher education in general will affect the structure of teacher education: for example, reforms in the Nordic countries have led to the integration of former teacher training colleges into universities, and France has introducing the IUFM (Instituts universities de formation de maître), where all teachers follow some joint programmes and then gradually specialise in different levels in the education system (Fredriksson 2005).

Teacher Education

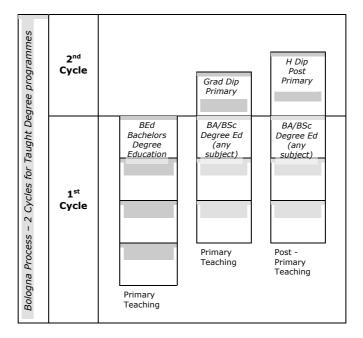
The main problem in including teacher education in the Bologna process relates to the length of teacher education courses and secondarily how teacher education is structured throughout Europe. The length of teacher pre-service education varies between countries and between different types of teacher education. For primary teachers, it is three years in Austria, Belgium, and Iceland, Ireland and is often more in Finland, France and Germany. Teacher education for teachers in lower secondary education varies from four years in Belgium (Flanders) and Iceland to six years or more in Italy. The education of teachers for upper secondary education varies from three years in Belgium to six years or more in Italy (OECD, 2003). Teacher education for secondary school in Germany nowadays takes five years at the University and a further two years as a form of apprenticeship in the school. The general trend has been to extend the period of study required to become a teacher in almost all countries (Eurydice, 2002a). A key objective of the Bologna process is to establish a taught degree structure based on two cycles: an undergraduate cycle and a graduate cycle. If teacher education is placed in this structure it may have further implications.

It would end the trend to lengthen the period of study required to become a teacher. It also raises questions about undergraduate and graduate cycles in teacher education. If a first-cycle qualification gives access to the labour market, what is the position of teacher students who have completed the first cycle? For example, in Ireland, most honours Bachelors degrees take three to four years, with Masters and Doctorates broadly similar to the UK. Ordinary Bachelors degrees are also first cycle qualifications. A Masters degree is always a postgraduate degree, either taught or through research. The outcomes for Irish degrees are spelled out in the National Framework of Qualifications (2003). At the Standing Conference for Teacher Education North & South (Ireland) (2004), Sheelagh Drudy stated:

The Irish universities have not all yet incorporated ECTS at postgraduate level and certainly not yet fully as an accumulation system. If we think of the initial consecutive qualification for postprimary teaching in ECTS terms then we would have either 180 + 60 = 240 (for three year degree programmes + HDip. in Ed.) or 240 + 60 = 300 (for four year degree programmes plus HDip. in Ed.). While at international level it should be pointed out that the issue of how to deal with the incorporation of professional courses into the Bologna frameworks not yet fully resolved, it should be noted that the accumulated credits for a four year degree programme followed by a Higher Diploma in Education come to the same number (300) as that for a Masters award under the Bologna system. The issue of the exact positioning of professional awards under Bologna is still being worked out in various forums, including the TUNING project, but must be factored into policy considerations relating to teacher education at the initial, induction and in-career stages, and in relation to Masters level awards for established teachers

Figure 1 shows the complexities and incongruities that may be associated with the harmonisation of the educational structures.

From a German point of view there are two main obstacles or difficulties in applying Bologna to teacher education. Until now teachers have not been awarded a university degree, but a state diploma: this is also true for lawyers and medical doctors. Figure 1: Teacher Education: An anomaly? The example of Ireland, where Teacher Education structure currently spans the 2 Cycle system proposed by the Bologna Process



The Federal states, through the Ministries of Education, are only willing to give full responsibility to the Universities if they accept certain standards (a catalogue of key gualifications). Secondly, as everybody agrees that teacher education has to have 300 Credits – that is, be at Masters level - the first cycle (Bachelor level) has no particular function: the BA (normally in Germany: 3 years, 180 credits) is defined as a first grade which gives access to a profession - but not as a teacher (polyvalence). But there is no suggestion as to what profession that might be. It is not a solution to define the first cycle as scientific, the second as practical, because student teachers need to have practical experience and training as early as possible, particularly in the first cycle, to prove they are following the right profession. The Masters might be the part of the education providing specialisation for different types of schools (for more scientific schools, or schools for children with disabilities).

