HSIE 7-10 LITERATURE REVIEW

Prepared for the Board of Studies, NSW

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Introduction

As we move into a new millennium there is an opportunity to reconsider our approaches to education and learning to best address future individual and societal needs and aspirations. The Human Society and Its Environment area of the curriculum is one that is of particular importance in this respect because this field of study is one in which students are specifically given the task of considering their society, its antecedents and its futures. Part of this analysis allows students to revisit past decisions and reappraise them in the light of consequent current events, and to posit future consequences of current decisions.

To appropriately assess the recent research literature in the HSIE area and to consider how that may influence future curriculum, it is imperative that we deliberate upon the skills, understandings and dispositions needed by educated people of the future. In the light of that information we will then consider what the HSIE learning area contributes to future society and what, according to current research, are the most appropriate approaches.

Specific attention has been paid in this literature review to issues of intercultural/multicultural education, civics and citizenship education, HSIE and technology, global education, issues-based teaching and assessment in HSIE. Because this review is aimed toward the Years 7-10 area of the curriculum, the issues associated with middle schooling generally are inevitably raised and although not directly the subject of this discussion they will also receive some consideration. The HSIE area includes a wide variety of disciplinary (anthropology, accounting, archaeology, ecology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, politics, psychology, and sociology) and interdisciplinary approaches (Asian studies, Australian studies, Aboriginal studies, business studies, community studies, environmental studies, global studies, multicultural studies, religious studies, Torres Strait Islander studies, tourism and women’s studies). Inescapably many areas worthy of review, such as issues of specific interest in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies and the role of the disciplines of History and Geography in the HSIE area, have not been dealt with. However it is anticipated that what is covered here will inform both the current review of elective subjects and also future revision in the wider field.
New Learnings

The need to reassess our educational institutions and approaches to learning in view of changing societal demands has led to a number of suggested approaches to prepare our future citizens. Townsend, Clarke and Ainscow (1999) described the differences between second and third millennium thinking about education and learning in general:

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<th>Second Millennium Thinking</th>
<th>Third Millennium Thinking</th>
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<td>Important learning can only occur in formal learning facilities.</td>
<td>People can learn things from many sources.</td>
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<td>Everyone must learn a common ‘core’ of content</td>
<td>Everyone must understand the learning process and have basic learning skills.</td>
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<td>The learning process is controlled by the teacher. What is to be taught, when it should be taught and how it should be taught is all determined by a professional person.</td>
<td>The learning process is controlled by the learner. What is to be taught, when it should be taught and how it should be taught will all be determined by the learner.</td>
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<td>Education and learning are individual activities. Success is based on how well learners learn as individuals.</td>
<td>Education and learning are highly interactive activities. Success is based on how well learners work together as a team.</td>
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<td>Formal education prepares people for life.</td>
<td>Formal education is the basis for lifelong learning.</td>
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<td>The terms ‘education’ and ‘school’ mean almost the same thing.</td>
<td>‘School’ is only one of a multitude of steps in the education journey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once you leave formal education, you enter the ‘real world’.</td>
<td>Formal education provides a range of interactions between learners and the world of business, commerce and politics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The more formal qualifications you have the more successful you will be.</td>
<td>The more capability and adaptability you have the more successful you will be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic education is funded by government.</td>
<td>Basic education is funded by both government and private sources.</td>
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(Townsend, Clarke and Ainscow, 1999, p 363)

Townsend (2001) argued that there are three major challenges for schools to fulfil their potential in the future — to develop a curriculum that is appropriate to a rapidly changing, increasingly complex, highly multicultural and diverse society; to engage every student in their learning; and to try and make every person in the school community a learner, a teacher
and a leader. He thereupon argues that an education charter for the third millennium should be based upon four pillars:

**Education for Survival** (once the whole curriculum) consisting of:
- literacy and numeracy
- technological capability
- communication skills
- development capability
- awareness of one’s choices
- critical thinking skills and problem-solving
- decision-making

**Understanding our Place in the World** (how student’s own particular talents can be developed and used) incorporating:
- exchange of ideas
- work experience and entrepreneurship
- awareness and appreciation of cultures
- creative capability
- vision, adaptability and open mindedness
- social, emotional and physical development
- development of student assets

**Understanding Community** (how the individual student and others are connected) involving:
- teamwork capability
- citizenship studies
- community service
- community education
- global awareness and education

**Understanding our Personal Responsibility** concerned with:
- commitment to personal growth through lifelong learning
- development of a personal value system
- leadership capabilities
- commitment to community and global development
- commitment to personal and community health.

(Townsend, 2001, p 23)

The Australian Council of Deans of Education (2001) argued that there are now three clusters of appropriate learnings, what they refer to as the new basics. They contrast these new basics with current ‘old’ subject groupings.
New Basics | Old Subjects
---|---
**Techne** | Science, Mathematics, Technology, Media Studies, Environmental Studies

**Oeconomia** | Business Studies, Economics, Accounting, Domestic Science/Family Studies, Gender Studies

**Humanitas** | Philosophy, History, English, Cultural/Multicultural Studies, Aboriginal Studies, Health and Sport


Within each of these learning areas they have indicated relevant capacities that future citizens will need for everyday social activity in the areas of work, citizenship and personal identity.

| New Worker, New Citizen, New Person |
|---|---|---|
| **Work** | **Civics** | **Identity** |
| **Techne** |
Technology, and more – the capacity to use various tools and instruments to get things done, technique, method, practical reasoning, science, human impacts on the environment.  
| Scanning | Agency | Navigation |
| Discovery | Selection | Discernment |
| Innovation | Advocacy | Appropriation |

| **Oeconomia** |
Commerce, business, economics, and more – frameworks for getting things done in the social world, for being productive and effective, including work in the home and community as well as paid work.  
| Calculation | Complexity | Negotiation |
| Entrepreneurship | Motivation | Reflexivity |
| Innovation | Meditation | Application |

| **Humanitas** |
Understanding one’s own culture and the cultures of others, acting sociably, crossing boundaries and working with diversity.  
| Investigation | Communication | Multiplicity |
| Co-operation | Ambiguity | Recognition |
| Reflection | Compromise | Transformation |

(ACDE, 2001, p 92)
They thereupon assert that new learning should include: knowledge sets and capability sets (selectivity or relevance to purpose is as important as the knowledge itself); located learnings and transferable learnings; disciplined learnings and reflective learnings. New learning should be general in its focus, about creating a new kind of person, and interdisciplinary in its nature.

As an outcome of this type of education good learners will be:
- assisted and self-directed
- flexible
- collaborative
- good teachers
- good communicators
- of open sensibility
- intelligent in more than one way
- broadly knowledgeable.

The Department of Education in Queensland has been developing ways to implement in the classroom teaching situation some of these future approaches. Their project, which they call the ‘New Basics Project’, focuses on a framework consisting of an understanding of New Basics (what is taught), Productive Pedagogies (how it is taught) and Rich Tasks (how students show it).

The New Basics are seen as four clusters of practices essential for survival in the future: Life Pathways and Social Futures (who am I and where am I going?); Multiliteracies and Communications Media (how do I make sense of and communicate with the world?); Active Citizenship (what are my rights and responsibilities in communities, culture and economies?); Environments and Technologies (how do I describe, analyse and shape the world around me?).

The Productive Pedagogies are classroom strategies that teachers can use to focus instruction and to improve student outcomes. There are twenty productive pedagogies grouped under four categories:
- Recognition of Difference: This involves student control, social support, engagement, explicit criteria and self-regulation.
- Connectedness: This involves knowledge integration, background knowledge, connectedness to the world and problem-based curriculum.
- Intellectual Quality: This involves higher-order thinking, deep knowledge, deep understanding, substantive conversation, knowledge as problematic and metalanguage.
• Social Support: This involves cultural knowledges, inclusivity, narrative, group identity and citizenship.

The Rich Tasks are the assessment component of this framework. Students are assessed by rich tasks. The completion of these tasks are the culmination of learning achievements over a number of years of schooling. These tasks are intended to be intellectually challenging and have real-world value.

The Queensland School Curriculum Council argues that education is designed to assist students to become lifelong learners. A lifelong learner is:

• a knowledgeable person with deep understanding
• a complex thinker
• a creative person
• an active investigator
• an effective communicator
• a participant in an interdependent world
• a reflective and self-directed learner.

(QSCC, *Studies of Society and Environment*, p 4)

Another current theorist in the area of future learning (Bentley, 1998) pointed out that there are a number of challenges for education in this rapidly changing world. The first is the place of education in an information society. Information and communications technologies are affecting every aspect of our lives and there is thus a need for us to process information. Herein public education needs to reassess its role when there is general access to information systems such as the Internet. It also needs to take account of the fact that the private sector spends more than the public sector on education and training. The second is how education can act to develop a common core of values, attitudes and understandings in a period when societies are becoming so much more mixed and even intergenerational values differ considerably. The third is how children can be motivated to concentrate, work purposefully and learn for themselves. Bentley argued that there were two crucial tests of an effective education:

• how well students can apply what they learn in situations beyond the bounds of their formal educational experience
• how well prepared they are to continue learning and solving problems throughout the rest of their lives.

Bentley argued that the solutions to these problems lie in involving young people in a much wider range of contexts for learning, giving them a real responsibility for what they are doing while emphasising rigour and achievement. He envisioned schools as neighbourhood learning
centres, arguing that assessment must become more broad ranging and more coherent and involve the wider community.

In a similar vein Spender (2001) argued that future curriculum will need to address skills to enable students to access content that might be useful. He points out that to resource future students we need to provide them with skills that incorporate:

- learning to learn
- learning quickly
- self-management
- responsibility for own learning
- portfolio careers
- employment and training conditions
- communication skills
- digital dexterity
- flexibility and ingenuity
- critical and creative thinking
- collaboration and community.

Kennedy’s (2001) focus is on curriculum and he argued that the curriculum of the future will need to encompass four broad areas:

- Social and cultural studies (history/geography/civics)
- Literacy, numeracy and scientific studies
- Vocational studies
- Community learning studies (service learning and community oriented projects).

He asserted that the school should not be the only site of learning for students but that there should be easy movement in and out of school and that learning at different sites should be acknowledged. He saw the Internet as a metaphor for future pedagogy in that it facilitates access to information retrieval but leaves individuals to decide what is important.

These are only a few observations on what should be included in future learning. They do, however, lead us to a reconsideration of the assumptions upon we base our curriculum. It is no longer appropriate to define content in terms of a collection of ‘tried and true’ bits of information gleaned from books in classrooms; skills associated with manipulating and presenting that information in a written form; and values and dispositions of a monocultural society. Education for the future must include new technologies, enabling access to as yet undeveloped technologies, and critical analysis of the uses of these technologies. It must
address critical thinking skills and develop general abilities to obtain information and make decisions based on that information. If we consider the future world to be a global village, then students will need to develop communication skills to interact with individuals and groups with different perspectives than their own.

Aspects of HSIE as it stands are seen to be included in all of the ACDE three new basics (techne, oeconomia and humanitas) as it does in all of the four Queensland New Basics (life pathways, multiliteracies, active citizenship and environments and technologies). Undoubtedly the inner conflict between the various branches of the learning area will continue but it is useful to explore some views as to what this new learning will mean generally for the area of study.
HSIE and the New Basics

What is HSIE?

The definitive subject matter and skills incorporated in the Human Society and Its Environment learning area are also variously referred to as Studies of Society and Environment, social science, social studies, new social studies, teaching about society, the study of society, citizenship education and civics. Primary and secondary areas of schooling often use different terminology. Some see these areas of study as a collection of similar or related subjects such as history, geography, and economics, while others see them as elements of an integrated field of study.

There has always been difficulty establishing the purposes and parameters of the social studies area and despite studies by researchers such as Engle (1960), Barr, Barth and Shermis (1977) and Shaver (1982, 1987) in the US and Johnstone (1986), Reynolds (1999) and Kennedy (2001) in Australia, it continues to elicit scrutiny. Divisions between the cultural traditions approach, including civics education, and the critical evaluation and decision-making approach, which could be seen as an active citizenship approach, are still apparent in Australia (Smith, 1986). Similarly Johnston argued that the evolution of what he calls the social studies area of study throughout this century can be seen as the recurrent negotiation of the relative weight given to the encouragement of either social commitment or social comprehension, achieved through the aims of citizenship or scholarship (Johnston, 1986).

Definitions tend to focus on the intentions of the study rather than the disciplinary antecedents. Barr, Barth and Shermis (1977) argued that the key to understanding the confusion of meaning at the school subject level was that the social education field had three traditions (citizenship transmission, social science, and reflective inquiry), which different teachers adopted to different degrees. More recently, Martorella (1996) has proposed that there are actually five traditions; transmission of cultural heritage, social science, reflective inquiry, informed social criticism, and personal development. Gilbert (2001) in Australia has posited similar conceptual stances in the national Studies of Society and Environment learning area. He calls these approaches SOSE as information about the world, SOSE as social and political inculcation, SOSE as the development of disciplined knowledge and problem-solving, SOSE as personal and social development, SOSE for effective participation in society, and SOSE for critical social understanding and action. These traditions are related to the development of the learning area over time. This has not been a coherent process and a
brief examination of the development of the area may help elucidate the understandings of the field.

Whatever the rationale for the subject group, what is clear is that geography and history fall within the domain of this area of study. It is the role of the newer social sciences that often causes confusion. The newer social science disciplines, including anthropology, political science, economics, sociology, social statistics, social psychology and social geography, arose broadly from the need to expose and solve societal problems associated with technological advances, the factory system, urbanisation and changes in population distribution in the nineteenth century. At the tertiary level, new disciplines such as sociology or anthropology did not challenge the epistemology of geography and history. They could co-exist. At the school level there was more of a problem and in the United States, at the school level, the term social studies was coined, being seen as an integrated or multidisciplinary area of inquiry drawing from history and the social sciences (Longstreet, 1985). This new area of study tried to incorporate views from all of the newer social sciences as well as the older ones. In the 1960s and mid 1970s the new concepts associated with social studies after Sputnik were referred to as the ‘new social studies’. The main features of the ‘new social studies’ were the emphasis on explaining the essence of disciplines, rather than lists of facts or specific skills, and an issues-based approach. It was this ‘new’ integrated approach originating in the United States that challenged the two traditional disciplines of geography and history in NSW schools in the 1960s and 1970s.

A UNESCO sponsored conference on the Teaching of Social Sciences in the Secondary Schools was held at Burwood in Victoria in 1967 to introduce the ‘new social studies’ into Australia. The term ‘social sciences’ was seen to denote a much more rigorous form of study than the previous social studies and offered a study that could respond to current issues. It wasn’t so much the selection of content but rather the use of scientific methodology in the area of social investigation that mattered. The focus of social science teaching was seen as the understanding of concepts and the formation of generalisations. There was an empirical aspect which involved pupils in a disciplined inquiry process of examining and evaluating source material, ascertaining facts, weighing evidence and constructing hypotheses about the arrangement and relationship of events. The social sciences were to be the vehicle through which the living political, economic and social traditions were conveyed to pupils while they built up for themselves a body of justifiable beliefs. Citizenship was marginal as an aim of the social sciences. Social studies was associated with narrow, academically soft citizenship and civics courses, whereas social sciences implied a more scientific and more intellectual process.
Because of their historical long-term dominance in the curriculum, geography and history are often seen as separate to the other social sciences (Saxe, 1991). At the time of the Burwood conference the ability of history and geography advocates to provide conceptually-focused, issues-based, scientifically rigorous, and yet value-laden studies of their own society was questioned. This heralded a period when history and geography were constantly modified by their advocates to justify hegemony in this learning area (Reynolds, 1999).

In the 1990s the Australian national profiling exercise attempted to map and give some sense of direction to the area of study. The AEC Statement of Society and Environment for Australian Schools (1994) proposed five knowledge and understandings strands (Time, Continuity and Change; Place and Space; Culture; Resources; and Natural and Social Systems) and one process strand (Investigation, Communication and Participation). This and the other seven learning area statements arose from the Australian Education Council’s decision to enhance educational collaboration between Australian states. A major achievement of this council of state education ministers was the 1989 Common and Agreed National Goals for Schooling in Australia, some goals of which were incorporated into the SOSE profiles. With such a major national enterprise, however, comes a new layer of political intrigue. Maye (1998) described some of the tensions associated with curriculum development in SOSE that are not necessarily associated with the Learning Area but which affect curriculum generally. These include tensions such as the conflict between bureaucratic planning and decentralised planning and between centralised accountability and professional responsibility. The strong link that has been developed between education and economic production and employment has resulted in an emphasis on vocationally-oriented education, not previously a strong social science focus.

The Current Situation

In Australia at present it appears to be partly the US-inspired social studies approach and partly the UK-inspired traditional disciplines approach that prevails. The conceptual thrust of Studies of Society and Environment has been adopted in different measures in all states of Australia. Even in NSW, where there was a strong attempt to distance state curriculum from national curriculum (Eltis, 1995) and where the learning area was called Human Society and Its Environment, many similarities remain. It appears that at the primary school level the idea of an integrated approach based on the SOSE strands, usually guided strongly by school needs, prevails. In Victoria and New South Wales geography and history are established as disciplines. In Victoria and the Northern Territory there is a specific area of the SOSE area in
junior secondary allocated to economic concerns. In all states in the senior school there are a variety of newer and older disciplines to choose from as well as vocationally-oriented subjects.

However all the questions have not been answered. The solutions as to what this area entails always seem to involve taking on all new demands as fresh or integrated subjects, new or old disciplines. Marsh (2001) points out that criticisms of the national learning area include a lack of environmental issues, values and actions; that some groups were not included; that the cultures strand emphasised Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander groups whereas a more generic sequence of outcomes might be preferable; that there was too strong an emphasis on Australia; and that the process strand failed to capture values and action outcomes pertaining to active citizenship, environmental ethics and career education. Maye (1998) argues for the need to reappraise emphases on vocationally-oriented education and remember the liberal-progressive and socially-critical aspects of the social education field. Reynolds (1998) and Cornbleth (1995) point out that this curriculum area is always highly political causing difficulties when attempting to establish a focus for the area. Reynolds argues that a sense of ‘fairness’ pervades the learning area and that visions for its future should allow for multi-voiced perspectives from associated disciplines on the fairness of society. The notion of fairness extends to allowing a variety of teaching and learning styles so that all students can have a chance to succeed. Wade (2001) argues that social studies has been understood as a blend of the social science disciplines but for it to cater for future citizens there is a need to teach for social action. This entails letting go of the content coverage and placing primary emphasis on questioning prevailing norms and assumptions and engaging with social issues in the community. She points out that schools that provide democratic education, education for social justice and community service learning do this best.

Kennedy (2001) also questions the status quo in this learning area. He contends that there are unanswered questions such as the role of the specific disciplines in SOSE, the role of ethics and other moral issues in learning and the question of whether active citizenship should be an overarching framework for SOSE or whether it should be a strand of study. Kennedy argues that what is needed is incorporation of what the disciplines have to offer in a broad conceptualisation that meets both personal and societal needs. He points out that if the disciplines are used to provide the foundation for this area of study they can be used in two very different ways.
Tradition | Focus | Description
--- | --- | ---
Academic rationalism | Cultural Transmission | History and geography provide the main sources of content for social and environmental education. The emphasis would be on the lives of great people, the progress of Western civilisation and the consensus-making processes that so often provide Australians with a single identity and admits of no societal conflict.

Processes of Intellectual Inquiry | All the social sciences disciplines are used to provide an integrated and conceptual approach to designing social and environmental education programs. The emphasis is on the process of inquiry rather than on the selection of specific content. Questions are posed and answers sought across the full range of disciplines, using methods of research and inquiry.

The academic disciplines as the basis for studies of society and the environment. (Kennedy, 2001, p 6)

He points out that if conceptions of knowledge are used to provide unity in the SOSE area, there are three different approaches that could be used.

| Focus | Description |
--- | --- |
Social values | Social rather than academic constructs are placed at the centre of the social and environmental curriculum. In an Australian context long-held social values such as justice, freedom and equality would become the organising concepts for the school curriculum as it relates to social and environmental education. |
Citizenship | Content in social and environmental education would be selected on the basis of its potential to confront significant problems facing global and local communities. The curriculum would seek to resolve these problems by using teaching strategies consistent with processes that characterise democratic societies. |
Critical/Post-structuralist | The social and environmental curriculum would be designed to question all knowledge and would focus on the conflicting knowledge-claims made by different groups in society. Valued knowledge would be seen as personally constructed knowledge. There would be no attempt to impose the same knowledge on all students. |

Alternative conceptions of knowledge and their implications for studies of society and environment. (Kennedy, 2001, p 6)

Dufty (1999) argues that curriculum development should be cognisant of a changing world. This means that attention must be paid to such things as social, political and economic changes in Australia and the world, changing philosophical standpoints such as constructivist thinking and futures studies.
Some of the issues brought up in these general observations will be followed up more closely in the next section which examines in more depth the knowledge and understandings of HSIE, the processes of HSIE, the values of HSIE, and some of the organising frameworks for HSIE.

The Knowledge and Understandings of HSIE

Visions for the future lead educators to reconsider the knowledge and understandings that students should gain in this learning area. In many cases, however, these new learnings are simply added to the existing learnings and curriculum developers engage in endless debates as to which bit of knowledge is of more worth. Crowding the curriculum with more subject matter leads to further endless debates as to which bits of knowledge will need to be left out. The development of the 1986 Modern History syllabus in NSW provides examples of some of these sorts of discussions (Reynolds, 2001). In Virginia there was a dispute between Americans of Armenian and of Turkish descent over what to include about the history of the Ottoman Empire. The Armenians wanted formal recognition of Armenian genocide by the Ottoman Empire to be included in the standards and the Turks disagreed. The solution was to be left up to the resource writers and has not as yet been resolved (Zehr, 2001). To relate this to current discussion we could use the example of current interest in refugee issues and simply add it as another contemporary issue under Republicanism in the NSW Stage 5 History syllabus. Or should it be incorporated under citizenship and migrant Australians in the 1950s (pp 24-25)? The chronology would be a problem! Then again it is a global issue and should also be considered in junior Geography. It can fitted in at Stage 4 in 4G4 Global Citizenship. Will it go in both? Will we then assess students’ understanding of it in the Year 10 Civics and Citizenship tests?

On the other hand the curriculum could be developed around key concepts or understandings and there could be some discretion given to teachers and students to use a variety of suitable pieces of knowledge or facts to explore these concepts. If, for example, syllabus writers decreed that social justice as a global issue be investigated then one example of that could be the refugee issue in Australia, along with many other examples. This approach assumes that there are a variety of facts that are of equal value in exploring an issue and there is no need to mandate any particular set of them.

This then establishes the two ends of a continuum when establishing what knowledge and understandings are essential for the HSIE area. At the one end there are facts and groups of
facts required to be learnt and at the other there are broad conceptions to be explored with potentially no particular facts more important than any other.