All universities in Germany have introduced the Bologna degrees or are in the process of doing so: only the programmes for medical doctors, lawyers and teachers are still under discussion. The Bachelors (usually 6 or 7 semesters) and the Masters (3 or 4 semesters) programmes (together taking 10 semesters, five years, 300 credits) are offered by either Universities or Universities of Applied Sciences. The degrees are equivalent, though the Universities of Applied Sciences traditionally are more related to practice and application, so placement in the workplace is part of their programme. It was possible - and now will be more frequent that graduates from Universities and Universities of Applied Sciences compete with each other at the labour market (and University graduates do not have advantages per se). Though teacher education fits the approach of Universities of Applied Sciences, the Universities are unsurprisingly unwilling to relinguish teacher education for the state diploma, as the student teacher are the largest group of students in the Universities. The National Conference of University rectors (which includes the heads of Universities of Applied Sciences) wants Universities to cooperate with Universities of Applied Sciences in teacher education.

In Sweden higher education institutions are currently awaiting a bill to introduce Bologna degrees. The Swedish *kandidatexamen*² will not be changed, as it is comparable to a Bachelor's degree, but discussion continues about extending the *magisterexamen*³ to two years, to match a second cycle degree.

In Spain the situation is more complex: the lowest degree is the *Diplomatura* (from Faculties) or *Ingeniería Técnica* (from Technical Schools), achieved after three years of studies. Two more years are required for the *Licenciatura*⁴ or *Ingeniería Superior* degree. The *Doctorado* lasts three or four years. Only those with the *Licenciatura* or *Ingeniería Superior* are eligible for a doctorate. The Bologna Process is changing teacher education rapidly. The *Agencia Nacional de Evaluación*

 $^{^2}$ Kandidatexamen - (Sweden) General degree awarded after 3 years of full-time study at a university or university college faculty. Half the programme comprises studies in one major subject in which thesis is written.

³ **Magisterexamen**: General degree awarded after 1 year of studies with a special subject emphasis, to students at a university or university college (*universitet* or *högskola*) who already hold a degree worth at least 120 credits.

⁴ **Licenciatura**: Degree awarded to students who have passed the examinations required under the programme at the end of long university studies lasting 4 or 5 years.

de la Calidad y Acreditación (ANECA) is proposing a four year degree for teachers, instead of the three year Diplomatura. Previously for teachers to obtain a *Licenciatura* (second cycle) they would take a degree in another faculty (usually Pedagogía or Psychopedagogía), because this was not possible in the Teacher Education colleges. The new proposal is divided into basic education (180 ECTS) and a specialist education element (60 ECTS) (ANECA, 2006). The Spanish National Agency for Quality on Education also proposes a competency-based system. A sample of University lecturers and professors suggest the three most valued competencies for future teachers are: oral and written communication in another tongue, organisational capabilities, and the capacity to recognise diversity. The first two of these are instrumental and classical competencies for the work of a teacher, but the third is a personal competency, which reflects changes in Spanish society and the new challenges for teachers.

Teacher education in most countries does not currently fit the Bologna framework; they have traditional systems that are context specific. The Bologna process will have many knockon effects in the areas of mobility and recognition across Europe. Recent developments in Sweden and the UK show the process is moving from a convergence in time spent studying for qualifications towards a competency-based system. This will have undergraduate and postgraduate parts, with the bachelor degree in the former and the Masters and doctoral in the latter. This still leaves some member states with structural problems in terms of learning outcomes at second Cycle level.

If teacher education is forced to fit into the Bologna process without adjustments, this could lead to a shorter period of education of teachers in Europe and a teacher education that has less of the mix of theory and practice than is currently found in most countries (Fredriksson 2005).

The Tuning Process

The *Tuning Educational Structures in Europe* project addresses several of Bologna action lines: an easily readable and comparable degree structure; the two cycle system; and a transferable system of credits. A recent report by the Education working group of the Tuning II process stated:

The Education working group has identified an anomalous situation with regard to Teacher Education within the context of the implementation of first and second cycles of degree awards. This anomaly is particularly evident in consecutive models of teacher education where students study one or two academic disciplines (180-240 ECTS) prior to a postgraduate teacher education component of their studies (60-90 ECTS). Although students may have accumulated a total of 240 – 320 ECTS in order to obtain their initial teacher education qualification, in a number of countries 300+ ECTS accumulated in this way does not result in a second cycle award. This is in spite of the fact that the postgraduate component may, to a significant degree, meet the level descriptors for second cycle.