Are there certain facts that we all need to know or would learning be better expressed as concepts or should we be exploring some middle ground between the two?

Examining a range of curriculum documents from various Australian states and across the world there are many different approaches that are at different points along this continuum. For example the Alabama Course of Study: Social Studies (2001) uses history and geography as the central disciplines but interweaves ideas from economics, law and US government into all courses. To graduate students must complete the ninth grade World History and Geography since 1500; tenth grade United States History and Geography: Beginnings to 1900; eleventh grade United States History and Geography: 1900 to the present, and twelfth grade American Government. In each course simple subject titles and subject matter are listed. For example, the eighth grade World History and Geography to 1500 course asks students to ‘Evaluate the forces and institutions that shaped the early Middle Ages in Europe’ and to study specified events including invasions by Huns, Franks, Angles and Saxons, the early mediaeval church and military leaders such as Charlemagne. It is argued that solid content knowledge (information literacy) in core social studies courses along with critical thinking skills and personal qualities of responsibility and self-management will promote competent, productive citizens. It is thus firmly established on the basis of essential knowledge to be taught.

Similarly the Virginia Public Schools History and Social Science Standards of Learning (2001) defines the essential understandings, knowledge and skills to be measured by the Standards of Learning tests. There is no mention of essential values to be explored other than pride in the history of the United States. School districts are to organise their own programs to implement these standards incorporating their own preferred teaching strategies. There is some flexibility as to the grades when the various topics will be introduced and tested. As an example in the course United States History to 1877 is the unit ‘Revolution and the New
Nation: 1770s to the Early 1800s’. The essential learnings the students will study in this unit include the issues of dissatisfaction that led to the American Revolution, the political ideas of the revolutionary movement in America including the ideas of John Locke, the events and key personalities in the American Revolution including George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, Patrick Henry and so on. In Civics and Economics the students have to demonstrate knowledge of the foundations of American constitutional government by activities such as explaining the fundamental principles of content of the governed, limited government, rule of law, democracy and representative government, and so on.

Not quite so factually oriented and with specific benchmarks and tests for processes as well as factual knowledge are the Missouri Frameworks for Curriculum Development (1996, 1999). These standards were developed with the aim of improving students’ skills in abstract thinking, problem-solving and working collaboratively. For example in Grade 8 United States History students need to know about cultural interactions among Native Americans, Immigrants from Europe and Africans brought to America. In Government they need to know about limited and unlimited governments and how lives vary under these systems. Performance standards include such outcomes as ‘develop questions and ideas to initiate and refine research’.

Victoria’s Curriculum and Standards Framework (2001) has divided the SOSE curriculum for upper primary and junior secondary school into three strands, History, Geography, and Economy and Society with outcomes that vary in the specificity of the knowledge and understandings to be developed. These outcomes are intended to provide conceptual development and so are not couched in terms of knowledge only. For example at Level 5 Economy and Society one of the outcomes is ‘analyse key features of Australia’s political system at local, state and federal levels’. The indicators, however, do specify subject matter including identification of values of representative democracy, participation, representation, rights and responsibilities and the role of key individuals including the head of state, prime minister and so on.

In Western Australia teachers devise their own teaching plans for primary and junior secondary schools. These programs of work are expected to link overarching outcomes for all learning areas, with values, and specific Society and Environment strand outcomes. Subject matter to be studied is defined as broad conceptions such as ‘identify the constructive and destructive consequences of continuity and change and describe both evolutionary and revolutionary change’ (Early Adolescence, Change and Continuity — Scope of the Curriculum). The outcome for continuity and change is ‘Students understand that peoples’
actions and values are shaped by their understanding and interpretation of the past’. Teaching activities are expected to reflect both processes and knowledge and needs and abilities of the students, who are expected to monitor and assist in the planning.

Queensland too emphasises a conceptually developmental approach. At Level 6 Place and Space the level statement points out that ‘students understand the complexity of factor that causes variation in the features and uses of places and spaces and can apply these understandings to create visions of probable and preferred futures in personal and social settings’. Outcomes include, ‘Students investigate through participatory action how an environmental situation could be improved to reflect a values-oriented position.’ The only specified knowledge is management of a place and appropriate geographic skills.

These different approaches to making a decision upon the basis of the knowledge and understandings of HSIE can be better understood when considering the forms of knowledge proposed by Habermas (1971). He posited three groups of knowledge — substantive or propositional knowledge or technical knowledge (knowing something is the case); procedural knowledge or practical knowledge (knowing how to do something); and contextual knowledge or critical knowledge (knowing when, where and why to use given concepts) (Gilbert and Vick, 2001; Hoeppner and Land, 2001).

When examining the examples above there appears to be a hierarchy where technical knowledge is valued in the earlier samples and critical knowledge is valued in the latter ones. The role of the disciplines also varies in this hierarchy. With these latter curriculum statements many different facts, ideas and propositions from individual traditional disciplines or modern interdisciplinary approaches could be incorporated to investigate a particular concept. Knowledge taught is based on academic disciplines and can be classified under the concepts peculiar to these disciplines but these disciplines only provide templates for the organisation of relationships between different concepts (Gilbert and Vick, 2001). As an example these authors point to the value of taking a socially critical perspective and investigating economic concepts such as consumption and production by use of political concepts such as power and inequality.

It is obvious that there is no one answer to what knowledge and understandings should be incorporated into the HSIE area. It is a value judgement that should be made with consideration of what kinds of future citizens we wish to promote. Undoubtedly the role of HSIE in promoting active citizenship and establishing identity in regard to citizenship (Marginson, 1997) is crucial to the entire HSIE field and will need to be reevaluated when
further syllabuses are developed. Recent literature developed in this area will be considered in another section of this review. It is obvious from the work of the Australian Council of Deans of Education (2001), Townsend (2001) and Spender (2001) that contextual and critical knowledge will be valued more in the future world and thus a HSIE curriculum must assist students to make judgements as to when to apply their technical and practical knowledge to new situations. The developers of new syllabuses in the HSIE area will need to consider if there are any particular subject matters or concepts essential for an educated adolescent in NSW. Considering that at this particular time we are considering optional courses in HSIE this is probably of less interest. However, examining the processes of learning, and knowing when and how to use it, will become even more crucial and the literature in this area will be assessed in the next section.

The Processes of HSIE

The research from those who take a futures perspective strongly urges the importance of considering the processes and skills that learners must develop. From their general observations of the skills future learners need some guidance is provided for the types of skills HSIE learners will need. They will need to be self-directed (ACDE, 2001; QSCC, 2001; Townsend, 2001; QED, 2000; Bentley, 1998; Kennedy, 2001, and Spender, 2001). They will need to be flexible and creative (ACDE, 2001; Bentley, 1998; QSCC, 2001; Spender, 2001; Townsend, 2001). They need to be collaborative (ACDE, 2001; Hicks, 1996; QED, 2000; QSCC, 2001; Spender, 2001; Townsend, 2001). They need to have complex thinking skills and be reflective of their learning (Kennedy, 2001; QED, 2000; QSCC, 2001; Spender, 2001; Townsend, 2001). They need to have some vision of their role in the world and so be able to apply their skills to something meaningful for them and others (Bentley, 1998; QED, 2000; Spender, 2001; Townsend, 2001).

The inquiry process can include all of the desired skills as depicted above. Inquiry learning approaches have always been a feature of the social science disciplines with history and geography emphasising these aspects more strongly in the past twenty years, particularly in their school-based versions (Fines, 1970; Goodson, 1983; Reynolds, 1999). There are explanations of the inquiry process in most Social Studies/Social Science textbooks (Gilbert, 2001; Marsh, 2001) with the essential tenet being that there is a sequence of activities to guide students through a meaningful social investigation. Although there are a number of different ways of classifying this sequence it basically revolves around a progression of framing and focusing questions; locating, organising and analysing evidence; evaluating,
synthesising and reporting conclusions; possibly taking action of some sort; and reconsidering consequences and outcomes of each of the above phases (Gordon, 2000; Hamston and Murdoch, 1996; Naylor, 2000). As Naylor (2000) points out, the inquiry process is recursive in nature, and depends upon a view that students are to be strongly involved in the inquiry process. They are involved because they actively construct meaning, they need to negotiate, they frame questions to be answered, they must learn in a social context and they can be involved taking some kind of action. There are a number of precedents for such inquiry approaches in current NSW syllabuses (Society and Culture, Visual Arts, History Extension, Business Studies, Geography, HSIE K-6). There have been reported some difficulties in implementing such an approach, particularly in low achieving classes, due to students working from an insufficient knowledge base, leading to a need for direct instruction, and a lack of self discipline. There is a need in these cases for a dedicated and persistent teaching force (Rossi and Pace, 1998).

There have also been some cultural shortcomings associated with the inquiry process. A number of African countries instituted social studies specifically to encourage citizenship and to assist in nation building (Adeyemi and Asimeng-Boahene, 1999; Adeyemi and Jeremiah, 1998). As these African nations achieved independence in the late 1950s and 1960s they were attracted to the social sciences as ways of revising inherited History and Geography courses which had become training grounds for the empire of whatever nation-state happened to be in power in that country (Merryfield, 1988). Social studies offered an alternative to the colonial model of citizenship education for a newly independent nation — a citizenship program that responded to their countries' unique nation-building needs (Barth, 1989). However, the inquiry approach was not the usual approach taken in education in many African communities (where traditional culture was usually geared to the communal achievement and respect for and imitation of the accumulated knowledge of elders) and has not been totally successful (Asimeng-Boahene, 1999; Merryfield, 1988). In our culturally diverse schools an awareness of these learning differences must be kept in mind.

Aspects of the inquiry process can be used and taught discretely. There is much information available on the development of skills associated with cooperative and collaborative learning (Aronson et al., 1978; Bellanca, 1992; Dalton, 1985; Hill and Hill, 1990; Johnson and Johnson, 1984; Sharan and Sharan, 1992; Slavin, 1990; Van Sickle, 1992). Similarly, the development of thinking skills is well researched (Beyer, 1991; Bloom, 1956; Costa, Fogarty and Bellanca, 1992; De Bono, 1987, 1992; Leming, 1998; McCarthy, 1990; Newmann and Wehlage, 1993; QED, 2000). Related to the development of thinking skills is the notion of multiple intelligences as developed by Howard Gardner. His argument is that certain styles of
intelligence or thinking, verbal/linguistic and logical/mathematical, have been valued by schools in the past and that there are other modalities in which students can learn and demonstrate their learning – visual/spatial; bodily/kinaesthetic; musical/rhythmic; interpersonal and intrapersonal. Implementing the ideas of Gardner can ensure that students develop a variety of skills of value to future citizens (Gardner, 1983, 1995).

An alternate way to look at the skills and processes of the HSIE area is to examine how the area can contribute to competencies necessary for lifelong learning and students’ future role in the workforce. Using the Mayer Key competencies as a guide, HSIE can provide experience in collecting, analysing and organising ideas; communicating ideas and information; planning and organising activities; working with others and in teams; solving problems; using technology; and of course it provides large amounts of experience in implementing the last competency, cultural understandings (Mayer Report, 1992). Covering such a large range of generic skills of value to a citizen can be a two-edged sword to a learning area. There are so many skills to be conquered in a HSIE classroom they can be skimmed over and nothing learned properly. On the other hand, as a learning area it provides wonderful opportunity to put discretely learnt skills into practice and provide a meaningful focus for skill use. Competent teachers can balance these two focuses.