(González & Wagenaar 2005)

Fredriksson (2005, p 32) identifies three options in organising a new structure:

- A first cycle giving basic teacher education, which will allow graduates access to positions as teachers. The second cycle would be an additional, but not compulsory, level of education for teachers. Positions with higher salaries or differentiated duties could be constructed for teachers who complete the second cycle.
- b. A first cycle to prepare students to become primary teachers, and a second cycle to become secondary teachers. All teachers will need the qualification to become a primary teacher, and those who want to work as secondary teachers will continue their education or return to university later for additional education.
- c. A first cycle focusing on the subject areas a teacher will have to teach. After a degree in the subjects necessary to become a primary or secondary teacher one can work as a teacher. The second cycle will focus on specific skills and knowledge related to teaching.

These interesting suggestions come with their own set of problems. It is important to adhere to the Bologna process, but also to recognise that teacher education cannot fully fit into the process for some time. A danger in moving too fast is that if most European teachers in the future have only completed the first cycle of higher education, the general level of qualifications in the teaching profession in Europe will be lower than it is currently.

Teacher Competencies

These guidelines were originally planned to explore and describe the 'specific competencies' required by educators involved in the teaching of Citizenship and Identity Education. We defined **Competence** (or **competency**) as a cluster of skills, abilities, habits, character traits, and knowledge a person must have in order to perform a specific job. A person possesses a competence if the skills, knowledge and values that constitute it enable that person to perform the task effectively. Thus one might not lose knowledge, a skill, or ability, but still lose a competence, if what is required to do the job changes over time. The main danger in describing specific competencies is that we can all too often assess these competencies too narrowly (Hyland 1994).

It should be noted that there is no universally accepted meaning of these competencies. In teacher education competence is often a contested concept, the meaning of which is shaped by those who use it (Chappell 1996). It is important in this context not to look at competence only in behavioural terms. A behaviourist framework views competence as the performance of discrete tasks, identified by functional analysis or work roles. This is important at a pan-European level, as the driving force behind the acquisition of Citizenship Education competencies may not only be related to the workplace, but have personal, interpersonal, social, national and European nuances. The behaviourist concept of a 'skill' and 'competence' as individual and value-free is contradicted by research suggesting that skills are social constructions or cultural practices (Harris, 2005). In teacher education throughout Europe practitioners still follow behaviourist models of learning in terms of curriculum and assessment. Even the work of Bloom et al (1956), which touched on competencies under the guise of mastery and aptitude, was based on previous work by Carroll (1963), Skinner (1954), and Glaser (1964, 1965).

Our view of competencies is focused specifically through the lens of education and training. Rather than see them as 'hard' skills required for the job, it is more appropriate to view the competencies required by educators who will then teach in the curriculum areas of Citizenship Education as a broader concept. A wider approach would be to view them as relational, holistic and integrated (Gonczi 1994). Our research outlines multifaceted competencies required by citizenship educators as competencies in a relational model that does not separate the cultural, social and personal context of the situation. Even if we can identify the competencies teachers need to have in order to empower young people to acquire particular knowledge/skills and attitudes, we cannot define a hierarchy of levels or within which teacher training has to take place. It is due to the very particular schemes of teacher training in various European countries that it does not make sense to propose whether it has to be in a BA or MA programme, particularly because teacher education regularly does not fit the BA-MA system. In fact, after examining the literature, our research highlights that teacher education is inconsistent with the three-cycle system adopted by the Bologna process and agreed by the member States.

Research Methodology

This study does not aim to produce a definitive generalisable outcome or 'truth' that may be adopted in every similar context. We attempt to outline basic facts and assumptions found through a systematic research process in five EU member states. Our choice of methodology is dependant on what we are trying to do rather than a commitment to a particular paradigm (Cavaye, 1996). Through an interpretive research approach (Berger & Luckman, 1967, Gadamer, 1976) we aim to produce a guide for practitioners focussing on the area of knowledge, skills and competencies relating to citizenship and identity education for educators. Habermas (1979) differentiates three primary generic cognitive areas in which human interest generates knowledge. These areas determine categories relevant to what we interpret as knowledge. That is, they are termed 'knowledge constitutive' - they determine the mode of discovering knowledge and whether knowledge claims can be warranted. They define cognitive interests or learning domains, and are grounded in different aspects of social existence - work, interaction and power.

Work Knowledge: refers to the way one controls and manipulates one's environment.