HSIE requires skills of participation. Students in this learning area have to be connected to their community if this area is to assist them in future learning (Cumming, 1999; Arthur, 2000). This is currently seen to be an area requiring further attention and the question of linking student’s schoolwork to current issues and the importance of citizenship education and its links to community issues is covered in more depth later in this report. Holden and Clough (1998) point out that children are interested and concerned about issues such as environmental destruction, crime and violence and they would like to work towards effective changes to their society. There are also significant benefits for society in developing such competent citizens. They argue that such participation is dependent on the value that teachers place on this participation. Competence in participation must be developed if it is to be effective. Hart argues that children should work alongside adults in school and community projects and that there is a hierarchy of participation skills that can be developed. Activities that involve manipulation, decoration or tokenism do not constitute participation (Hart, 1992).

The development of critical social understanding and of an ability to put into action the findings of student investigation is also critical (Hoepper, 1999; Gilbert, 2001). Issues-based education has a long history in the social studies (Evans and Saxe, 1996) but critical theorists
argue for a critical perspective on all knowledge, arguing that economic interests have shaped the interests of many aspects of society, including education, and that active citizens need to question and redress this (Hurst and Ross, 2000). Forms of action for school students can be congruent with societal views and need not be extremist.

The Values of HSIE

Values underpin all of what we do in HSIE. They influence what we teach, how we teach and they are an object of discussion in our teaching. However, there is little available guidance to teachers as to what values are important in our society and the best ways to teach them. There is little guidance as to what values are considered to be important for the teachers themselves to model (Aspin, 2000; Lovat, 2000). There is also little incentive to consider them. Values are not easily observed by researchers and the community at large. Education appears to emphasise cognitive processes and outcomes-based assessment policies tend to emphasise behavioural objectives. The plurality of our society also leads to difficulties in deciding upon appropriate values and teaching strategies. However, as Gilbert and Hoepper (2001) point out, schools cannot avoid values and pupils and parents believe schools have a responsibility to promote them even if they are unsure exactly what they should be.

What kinds of Values?

Increasingly school systems in Australia have considered including values more explicitly into their curricula. In New South Wales the Department of Education document, The Values We Teach (1991) set out a core of values to do with education, self and others, and civic responsibilities. The Statement on Studies of Society and Environment for Australian Schools (1994) listed values being associated with either democratic process, social justice or ecological sustainability. In Western Australia a group of Values Outcomes Statements were developed by consulting with many disparate groups in the community, and these were used to provide a framework for the curriculum of all learning areas. Hill (1996, 2000) argued that the national profiling exercise in Australia paid little attention to values and this area needed redressing across the country. He claimed that the technical values associated with economic rationalism were inadequate to keep the peace and maintain social structures. The values developed in Western Australia were grouped into two categories — protective values concerning the rights of individuals and purposive values that are shared goals and hopes for a community. Lovat (2000) argued that for a balanced and complete values education attention must be paid to three avenues of investigation: different ethical positions; professional ethics for teachers; and ethics in the curriculum. The National Forum on Values
in Education and the Community in the UK accepted that agreed values could be grouped into values on society, relationships, self and the environment (1996a, in Taylor, 2000). The Civics Expert Group (1994) also attempted to identify some core values to guide citizenship education including civility and respect for the rule of law, concern for the welfare, rights and dignity of others and acceptance of diversity. Hicks (1999) argued that futures education should be focused on values – personal, welfare, freedom from violence, justice for all, environmental care and participation in decisions. It seems obvious that there are some values that our society as a whole respects but the difficulty is how to teach and model these.

**How should we teach values?**

Lovat and Schofield (1998, 2000) explored the worth of a direct values education program in establishing the values expounded in the New South Wales *Values We Teach* document. The program focused on the use of a range of moral issues and dilemmas in a classroom setting using a variety of teaching strategies. Students who participated reported high enjoyment and belief in the worth of the program. They found that the intervention did produce changes in attitudes with best results associated with activities that linked values with the school-related environment and the real-life experience of the child.

Religious schools particularly have explored both religious and community values and how best to teach them. One such approach is the RAVE (Religious and Values Education) approach that has five themes as a curriculum base for K-12. The strands are:

- an appreciation of the Bible and Christian traditions
- ethics and values education (both theoretically based and issues-based)
- to introduce young people to central areas in the philosophy of religion
- to help young people to become familiar with the main world religions
- to provide children with an appreciation of the value of stillness (meditation) (Dialogue Australasia, 2001).

Lemin, Potts and Welford's (1994) six-point strategy for considering values is useful as a guide to values’ study:

1. Identifying, clarifying and researching others' values
2. Comparing, contrasting and exploring the nature of values
3. Exploring and understanding feelings and others' perspectives
4. Exploring intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicting values
5. Considering alternatives and implications
6. Making a plan of action.
It should be noted that values' clarification activities, where students consider their own values, should be limited because they ignore an understanding of the overall schema of values and tend to leave the impression that values are static and able to be freely chosen and disposed of, an impression very different to reality.

**Organising Frameworks for HSIE**

The Australian Council of Deans of Education (2001) argues that new learning should be interdisciplinary with a purpose beyond teaching disciplinary integrity. The HSIE area is in itself interdisciplinary and most teachers who work in the field have skills in more than one of the traditional disciplines as well as many of the new disciplines. Without leaving the learning area there is scope for disciplinary as well as interdisciplinary studies. There are a variety of focuses upon which to establish these studies. As previously noted, an inquiry approach to a pertinent issue or a theme can provide the focus for both disciplinary and interdisciplinary study (Gordon, 2000; Naylor, 2000). However, a focus could be provided by the HSIE skills or processes that students are required to develop (Hinde McLeod, Reynolds and Weckert, 2001). Alternatively the focus can be established by values (Lovat and Schofield, 1998). What ever is chosen to guide the HSIE study it should have a vision for what future citizens require to know and be able to do.

**Integrated versus single-disciplined?**

There is often hot debate about the value of integrated as opposed to single disciplined study. Kysilka (1998) points out that there is a continuum of the degree in which a course of study is integrated or single disciplined and what the features of these studies would be.
Kysilka argues that an integrated curriculum can achieve the following:

- encourage genuine, meaningful and purposeful learning
- provide significant activities because they are most directly related to students’ interests and needs
- is closer to the knowledge of the real world which is integrated
- help individuals to know how to learn and how to think
- see subject matter as a means and not a goal
- assist students and teachers to work cooperatively to ensure successful learning
- accommodate the fact that knowledge is growing exponentially and is no longer static and conquerable
- allow access to technology which defies lock-step, sequential learning (Kysilka, 1998).

Opponents of cross-disciplinary integration (Schug and Cross, 1998) argue that there are eight myths about curriculum integration:

1. Has empirical support
   Argues that there is also support for separate disciplines.
2. Increased academic achievement
   Argues that disciplines offer more focus. This seems to imply that both approaches are failing dismally.
3. Elementary schools do it better
Argues that much elementary school integration is simply busy work. Need experts to integrate in a meaningful way.

4 Allows more time
Argues that some subjects are left out when integrating. Typically it is worked around the language arts and some subjects such as Science and Social Studies are left out of the curriculum.

5 Leads to better curriculum planning
Argues that curriculum integration makes it difficult to know what is being taught.

6 Integration results in better pedagogy
Argues that poor teaching can be just as widespread using an integrated approach as in discipline approach.

7 The real world is not organised around disciplines and that real people use communication and problem-solving skills that cut across disciplines
Argues that most jobs require high levels of specialised knowledge.

8 Curriculum integration encourages higher levels of thinking
Argues that often it is done at a lower level of content.

They offer suggestions when integrating curriculum to ensure that it is a meaningful exercise.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Hint</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teach and assess academic content.</td>
<td>Curriculum integration provides a means to teach academic content in different ways. Integration does not replace, ignore, or reduce the academic content. Integration is not the end but rather a means to teach academic content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be sure that integration emerges from within the curriculum.</td>
<td>Do not add integrated curriculum as a separate layer of curriculum, but use it to make connections when they are appropriate, meaningful, and evident.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start slowly and small.</td>
<td>Meaningful curriculum integration does not require complete integration all the time, for all content, for all teachers, and for all students. Rather, it requires starting small and slowly to make important, well-thought-out connections.</td>
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Make meaningful connections and avoid triviality. | Be sure that the integrated curriculum is delivered from the curriculum, that themes used do not trivialize the academic content, and that the experience is educationally significant for students. Do not force connections that distort or trivialize the academic content or the connections.

Use projects when educationally sound. | Do not equate curriculum integration with projects. Rather, use projects based on their fit with the learning and curriculum processes.

Study, prepare, inquire, and plan. | Neither students nor teachers can integrate what they do not know. Integration requires a sophistication of knowledge as a prerequisite. To attempt to integrate what is not understood will distort, nullify, and simplify content. Conversely, integration should allow for an extension and connection of the academic content.

Recommendations

• That the basis on which we decide upon the knowledge and understandings of HSIE be reconsidered. The criteria for this re-evaluation should be how this knowledge and understandings can contribute to future citizens who need to operate in a very different world than our own. There would need to be some recognition of the need to cater for individual differences.

• That it is clear that content-focused knowledge and understandings are becoming less and less appropriate and that the conceptual focus of HSIE should be reconsidered. Kennedy provides some direction in this regard with his suggestion that either social values, active citizenship or a critical approach to all knowledge be established as a focus for HSIE. Active citizenship would be an appropriate compromise for early adolescents.

• A curriculum should focus on ‘issues that are likely to be the ones that confront young people as citizens — equality, equity, social justice, reconciliation, globalisation, environment degradation, internationalisation, identity, social cohesion, inclusion, difference, human rights and the development of an economy that can provide a fair distribution of resources within society’ (Kennedy, 2001, p 25).

• Processes and skills of most value in HSIE are:
  – self-direction
  – flexibility and creativity
  – collaboration
  – complex reflective thinking
  – establishing a vision and a meaning for learning.

  Involvement in community activities out of the classroom and in the virtual community via the Internet would assist the development of these.

• It is possible to establish common and agreed values to teach with and about, implicitly and explicitly, in the HSIE classroom. Efforts should be made to bring these further to the fore in HSIE curricula.
Civics and Citizenship Education

The nature of citizenship, the roles and responsibilities of citizenship, the levels of citizenship participation by young Australians in particular, and the knowledge of government demonstrated by Australians in general, have been the topic of discussion in Australia for the past ten years and continue to concern educators and the public in general (Civics Expert Group, 1994; Krinks, 1999; Senate Standing Committee on Citizenship Education, 1989, 1991). Current issues in Australia that require a society with a strong sense of citizenship are those such as multiculturalism, Reconciliation and republicanism (Kennedy, 2001). In a period of history when there is huge displacement of peoples to other countries due to war and poverty, and the notion of the global economy where national boundaries are irrelevant is a reality, citizenship has become a vital issue for many countries, not just Australia. Key concerns are the position and role of non-citizens living in a nation state, the need for citizens to know how their political system operates, the need for people to feel connected and identify with the nation, how to deal with citizenship in a pluralistic society, issues associated with dual citizenship and the notion of global citizenship, and how to encourage citizens to participate in decision-making in their society (Arnason, 2001; Bohan, 2001; Kerr, 1999).