Practical Knowledge: identifies human social interaction or *'communicative action'.* Social knowledge is governed by binding consensual norms, which define reciprocal expectations about behaviour between individuals. Habermas went on to stress that this knowledge is grounded 'only in the inter-subjectivity of the mutual understanding of intentions'. **Emancipatory Knowledge:** identifies *'self-knowledge'* or self-reflection; this involves 'interest in the way one's history and biography has expressed itself in the way one sees oneself, one's roles and social expectations'. The model below (Figure 2) links the quest for knowledge with the type of knowledge needed and relates it to a suitable research method. We felt that this was an appropriate framework to build on.

We agreed that these booklets should act as useful guides for practitioners and be used primarily to improve current practice. The research that forms the basis of these booklets is both *exploratory* and *descriptive*, and seeks to examine and recommend good practice within teacher education relating specifically to citizenship and identity. Rather than trying to generate norms, trends and comparisons, the research team felt it important to focus on concrete facts. These facts (knowledge) are required to understand why certain practices occur in certain contexts. This should help us come to an

Figure 2: Our research focus

Types of Human Interest	Kind of Knowledge	Research method
Technical (prediction)	Instrumental (casual explanation)	Positivistic Sciences (empirical-analytic methods)
Practical (understanding & interpretation)	Practical (understanding)	Interpretive Research (hermeneutic methods)
Emancipatory (criticism & liberation)	Emancipation (reflection)	Critical Social Sciences (critical theory methods)

Adapted from Habermas' (1979) Three Domains of Knowledge (after Tinning, 1992)

understanding of how policy influences practice within our research sample.

Key themes that have emerged from the data collected stress the importance and the differentiation between:

- what citizenship and identity competencies a child should have acquired through an education and/or social process
- what citizenship and identity competencies a teacher of these children should need

Using Habermas as a basis to begin to construct knowledge, we decided to first approach the research question from the child's (as citizen) point of view.

The Child as a European Citizen

As with other stages in the human lifecycle, the notion of childhood is a social construction. Over the last 250 years historical representation emphasises the centrality of adult life, in contrast to the relativity weaker and more marginal positions of being a child and an elderly person. As Ariès (1973) explained, the modern image of childhood corresponds to the separation from the adult world and the institutionalisation of children, essentially through establishing nurseries and schools. Since Ariès original thesis, the literature has pointed to how the disjunction of adult and child came to be seen as inevitable. According to Ariès our own long-segregated childhood is a unique Western invention. However, Sutton-Smith (1993) remembers that:

about 30 percent of a scientific sample of all available contemporary and historical world cultures (in the Human Relation Area Files) have the same long childhood that we do, which implies that our invention of childhood may not be as unique as it seems to Ariès (p.29).

Different narratives about childhood have been developed. It seems clear that the prevailing childhood image was characterised by a constitutive negativity (Sarmento, Soares, Tomas 2004). Children are in a process of creation: they are not prepared, they cannot vote, they are not responsible, they do not have moral values etc. In contrast to adults, children have been seen as 'irrational beings', whose accounts are untrustworthy and whose opinions are therefore of limited value (Hine, 2004). Until recently children were considered to be unreliable providers of information, mainly as a result of their perceived inability to express views about abstract concepts, their tendency to change their views, and their need to try to please adults (or even researchers) (Hine, 2004,p.7).

In this context the current affirmation of childhood citizenship as a major metaphor of a political discourse appears paradoxical (Sarmento, Soares, Tomás, 2004). It is a relatively recent phenomenon, but the literature on young people's rights began with the *Convention of the Rights of the Child* in 1989. In practice, children have always participated in life: in the home, in school, in work, in communities, in wars: sometimes voluntarily and others forcibly and exploitatively (UNICEF, 2002). Few studies have looked in-depth at what children and young people think and feel about their experiences and expectations (Hine, 2004). This is an important point for future Citizenship Education projects, because as Ross (2004) observes: This is not simply the acquisition of skills and knowledge for a task, but the establishment of relationships and communities with a sense of joint enterprise and identity, with a shared set of ideas and commitments, and shared resources: it is about ways of doing and approaching things that are shared to some significant extent among members (p.19).

It could be said that learning citizenship is not the acquisition of knowledge by an individual, but the process of social participation.

Concerning public life, many observers comment that contemporary young people participate very little in conventional politics (voting, or joining political party organisations) and have a declining level of trust in public institutions (Hine, 2004). All these have an influence on the development of children's policies by political institutions.

How do European policy-makers view the ideal EU citizen?

The Council of Europe has been supporting Citizenship Education, in particular by celebrating 2005 as a European Year of Citizenship Education. The Council's EDC⁵ (Education for Democratic Citizenship) report has an important message: Citizenship Education does not only concern knowledge and skills, but also values and attitudes. Thus all other competencies have to link with democracy. We gloss over that this statement is redundant and circular (citizens are by definition responsible citizens): we are claiming that Citizenship Education, in particular the training of teachers, needs to have one point of reference, and this can only be: the **vision of a good citizen**.

Cognitive competencies	Capacities for action, sometimes known as social competencies	Affective competencies and choice of values
competencies of a legal and political nature, i.e. knowledge concerning the rules of collective life knowledge of the present world including a historical dimension and a cultural dimension. competencies of a procedural nature,: the ability to speak and argue, connected with the debate, and the ability to reflect knowledge of the principles and values of human rights and democratic citizenship	the capacity to live with others, to co- operate, to construct and implement joint projects, to take on responsibilities the capacity to resolve conflicts in accordance with the principles of democratic law the capacity to take part in public debate, to argue and choose in a real life situation	Citizenship cannot be reduced to a catalogue of rights and duties, it is also belonging to a group or to groups. It thus requires a personal and collective affective dimension

Figure 3: EDCS statement of core competencies

Adapted from Audigiers , Core Competencies for Education for Democratic Citizenship, DGIV/EDU/CIT (2000)

⁵ The Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) is a set of practices and activities designed to help young people and adults to play an active part in democratic life and exercise their rights and responsibilities in society. The Council of Europe's project on Education for Democratic Citizenship produced a statement of core competencies. The core competencies associated with democratic citizenship are those called for by the construction of a free and autonomous person, aware of his rights and duties in a society where the power to establish the law is exercised. Three broad categories are distinguished:

- cognitive competencies
- those connected with action also known as social competencies
- affective competencies and those connected with the choice of values

These are illustrated in Figure 3.

To take a simple example, if we want children to be capable of arguing reasonably and fairly, then teaching and teachers' training has to enhance this: logically, teachers themselves have to be able to do this and be able to support others to do it. A recent report of the Council of Europe, *Tool on Teacher Training for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education'* by Gollob et al (2005) dedicated just half a page to this question:

The core objective ... is to encourage and support learners to become active, informed and responsible citizens. Such citizens are:

- **aware** of their rights and responsibilities as citizens
- **informed** about the social and political world
- concerned about welfare of others
- articulated in their opinions
- capable of having an influence on the world
- active in their communities
- responsible in how they act as citizens' (p.25)

The European Commission's *White Paper on a European Communication Policy* (2006) has invited all citizens in Europe to discuss these proposals. The draft emphasises *participation* and suggests prominently improving *Citizenship Education*. The guidelines for the youth element of this programme (financial support for exchanges) give particular support to projects which promote European citizenship. It is also important here to differentiate European institutions and their work on Citizenship. The European Commission promotes the development of citizenship mainly through its mobility, networking and scholastic/academic activities, through such initiatives such as Socrates and Erasmus.

Volume 1 - Summary

We examined the original research question specifically in relation to teacher educators, because our breadth of experience was predominantly in this sector. The two working groups merged together to tackle the question. In the early stages our data suggested that teacher education was an anomaly within the Bologna and Tuning processes, and we therefore approached the teacher competencies from another angle.

We divided the project into two distinct, but not mutually exclusive, Volumes. Volume 1 (this booklet) takes a wider, theoretical and more sociological perspective, primarily relating to the Bologna Process and Tuning Principles in a European and National context. It also examines the broader concepts of teacher education relating to Citizenship and Identity. References are made to a range of EU member States to add a broader context to the research. This booklet also examines the research approach adopted by the team and outlined the theoretical concepts attached to the issue of competencies.

Each booklet can be read independently, but for a greater understanding of the themes and key concepts, it is advised that both booklets be read consecutively.

Competencies for educators in Citizenship Education & the Development of Identity in First & Second Cycle Programmes - Volume 2 is by the same authors. Volume 2 delves deeper into a range of national contexts relating to the issues of competencies and how Citizenship Education and the Development of Identity is taught through national systems and what are the current trends and future developments. Volume 2 also adds a *competencies matrix* to the booklet. This matrix is grounded in the theories relating to *Citizenship and Identity* and is built upon by the empirical data gathered from the research process in a range of EU member states.

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The organisation is a network-based organisation and is designed to be reciprocal: all members contribute to the network activities. CiCe working/research groups are interdisciplinary, and include those working with professional education and training courses as well as non-professional courses. We have members drawn from

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