Education initiatives in Australia have primarily come from the various parliamentary and electoral education offices and associated bodies, with an emphasis on knowledge about how parliament and formal government at various levels works (Parliament Pack, PEO website, State parliament website). There has been much less work done on how to encourage participation in democratic processes and involvement in the ‘messiness’ of citizenship issues (What should we do with refugees? What are my right and responsibilities in my school and community? Are my views towards others in my school racist?). There is a need to review education for citizenship and to ascertain what it is that we want to teach. A simple dichotomy is the active versus passive citizenship continuum. Are our curriculum initiatives creating active or passive citizens? What is the role of informal citizenship opportunities in this education? To what extent is citizenship education central in the HSIE learning area? Before launching into further research in these areas it is valuable to see where we have come from.

The 1989 Senate Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training report entitled Education for Active Citizenship, defined an active citizen:

An active citizen is not someone who has simply accumulated a store of facts about the workings of the political system – someone who is able to perform well in a
political quiz. An understanding of how the social and political systems work is an essential element, but equally important is the motivation and the capacity to put that knowledge to good use…. An active citizen, in the committee’s view, is someone who not only believes in the concept of a democratic society but who is willing and able to translate that belief into action. Active citizenship is a compound of knowledge, skills and attitudes: knowledge about how society works; the skills needed to participate effectively; and a conviction that active participation is the right of all citizens (p 7)

The 1991 *Active Citizenship Revisited* report clarified this definition when it claimed that an active citizen can only be constituted through an education which:

- encourages reflection
- provides knowledge of the community’s public processes and institutions and their relationship to private institutions, and
- enables students to develop the skills, confidence and imagination for transformative and private action (p 6).

As opposed to these visions civics education has come under a great deal of scrutiny. A key incentive for this renewal of interest was the ANOP survey, conducted as part of the Civics Expert Group report, which indicated an alarming lack of knowledge by Australians of key political institutions (Civics Expert Group, 1994). Civics is a term that has been used over a long period of time and connotes knowledge of institutions of citizenship. Historically it had acquired a reputation for being boring and repetitious. The Civics Expert Group (1994) gave civics the meaning:

An identifiable body of knowledge, skills and understandings relating to the organisation and working of society, including Australian political and social heritage, democratic processes, government, public administration, and judicial system (p 6).

It is claimed by this group that it doesn’t necessarily have to be taught as it was in the past and that it can be relevant and interesting. The Civics Expert Group perceived the term ‘citizenship’ as a broader term:

It encompasses a whole range of educational processes, formal or informal, that encourage and inform participation by citizens in community activities and public affairs (p 7).

The Social Educators Association of Australia, in their response to the Civics Expert Group, claimed that ‘citizenship education’ was more desirable than civics education because as well as including the knowledge, skills and attitudes of citizenship it included:

…the added implication of community awareness and involvement, participation and ongoing learning with a futures perspective…. Such learning can begin in schools but
is not restricted to school and is an ongoing, lifelong process (SEAA Response to *Whereas the People*, 1995, p 80).

In fact one critic of the Civics Expert Group Report argued that the role of citizens as envisaged in this report was someone who:

…is factually informed about formal processes… obedient and accurate voters and enthusiastic spectators of the experts and insiders chosen to make the important decisions (Leppard, p 50).

The Civics Expert Group Report was the basis upon which the *Discovering Democracy* educational resources were developed. These resources have had a strong slant towards civics education with most criticism directed towards its overly historical emphasis (Curriculum Corporation, 1997). These materials have been distributed to schools all over Australia and there has been some useful teacher inservice education provided on the materials. In New South Wales citizenship perspectives have been incorporated into the junior History and Geography syllabuses and a mandatory test has been established at the end of Year 10 to assess the success of this. Citizenship education permeates the HSIE K-6 syllabus with some strands containing specific civics education (Time and Continuity and Social Systems and Structures). To work toward future curricula further questions need to be addressed.

**Active or Passive Citizens?**

Do we want to teach the knowledge of the formal operations of government and some of the historical background of these or do we want to teach for the desire and the ability to get involved in community events and issues? There is continuing debate as to what we really need in citizenship education and how to go about achieving this (Crick, 1998; European Commission, 1998; Hunter and Jimenez, 1999; Kahne, Rodriguez, Smith and Thiede, 2000; Kerr, 1999; Mentor and Walker, 2000).

The grid below demonstrates the range of citizenship type behaviours that could result from different forms of citizenship education. The grid also assists in the assessment of programs for citizenship education.
### Formal Teaching of Citizenship

There is strong evidence that knowledge of processes of government can be taught in formal teaching situations in schools. The *Discovering Democracy* project in Australia has been seen to be quite successful. It has targeted the civics aspects of citizenship education (MacIntyre, 1996, 1995). It has provided materials for understanding the historical background to government and some of the key government processes such as how parliament works, how a committee runs and so on. These are areas in which teachers along with the majority of Australian citizens have little knowledge (Armitage, 1998; The Civics Expert Group, 1994). When these materials have been included in State curriculum frameworks, or have been easily incorporated, they have been taken up (Campbell, 2000; Carter, Ditchburn and Bennett, 1999; Finch, 1999; Print, Moroz and Reynolds, 2001).

There is research evidence that teaching students the formal mechanics of government, in projects like the *Discovering Democracy* resources, does lead to increased levels of political expertise and democratic commitment (Crick, 1998; Frazer, 1999; Niemi and Junn, 1998). Hogan and Fearnley-Sander (1999) however, argue that the *Discovering Democracy* material lacks a philosophical framework. Saha (2000) surveyed over 1000 school students in Australia focusing on civic knowledge, democratic values and dispositions towards normative and non-normative political activity. Saha’s research was to find out if what students were specifically taught in school had any impact on their political activism. He found that having taken a civics subject in school is positively and significantly related to all political knowledge. He also found that civics education was correlated with a normative

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<tr>
<th>Normative/Communal</th>
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<th>Active</th>
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<tr>
<td>Tradition</td>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>Market forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Materialism</td>
<td>Enterprise</td>
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<td>Family</td>
<td>Permissiveness</td>
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<td>Parochialism</td>
<td>Hedonism</td>
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<td>Fraternity</td>
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<td>Utilitarian</td>
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<tr>
<td>Morality</td>
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| Pragmatic/Individualistic |                  |                |

(signing petitions, writing letters etc) form of active citizenship. Hahn (1999) found that students were more interested in public affairs when some sort of political education was included in the curriculum. Emler and Frazer (1999) found a strong correlation in the research they reviewed between education and active citizenship participation although the exact linkages were not always apparent. Skills useful to participation in political activity such as organising meetings were mastered in formal education setting but informal involvement in sporting associations and voluntary clubs and so on could compensate for formal learning in this area.

**Participatory Teaching of Citizenship**

There is also research evidence that indicates that formal teaching of civics does not necessarily motivate students to get involved in their community and that a more participatory approach could lead to further involvement as well as teaching civics skills. Some authors have pointed out that the *Discovering Democracy* material had an over-emphasis on historical material, heavy emphasis on content and employed a pedagogy which does not include active citizenship (Moroz, 2001; Robinson and Parkin, 1997). Wesselingh (2000) similarly argues for an increase of participatory competence in future citizens. Crick (1998) emphasised the importance of school ethos, organisation, structures and daily practices in schools in citizenship education. Similarly Emler and Frazer (1999) also found that the most consistent indicator of anti-authoritarianism was the extent to which teachers encouraged the expression of opinion by students in the classroom. There is also strong evidence that political identity and engagement is strongly conditioned by kinship and peer networks and by the mass media (Buckingham, 1999; Emler and Frazer, 1999). Dufty (1995) reminds us of the importance of values in any discussion of citizenship and the need for citizenship education to create a better and more caring world. Kerr (1999) similarly notes that those countries with a ‘values-explicit’ tradition are better able to set out the aims and goals of citizenship that those with a ‘values-neutral’ tradition.

Community links are emphasised by a group of researchers who call themselves communitarians. Although they are a disparate group their fundamental thesis is that the community, rather than the individual or the state, should be the centre of our citizenship endeavours (Arthur, 1998). They appear to be a corrective to those who have a view that individual needs and wants should be the basis of our society. The Australian Council of Deans of Education tends to err toward this view when it argues that in an era of civic pluralism we must re-energise schools to be centres of community and to provide leadership in encouraging and valuing diversity (ACDE, 2001). Wesselingh (2000) similarly argues that
there is a loss of identity in the traditional nation-state and that people identify with regional focus.

The study by the European Commission on Education and Active Citizenship (1998) emphasised the importance of non-formal teaching and learning contexts in incorporating affective and pragmatic learning with cognitive learning. This report also demonstrated the need to emphasise communication and intercultural skills in the changing global environment. Fagerlind and Kanaev (2000) also stressed the importance of these issues in the newly emerging national states of Central Asia. Others point to the value of young people’s voluntary and campaigning activities in developing citizenship (Roker, Player and Coleman, 1999; Ross, 2000).

Hahn conducted a six-country comparative study of citizenship education. She found that ‘when educational policies and practices give students the opportunities to investigate, discuss, and express views on public policy issue, they are more likely to develop attitudes that are supportive of political participation than if they do not have such experiences’ (p 245). Students in the Netherlands and England were the most apathetic. High Danish levels of interest and efficacy appear to be influenced by the many opportunities to participate in decision-making in their schools and communities. Kahne, J, Rodriguez, M, Smith, B and Thiede, K (2000) developed rubrics from research reflecting conceptions of what was required to prepare citizens for a democratic society. They observed classrooms in Chicago and found an ‘alarming’ lack of opportunities to develop these capacities. They also found a correlation between the provision of opportunities for citizenship development with opportunities for higher order thinking and disciplined inquiry. Kerr (1999) in an international comparison of citizenship education found that there was a move away from a knowledge-based approach to citizenship education to a broader approach encompassing knowledge and understandings, active experiences and the development of student values, dispositions, skills and aptitudes. The role of the teacher was central in this process. Prior (1999) found that teachers did not seem to be aware of the nexus between the product of their classrooms and the processes such as the daily routines of the classrooms in the promotion of citizenship.

Who misses out in Citizenship Education?

Critics of Discovering Democracy argue that the material ‘valorises a white, male, Eurocentric concept of citizen which completely marginalises significant sections of people in Australia’ (Gill and Reid, 1999, p 72). Woods (1996) argues for the need for an Aboriginal
perspective on issues such as Reconciliation and discussion of pre-1788 governmental structure in Australia in the Discovering Democracy material. Finch points out that the resources are inappropriate for students with English as a second language and Indigenous students (1999). Foster argues that the Civics Expert Group discounts the reality that women as primary caregivers are limited in their participation in citizenship activities. Knight and Pearl (1999) and Kwan Choi Tse (2000) argue that school students are limited in their understandings of citizenship because of the authoritarian structures in schools.

Cultural pluralism poses a challenge to citizenship education. There are differing views of what constitutes a nation and so citizenship education should vary from nation to nation according to its degree of historical continuity and uniformity in ethnic makeup (Arnason, 2001; Burtonwood, 1998; Osler and Starkey, 2001; Starkey, 2000). Bohan (2001) points out that American views of citizenship, which emphasise diversity and difference, tend to silence cultural differences where ideas such as shared responsibility are valued. Howard (2001) and Osler and Starkey (2001) also discuss the difficulties of establishing a multicultural democracy where students need to maintain components of their racial and ethnic cultures, yet construct a nation-state where diversity is recognised. Galligan (1999) argues that promoting cultural attributes and distinctiveness to enhance national diversity is not an appropriate basis for defining citizenship. There is an emerging notion of global citizenship and national citizenship must be related to this wider view (Boydell, 1997; Calder and Smith, 1996; Merryfield, 1998).

Citizenship for the future

There is a need to have a conceptual view of the style of citizenship education that we would like to encourage in Australia. The initial panic that ensued from the 1994 ANOP survey of political knowledge of Australians has had an effect and the lack of this form of content knowledge is being redressed. Although this is not uniform and there will need to be continual efforts to raise the knowledge of formal operations of government it can be said that there has been an improvement in the past five years. Undoubtedly this will assist future Australians when they want to participate in their society but how do we deal with apathy? There is a strong affective component to citizenship education and it is vital that our young people feel empowered to be involved and make a contribution to their society at local, national and global levels. This has to be more than an involvement in the formal process of voting because increasingly young people do not register to vote, and new immigration laws enable people to live in Australia without formal citizenship rights. An effective citizenship model of education would encourage an interest in the society in which we live and an affinity with its underlying principles. An effective citizenship model of education would
encourage participation both inside and outside the classroom. This will involve encouraging democratic teaching styles and links with authentic, as opposed to token, community links. An effective citizenship education model must be inclusive. An understanding of alternative views on issues, alternate systems of government and alternate conceptions of citizenship need to be encouraged and accepted as part of a continuing debate on citizenship rights and responsibilities.
Recommendaions

- There is still a need to pursue citizenship education. The Discovering Democracy materials have provided guidance as to civics education but there is still a need for work in developing active citizens as opposed to passive citizens.
- Active citizens:
  - know about the formal operations of government.
  - know how they can influence events in their school and in the wider world both formally and informally
  - have the skills necessary to participate in a wide range of civic-minded activities such as discussions and debates and can access different sorts of resources including people in order to solve problems
  - value and make use of the opportunities provided by democratic processes in their school and classroom
  - value diversity
  - recognise and value a set of principles to guide citizenship.
- There needs to be a core of citizenship values and principles to underpin citizenship activities.
- There needs to be more student activity in non-formal areas of education and more linkages programs between schools and their communities. The whole area of service learning should be explored.
- The Western Australian curriculum uses active citizenship as the focus for their SOSE studies and this should be considered. Many of the issues reviewed are interlinked. The notion of the HSIE area being about citizenship education can bring them together in a meaningful manner.
Technology and HSIE

The overall picture is one of not using technology to its potential (Berson, 2000; Bonnett, McFarlane and Williams, 1999; Clark, 2000; Diem, 2000; Fabos and Young, 1999; Moroz, 1998; Russell and Russell, 1997; Scott and O’Sullivan, 2000; Sunal, Smith, Sunal and Britt, 1998; Yelland, 1996). At this point of time students get most of their technology skills and use at home (ACDE, 2001; Russell and Russell, 1997).

There have been two extensive literature reviews on the use of technology in Social Studies. One was done by Ebman and Glenn in 1991 and the other by Berson in 1996. They offer an interesting comparison and a way to trace the longitudinal development of computer skills and classroom usage of computers in the social studies area. In turn they can be compared with recent studies. Most research in this area is based in the US but the more recent literature has a few Australian contributions. Undoubtedly lack of access to the technology has played a large part in the dearth of research in this country.

Technology is both an object of study and a tool of instruction in the HSIE classroom. In both capacities technology has the potential to have a huge impact on this learning area. Technology can increase students’ access to enormous resources and diverse communities and provide fruitful areas of discussion of the ethics of technology, equity and technology, globalisation, changes in employment because of technology, and issues of privacy and censorship. It may also increase the motivation of students in the HSIE area (an area in much need of motivating experiences according to Moroz, 1996), and can aid in problem-solving and decision-making, research skills, data-processing skills and communication abilities (Berson, 1996). However the literature continually points out that it is under-utilised. Cuban (2000) even claimed that the large investment being made into putting technology into classrooms has been largely a waste of money with no appreciable improvement in student prospects for the future. Ross (2000) likewise pointed out that there is very little evidence of the beneficial claims of proponents of technology. Although the constant plea in research papers is for more research some of the advantages and disadvantage of technology use in the HSIE classroom are discussed below.
The Value of Technology

Many claim that one of the most positive advantages of technology in HSIE classrooms is that it can establish individualised, small group work and less structured teaching approaches (Diem, 2000; Massie, 1997; Travers, 1998). Such learner-centred education can also assist in cooperative learning and social skills development in the classroom (ACDE, 2001; Bonnett, McFarlane and Williams, 1999; Pearson, 2000; Travers, 1998). Ehman and Glenn’s review (1991) found that group work in computers tended to lead to males dominating the procedures while in many cases grouping strategies tended to be based on previous use of the technology. These results caused misgivings in terms of equity of access. There was also the finding that teachers were very controlling of behaviour at computers and limited student exploration of the possibilities of the computer. Diem (2000) found that teacher-centred instruction had not changed very much in the ten years since the initial literature review and fewer that two out of every ten teachers were serious users of computer activities in their classrooms. Moroz (1997) likewise found that teacher-centred instructional practices were used rather than learner-centred ones. Yelland (1996) actually found that drill and practice activities on the computer discouraged cooperation and limited creativity.

Despite these discouraging reviews of actual practice there were many to point to its potential value. Bonnett, McFarlane and Williams (1999) found that multimedia authoring encouraged discussion and evaluation of information and developed students’ sense of responsibility for their own choices and actions. The researchers did indicate that this technique challenged the pre-existing culture of the classroom and posed problems when used in conjunction with formal assessment procedures. McKenna (1998); McKenny (2001); Mioduser, Nachmias, Lahav and Oren (2000); and Rice and Wilson (1999) argue for the constructivist, cooperative peer teaching experiences that computer technology can offer.

Technology, particularly computer and net-based work can provide opportunities for problem-solving and inquiry-based activities (McKenny, 2001; Rice and Wilson, 1999; Pearson, 2000; Saye and Brush, 1999). The computer tools most often employed were databases in earlier work and the Internet in later research. Simulation games also provided opportunities for problem-solving. The earlier review by Ehman and Glenn (1991) found positive results in problem solving skills when students used databases although the studies were mainly based on anecdotal evidence. The research cited by Berson (1996) went into much more detail about the specific conditions that enhanced the problem-solving behaviour. They found that students’ self-directed learning and use of higher order thinking skills are facilitated by teacher instruction in discussion skills, question-asking skills, establishing
procedures, allowing for debriefing and teacher-modeled procedures. Once again many studies were anecdotal but there was much more evidence that computers were valuable in problem-solving areas and that better learning was assisted by tried and true good teaching practices. Recent research can once again be questioned for its lack of research rigour. One study by Saye and Brush (1999), however, considered problem-based instruction using multimedia and found that scaffolded multimedia experiences provided a more authentic context for learners, raised student interest, provided alternative perspectives and more easily provided materials to assist in the problem-solving. They found that expert guidance by the teacher was a crucial factor in establishing disciplined inquiry. As before there were many researchers enthused with the potential of technology, particularly with new technologies such as Virtual Reality programs and the use of Internet facilities in schools to develop problem-based activities (Barr, 1996; Berson, 2000; Bell, 2001; Crocco, 2001; Leverenz, 1999; Rice and Wilson, 1999; Pearson, 2000; Sherman and Hicks, 2000; and Travers, 1998).

Technology has the potential for enhancing cultural interaction (Barr, 1996; Curtin, 1997; Merryfield, 2000). In Ehman and Glenn’s literature review (1991) there was no mention of this facility, an indication of how quickly the technology has developed. Berson (1996) mentions the Internet links as being valuable in developing penpals and establishing cross-cultural relationships. However, he pointed out that enthusiasm and motivation are high in these projects but the reports of student achievement are still not convincing. Barr reported on a cross cultural e-mail project that proved very successful. He warned that such projects need to be well structured if they are to move beyond mere superficial conversation that may well exacerbate stereotyping. Curtin (1997) made similar warnings and argued for enough time to conduct such cross-cultural communications in depth so that superficial observations did not persist. Merryfield (2000) found the distancing power of the electronic talk room and discussion forum assisted students from different cultures to discuss varying perspectives more effectively. If the term ‘culture’ is taken broadly Berson (2000) argues for the use of e-mail for increasing communication between the culture of the school and the culture of the family and community. An area of concern is that lack of resources online that reflect the multicultural background of students (Bell, 2001). Chisholm and Wetzel (2001) pointed out that it was not only the information on the web but a range of facilitating factors such as equitable access that were need to improve multicultural technology integration.

Other valuable uses of technology in the classroom include the potential of technology to assist in learning out of educational institutions (ACDE, 2001; Berson, 2000; Travers, 1998; Wilson, 2001); its value in assisting student motivation (Bonnett, McFarlane and Williams, 1999; O’Rourke, 1998; Scott and O’Sullivan, 2000; Travers, 1998); and its provision of
improved access to resources (Scott and O’Sullivan, 2000; Sunal, Smith, Sunal and Britt, 1998).

Bell (2001) pointed out the specific technology tools that social studies educators would find most useful. These were:

- electronic discussion groups
- digital resource centres with primary resources
- digital video cameras
- handheld computing devices
- videoconferencing/electronic whiteboards
- spreadsheets
- quantitative and qualitative statistical software packages
- internet2
- presentation software.

Problems in Implementation

There is a need for critical skills particularly in use of the web (Hepburn, 1998; Owens, 1999; Ross, 2000; Scott and O’Sullivan, 2000; Sunal, Smith, Sunal and Britt, 1998; Wilkinson, Bennett and Oliver, 1997). Bruce (1998) points out that information literacy consists of seven different experiences, all of which require careful consideration by teachers in HSIE classes if the critical literacy potential of the web is to be of value. Sunal, Smith, Sunal and Britt (1998) emphasised the importance of teachers modeling the use of the Internet. Hepburn (1998) argues that media literacy and critical viewing education is vital in social studies classrooms. Mioduser, Nachmias, Lahav and Oren (2000) extend the need to develop these critical skills to websites.

There are always mechanical problems such as breakdowns, servicing difficulties and lack of access (Bills, 2001; Fleming, 2001). Research seems to be sceptical about the value of drill and practice exercises in the social studies area (Moroz, 1998; Ross, 2000; Yellan, 1996). Crocco points out that there is research that found, when examining test scores of students using computer-assisted drill and practice exercises, student performance actually goes down. There are very few valid reasons for teaching in a drill and practice fashion in social studies/sciences classrooms.

There is a need for teachers to change their pedagogical practices and this can be a substantial difficulty (Bonnett, McFarlane and Williams, 1999; Tasmanian Dept of Education, 2000;
Diem, 2000; Moroz, 1998; Russell and Russell, 1997; Travers, 1998). Teachers are challenged to devise teaching strategies that assert liberal educational values. Students can be independent learners by using computer technology effectively and increasingly teachers are required to reorient their thinking towards teaching and assessing process rather than product (Bonnett, McFarlane and Williams, 1999). Clark (2000), however, found that teachers’ skills in integrating computer technology into their classrooms had improved in the past five years. The Tasmanian Education Department project (2000) found that mentoring among teachers rather than allowing an IT specialist to mentor was the most effective way to develop teachers’ computer integration skills. Saye (2000) suggested that teachers must assess technology use in their classrooms on the basis of its robustness, its potential for promotion of higher order thinking and disciplined inquiry, its potential for expanding the ways that students can gain and demonstrate new understandings and the opportunity costs. He contends that technology should not be a ‘frilly appendage’.

The Social Studies’ discussion group, reported by Bell (2001), provided some key questions for the future of technology and social studies which should be considered.

- Is technology in schools simply ‘glitzy’, all style and no substance?
- Is technology changing the way children learn?
- What does diversity mean for access and different types of learning?
- What are the ways of bringing inexpensive technologies into the classrooms and making connections to people around the world?
- How can we address the growing digital divide?
- How can we teach children to be critical consumers of information found in cyberspace?
- How can we maintain children’s safety and privacy on the Internet?
- How can we improve collaboration between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers?

The literature reviewed offers some directions in answering these questions but no definite solutions. There is a constant call for more substantial research in the area.
Recommendations

• There is a need for a holistic overview of computer technology in schools which covers all the related issues. Excellent use of technology involves school architecture, access to resources, teacher training, student motivation, interactive classroom relationships being developed, development of critical information skills, assistance for teachers in the form of ideas, good technical support and so forth.

• In the HSIE area technology is extremely valuable. Of greatest value is the potential of the Internet for information gathering, linking communities, motivating students in this area, promoting cooperative group work, and assisting students to make new, personal knowledge.

• In the HSIE area it should be assumed that computer technology will be used and that it should complement the knowledge, skills and values of HSIE. Examples of best practice in the integration of technology in classrooms, particularly in the area of critical evaluation of websites and cyberspace communication, should be developed as guides to teachers.

• Students should explore issues of access, equity and social justice in regard to technology.

• Teachers should explore possibilities for interdisciplinary collaborative opportunities.
Global Education

The area of global education is a relatively new area of study and suffers from lack of definition and direction. Students and nations find it difficult to see themselves as global citizens or part of the global village (Banks, 2001; Carnoy, 1998; Kerr, 1999). In the US Handbook of Research on Social Studies Teaching and Learning (Shaver, 1991) this area was reviewed under the theme of developing international understanding and had less of the interconnecting connotations than global education does today. Massialas, who produced the review, was aware of the distinction and concentrated his review mainly on studies that involved enhancing knowledge of international problems and positing possible solutions — not on improving relations and interactions between peoples.

Kirkwood (2001) has reviewed recent literature on global education and argues that it is far from a study of international issues but is now a field based on the following assumptions:

- ‘Human beings are created equal regardless of age, ability, class ethnicity, gender, nationality, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status or race
- Human behaviour is culturally, not racially determined
- All members of the human family possess basic human rights
- Global education has a moral purpose.’ (p 10)

It is associated with a ‘civic culture’ of individuals across the world.

Fien and Williamson-Fien (2001) claimed that 'global education, along with multicultural education, seeks to promote understanding, empathy and solidarity with the patterns of life experienced by societies different from our own' (p 128). It is intended to be value-laden and often emphasises inequality in third world countries.

Merryfield (1997) provided the most up-to-date framework on what constitutes global education. She included eight elements:

- human beliefs and problems
- global systems
- global issues and problems
- cross-cultural understanding
- awareness of human choices
- global history
- acquisition of Indigenous knowledge
- development of analytical, evaluative, and participatory skills.
Merryfield (1998) studied novice and exemplary teachers of global education and found that all groups emphasised:

- the importance of providing multiple perspectives and conflicting viewpoints on issues and people under study
- the value of tolerance, respect and cooperation
- the view that global content should be connected to students’ lives and interests
- linkages across world cultures and time periods.

Exemplary global educators emphasised:

- the privileges Americans had compared to other countries and taught about inequities in technology, mortality rates, education, civil and human rights, distribution of capital and so on
- the importance of cross-cultural experiential learning
- a thematic approach bringing together a number of disciplines to instruct in global education
- skills in higher level thinking and research
- the use of a variety of teaching strategies and instructional resources.

It can be seen from these elements that global education entails many elements from other areas considered to be in the HSIE area (multicultural education for instance) and so supporters will need to advocate its inclusion as a separate cross-disciplinary focus of study.

The literature indicates that there are a couple of alternatives to working towards global citizenship, either by experiencing processes or by investigating themes or topics.
Working with Processes
There are a number of social science practices that will help establish global interconnectedness (Boydell, 1997; Merryfield, 1998; Torney-Purta (1986); Townsend, 2001). These include:

- group cooperative behaviour
- investigating and participating in activities to promote basic human rights
- celebrating diversity
- community participation
- participating in activities that promote international heroes and heroines, myths and rituals (Banks, 2001)
- using cross-curricular skills such as poetry and music writings.

Working with Themes
There are particular themes or content that assist in promoting global awareness (Calder and Smith, 1996; Carnoy, 1995; Fien and Williamson-Fien, 2001; Williams, 2000). These include:

- development education
- human rights education
- environment education
- peace education
- multicultural education
- futures studies
- the changing role of women in society
- the impact of the global economy and changing patterns of work
- the revolution of information and communications technologies
- violence studies.
Recommendations

- There is a lack of clarity about the purposes of global education although some areas such as peace education and environmental education have clearer direction. Curriculum direction could be provided by studying some aspect of global education rather than attempting to ‘do it all’.
- There is a desperate need for more information about the value of global education and its effect on student learning.
- Global education can be approached from the point of view of processes and skills development that will enhance global connectedness, or by establishing fields of study that will exemplify the concept.
Multicultural/Intercultural Education

In an era of massive cultural migration and appreciation of how colonial legacies have marginalised Indigenous groups in our society the issue of how to teach in a plural society and in classrooms of cultural diversity is of vital interest to HSIE teachers. Multicultural and intercultural education is a vital part of the HSIE curriculum with the main purpose being to develop students who can function well in a democratic and pluralistic society. Andrews (1999) argues that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights provides the most appropriate summary of principles for multicultural/intercultural education.

Definitions

Multicultural education is the term used most frequently in the US, Australia, the United Kingdom and Canada. However the term intercultural education is frequently used on the European continent. Those who use the term intercultural education contend that intercultural education implies an education that promotes interaction among different cultures whereas multicultural education does not. Gundara (2000) points out that the term ‘multicultural’ is increasingly seen to reflect the nature of societies and is used in descriptive terms while the term ‘intercultural’ emphasises interactions, negotiations and process and thus subsumes anti-racist activities. Verma (1997) argues that the term ‘intercultural education’ appears to be supplanting the use of the terms ‘multicultural’ and ‘anti-racist’ education. Lamarre (1998) pointed out that debate over which term to use has abated in Canada as the preponderance of similarities as opposed to differences between the two terms has been recognised. The two terms will be used interchangeably in this paper in order to accommodate various researchers’ preferences.

Multicultural education theorists are increasingly interested in how the interaction of race, class and gender influences education and covers culture, ethnicity, cultural identity, disability, giftedness, and gender. Its aim is to transform society (or their own mini-society whether it be the classroom or the community) so that students from diverse racial, ethnic and social class groups will experience intellectual, social and personal equality (Banks, 2001; Bennett, 1999). According to Bennett there are four interactive dimensions in multicultural education, these being the movement towards equity, curriculum reform, the development of intercultural competencies and the commitment to combat prejudice and discrimination, especially racism (Bennett, 1999). Multicultural education is an ongoing process and its goals will never be fully realised (Banks and McGee Banks, 1997).
Principles for Multicultural/Intercultural Education

Banks, Cookson, Gay, and Hawley (2001) reported the results of a four-year project of research into multicultural education and developed twelve principles upon which to place a valid multicultural program.

1. Teachers’ professional development should help teachers uncover and identify personal attitudes toward racial, ethnic, language and cultural groups; acquire knowledge about their histories and cultures and diverse perspectives; understand principles of institutional racism; and be able to institute equity pedagogy. The latter includes using knowledge of their students’ culture and ethnicity to guide inquiry. This needs to be done with care (Dooley and Singh, 1998).

2. Schools should provide equitable opportunities to learn.

3. Students should be assisted to realise that all knowledge is socially constructed.

4. All students should be able to participate in extracurricular and co-curricular activities that develop academic skills and foster positive interracial relationships.

5. Schools should foster groups to improve intergroup relations.

6. Students should learn about stereotyping and other biases that have negative effects on racial and ethnic relations.

7. Students need to learn about values shared by all groups.

8. Students should learn social skills to interact effectively with members of another culture.

9. Students from different racial, ethnic, cultural and language groups should be able to interact socially without fear.

10. The organisation of the school should be collaborative.

11. Public schools should be funded equitably.

12. Assessment should be culturally sensitive. A single method of assessment will probably further disadvantage students from particular social classes and ethnic groups.

It can be seen that these principles expand upon the four-pronged approach described by Bennett (1999) and involve a commitment beyond the classroom. Many of the programs advocated for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander education emphasise the importance of connections and skills developed outside the classroom (Buckskin, 2000; Burridge, 1999; Craven, 1999; Heitmeyer, Nilan and O’Brien, 1996; MCEETYA, 2000; and Partington, 1996). Within the classroom there are different approaches taken. These basically stem from the question of why the programs are being instituted in the first place. Gundara (2000) points out that much of the work done in the area in Europe has developed from problem-solving programs designed to help immigrant children who have little knowledge of English. In
Australia early programs emphasized the need to include others in ‘our’ society and were not designed to bring about intercultural understandings.

**Classroom Curriculum Approaches for dealing with Difference**

Woodrow, Verma, Rocha-Trindade, Campani and Bagley (1997) argue that there are five basic groups of philosophies associated with multiculturalism:

1. **Cultural assimilation**  
   Developed as a result of recurrent academic failure of pupils from minority groups.

2. **Cultural understanding**  
   Education about cultural differences. The goal is to value the cultural richness of diversity.

3. **Cultural pluralism**  
   Preservation and extension of pluralism.

4. **Bicultural education**  
   Intended to make individuals competent in two cultures. It rejects assimilation.

5. **Social transformation**  
   Designed to develop the awareness of students, parents and communities about socioeconomic conditions to enable them to engage in social actions based on a critical understanding of reality.

Whichever approach is decided upon then one of Banks’ (2001) conceptions for the curriculum would apply. He argues that there are four levels of sophistication in these curriculum offerings:

- **Level 1:** The *Contributions* approach which focuses on heroes or holidays or other discrete cultural elements.

- **Level 2:** The *Additive* approach where multicultural concepts, themes and perspectives are added to the curriculum without changing its structure.

- **Level 3:** The *Transformation* approach where the curriculum is changed to enable students to view concepts, issues, events and themes from the perspective of diverse ethnic and cultural groups.

- **Level 4:** The *Social Action* approach where students make decisions on important social issues and take actions to solve them (Banks, 2001).

Lamarre (1998) provides a similar range of options when discussing multicultural/intercultural education in Canada and Price (2001) indicates that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies cover a similar continuum.
Approaches at level one and two are not considered appropriate and the lessons developed become ‘questionable, simplistic and fragmented’ (Gay, 1995; Hill and Allan, 1998; Lo Bianco, 1996; Powell, 1996; White, 1998). Lo Bianco indicates that because of the economic imperative associated with studies of Asia that many programs tend to consider Asian countries from a colonial perspective as a stranger looking on, virtually ignoring the reality of a plural and multi-vocal Australia. Its prime focus is not on domestic multicultural understanding. Singh (1996) likewise has concerns about colonialisit orientalist attitudes being apparent in Australian teaching about Asia. Nozaki and Inokuchi (1997) have similar misgivings about programs that emphasise the stereotyping of Asian societies. Nord (2000) points out as well that the issue of religion does not feature in multicultural programs and in fact many programs are supposedly value-free and are thus in conflict with religious beliefs.

Approaches at levels three and four are advocated through a variety of subject matter, skills and values studies. There has always been a tension between exploring group and individual identity (Dooley and Singh, 1996; Gill and Howard, 1999; Nord, 2000; Nozaki and Inokuchi, 1997; Singh and Henry, 1998; Yon, 2000). Some support a total rethink of our curriculum to ascertain the legacies of colonialism including existing power relations in our society and the privilege associated with ‘whiteness’ (Crowley, 1999; Gundara, 1997; Kincheloe and Steinberg, 1997; McLaren and Munoz, 2000; McLaren, 1997; Ovando and McLaren, 2000; Powell, 1996; Williamson-Fien, 1996; Wills, 2001). Others would have values provide the underlying themes of intercultural studies (Andrews, 1999; Banks and McGee Banks, 1997; Cairns, Lawton and Gardner, 2001; FitzGerald, 1994; Verma, 1997). Crick in Olsen (2000) argues for the inclusion of the study of racism in its current and changing forms. Partington (1996) would no doubt agree with him.

Marsh (2001) suggests that useful approaches include inquiry, role-playing, cooperative learning, literature-based activities, and story writing. Wilhelm (1998) offers practices such as examining controversial issues from multiple perspectives and using literature to explore different cultural viewpoints as useful teaching strategies. Others consider that too much has been done already. (Ellington, 1998).

Gundara indicates a number of areas that require further research: why groups with family structures, language and religions different to the dominant groups perform better in the education system; why racism seems to function differently in different countries and how immigrant groups change their identity over time (Gundara, 2000). There is obviously the need for much more research on the positives and pitfalls of holistic approaches to Multicultural/Intercultural education.
Recommendations

- There is a need for a holistic approach to Multicultural/Intercultural education. It cannot be the sole responsibility of the HSIE teacher and it is not the sole responsibility of the school.
- There is a need for a developmental approach to exploring cultures and cultural diversity. It is not sufficient to implement token multicultural perspectives associated with ‘national days’ and traditional food, dress, music and dance.
- There is a need to incorporate activities that demonstrate the adaptive and evolutionary nature of culture in Australia.
- There is a need to focus on interaction between cultures.
- There is a need to focus on issues of structural power and privilege and the effects of this particularly on class, gender and race.
- The values associated with Multicultural/Intercultural education need to be identified and advocated in teaching programs.
- Suggested teaching practices include examining controversial issues from multiple perspectives, using literature to explore different cultural viewpoints, inquiry teaching, role-playing and cooperative learning.
Assessment and HSIE

Assessment is dependent on what you are trying to assess and is thus reliant on your vision of HSIE. Much of the literature on assessment is thus included or is implied in other sections. The middle years of schooling when students are interested in exploring diverse ways of doing things are excellent times to experiment with alternate assessment procedures (Cormack, 1998). All the comments below are based on the realities of an outcomes-based assessment framework that is not necessarily the same as the standards movement in the US. In many states of the US the outcomes, often vastly different to our own and very factually oriented, are assessed by standardised written tests (Evans, 2001; Vinson, 2001). Teachers are teaching to the test and restricting areas of the curriculum about which HSIE is intensely concerned – social development, values study, collaborative, community-based learning, to name but a few (Buckles, Schug and Watts, 2001). Filer (2000) points to the similar restriction of the curriculum in the UK because of assessment regimes. This does not have to be the only form of assessment in an outcomes-based education system and more holistic approaches can just as easily enable assessment of appropriate outcomes.

If you believe in the ‘new basics’ (for instance the Queensland New Basics) assessment must:

- revalue the professional judgement of teachers
- develop kinds of persons who relate to learning
- measure how you work with not knowing
- be about how you learn collaboratively in groups
- focus on dealing with change, diversity and unpredictability.

Excellent measures of the new basics are:

- project assessment
- performance assessment
- group assessment

All of these tasks are only limited by the outcomes they are attempting to assess. Restricted outcomes lead to restricted assessment practices. Assessment should be authentic. Authentic assessment encourages learners to demonstrate their learning in a manner which is similar to the ways learning is demonstrated in the wider world. It typically involves an integrated
approach using skills, knowledge and values from a number of outcomes and content areas (Reynolds, 2001). It should:

- encourage teachers to look beyond the school for models and inspiration in designing assessment tasks
- attempt holistic and contemporary assessment
- involve teacher, student and community judgement
- promote complex thinking and problem-solving
- encourage student performance of their learning
- engage with issues of equity (Williams, Johnson, Peters and Cormack, 1999).

Values are often overlooked when assessing, particularly when working in an outcomes-based assessment climate where achievement is often behaviourally construed. Hill (2001) however argued that with the Values Outcomes Statements developed in Western Australia the capacity to recognise, and not necessarily the commitment to, certain values could be assessed. In the 1970s it was seen as essential in the social education area that values be assessed on the basis that if they were not assessed then they would not be taught (Reynolds, 1999). Killen (2000) points out that the basis of outcomes-based assessment is that there must be a clarity of purpose, that the outcomes provide this and that the assessment be designed to measure the outcomes. It therefore follows that with no specific values-based outcomes or assessment, there is much less likelihood of in-depth examination of values that society considers to be important.
Recommendations

- Assessment should move toward holistic models that allow students to demonstrate their achievements in a number of different mediums. This does not preclude the notion of outcomes-based assessment.
- Assessment should incorporate skills and processes, particularly social and critical research skills.
- An attempt should be made to investigate the assessment of a capacity to recognise values.
Current Issues

Issues-centred instruction is ‘a teaching approach that uses social issues to emphasise reflective and often controversial questions in contemporary and historical contexts...[it] encourages students to become more thoughtful about the way they view social life...while it engages them in the challenges and dilemmas citizens confront’ (Hahn, 1996, p 25). Hahn (1996) found that literature in the social studies area supported the view that open discussion in an issues-centred classroom can have positive civic outcomes with students developing:

- an interest in the political world
- a sense that they can have some influence on political decisions
- a belief that they have a duty to be actively involved in politics.

Passe (2001) argues that the skills learnt in these issues-focused classrooms are of value in the workplace. These skills include improved interpersonal relations, problem-solving abilities, organisational ability and the acceptance of a sense of responsibility. Although it posed some difficulties for teachers Rossi and Pace (1998) found in-depth, issues-based instruction of value with low achieving students. It is obvious that examining issues has certain advantages particularly that of viewing the curriculum as a whole rather than simply as the sum of its parts (Wraga, 1999).

Issues-centred education focuses on the problematic and can lead to controversy and discussion involving opposing views. There will rarely be conclusive, finally ‘right’ answers. The emphasis is on developing well-reasoned responses based on disciplined inquiry (Evans, Newmann and Saxe, 1996). They argue that there are four important principles upon which all issues-centred curricula should be built:

- depth of understanding is more important than coverage and superficial exposure
- topics and issues need to be connected through some kind of thematic, disciplinary, interdisciplinary or historical structure.
- the study of issues must be substantially grounded in challenging content
- students must experience influence and control in the inquiry process.

Challenges for teachers

- The necessity of regarding curriculum development as a continuous process of improvement, rather than as cyclical procedure designed largely to meet external mandates
- The importance of substantive participation in curriculum development, especially on the part of teachers
• The obligation to dignify the integrity of the individual learner
• Teachers’ willingness to discuss controversial issues in the classroom. This varies according to the broader political culture at the time, the teachers’ experience (less experienced teachers are more willing), the teacher’s gender (slightly higher among males) and topic (sex-related subjects are most taboo)
• The need for the issues to be problematic even for the teacher
• The need for a commitment to critical studies and a solid knowledge base
• The need to use multiple resources drawn from several disciplines (not necessarily outside the HSIE learning area)
• The need for a supportive classroom climate
• The need for students to have continuous practice in using extended oral and written language.

(Evans, R W, Avery, P G and Pederson, P V, 1999; Wraga, 1999; Evans, Newmann and Saxe, 1996; Hahn, 1996)

Paterson (1998) argues that it is necessary for Australian students to engage with vital issues that affect Australia and the world. Suggested activities for engaging students in meaningful active citizenship include issues such as famine in southern Sudan, children working, the use of landmines in war and caring for the Earth. These issues indicate the close links between the ideas of issues-based teaching and the ideas espoused by those who advocate global education.

Kennedy (2000) pointed out that a curriculum should focus on ‘issues that are likely to be the ones that confront young people as citizens:
‘equality, equity, social justice, reconciliation, globalisation, environment degradation, internationalisation, identity, social cohesion, inclusion, difference, human rights and the development of an economy that can provide a fair distribution of resources within society’ (p 25).
Recommendations

• In-depth, issues-based programs of work should be encouraged in HSIE 7-10.
• Such programs should be connected through some kind of thematic, disciplinary, interdisciplinary or historical structure and be able to be related to the overall focus of HSIE.
• The study of issues must be substantially grounded in challenging content.
• Students must experience influence and control in the inquiry process.
• The skills, processes and values associated with issues-based instruction are as important as the content covered.
HSIE and Middle Schooling

The Board already has access to extensive literature reviews on middle schooling and so comments about HSIE should be related to these. The links to many of the approaches advocated by HSIE researchers are obvious and are covered in a number of different sections of this review.

Barratt (1998) indicated that the particular needs of young adolescents that should be addressed in the middle years of schooling are identity, relationships, purpose, empowerment, success, rigour and safety. Thereupon curriculum for the middle years should be learner-centred, collaboratively organised, outcomes-based, flexibly constructed, ethically aware, community-oriented, adequately resourced and strategically linked.

Mackey (1991) found that many adolescents are being caught up in social issues and that they are being hurried into adulthood, while being denied the opportunity to test tentative social theories and ways of behaviour. HSIE classrooms should offer safe, successful, democratic environments in which to become involved in a variety of issues that will develop their social skills, including responsible decision-making, and allow them to explore values. It is at this age that students have a greater awareness and skill in interacting with the social and political world (Cormack 1991). These interests and abilities should be utilised and developed in the wider community. It is a time when issues of difference and diversity are explored. A good middle school should offer alternative ways of being a successful student and citizen (Cormack, 1998).

Beane (1995) pointed out that the sources of the curriculum should be the problems, issues and concerns posed by life itself. The HSIE area thus should be a source of great interest to early adolescent students because its overall aim is to provide meaning about society. Using integrated curriculum guidelines designed by Beane (1994), where themes are established at the intersection of self and world questions, Roberts collated student generated questions as a guide to the curriculum. Questions of relevance to HSIE were:

- What kind of job will I have and how will I get it?
- Will there be enough jobs for everyone?
- Why is there so much poverty in the world?
- What are the causes of poverty?
- What is war?
- Will there ever be world peace?
Why do animals become extinct?
How is the world being polluted?
Is Australia/the world over-populated?
What new inventions do we need?

A note of warning is sounded by Scott (1997) who points out that one of the six principles for middle schooling is that education in this period must have a sound philosophical base. As indicated earlier many of the ideas of middle schooling are relevant for all HSIE classrooms. The unique aspect of the middle school period is that it is a period when students can developmentally achieve much more in areas such as global education, multicultural/intercultural education and issues-based instruction and because of their more advanced social skills can experience more success in community-based programs. Such wonderful abilities should not be squandered on short-term ‘trendy’ themes but should be engaged in in-depth, meaningful investigations of issues of great personal interest and relevance. These issues should relate to the overall purpose of HSIE.
**Recommendations**

- That the HSIE 7-10 syllabus encourage a variety of learning experiences that allow students to develop collaborative decision-making skills and involve them increasingly in the wider community.
- That students be given some freedom to explore issues of personal or group interest.
- That students be provided with plenty of support in their studies in a period when they are still developing vital social and emotional skills.
- That issues explored be related to the overall HSIE framework and that students be assisted to link their interests with larger issues.