Importance of citizenship at national and Global level

What is active citizenship and how is it defined? This proved a challenging question to answer. The study reveals that:

• The term 'active citizenship' is not yet clearly understood or defined

within and across INCA countries.

• Active citizenship is related to shifting notions and definitions of
citizenship and citizenship education and its usage is entwined with the
progress of citizenship education in INCA countries.
• In many countries the promotion of active citizenship is linked to a more
participatory form of citizenship which involves the development of
citizenship education as an active process in a range of contexts in and
beyond schools.
• Countries promote and support active citizenship for a range of reasons
dependent on cultural and historical contexts. This suggests that once the
term is more clearly understood it is likely to remain a contested concept.

• There is limited exploration of the conceptual underpinnings of active
citizenship and, as a result, a distinct lack of clarity and common
understanding of where it has come from and what it means.

The evidence collected in the thematic study suggests that, at present, active
citizenship:

• is fundamentally about engagement and participation
• focuses on participation in both civil and civic society
• is increasingly framed in the context of lifelong and life wide learning
• involves the active development of citizenship dimensions not just
knowledge and understanding, but skills development and behaviours
picked up through experience of participation in a range of contexts
• includes both 'active' and 'passive' elements
• encompasses theoretical approaches to citizenship – liberal,
communitarian and civic republican – and ranges from more conformist,

collective actions and behaviours to those that are more individualistic and
challenge driven.
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• citizenship as a legal 'status' (USA)
• citizenship as a lever for social cohesion or civic engagement (the
Netherlands, Republic of Ireland, Hungary and England)
• citizenship reinforcing a sense of national identity or patriotism (Singapore
and Japan).

What is emerging from the data, to date, is a recognition that there is no one
universally accepted definition of 'active citizenship', but rather a series of
competing emergent definitions.

How is citizenship and active citizenship framed in education
policy?
It is clear that there is a range of policy approaches to active citizenship
development. Most countries have some policy reference, either implicit or

explicit, to active citizenship. However, the policy references and the
development of policy approaches to active citizenship is extremely diverse.
Looking at the definitions and policy approaches across INCA countries
indicates active citizenship is approached through citizenship education and in
relation to three, core, interrelated elements:

- citizenship concepts
- citizenship components
- citizenship contexts.

Whilst the situation is complex, there would appear to be a relationship
between definitions and approaches to citizenship education and those
concerning active citizenship. Put simply, this means that in countries with a
more holistic approach to citizenship education, active citizenship is coming
to be viewed as the process by which an education for citizenship can be made
active.

What implementation measures are there to turn citizenship and active

citizenship policies into effective practices?
The practice of developing and delivering active citizenship within and
beyond schools is related to a number of issues concerning: learning and
teaching; assessment and qualifications; resources; teacher education;
inspection, monitoring and evaluation; and citizenship in non-school settings.
Active Citizenship in INCA Countries

• Learning and teaching - at this stage understanding of the effectiveness
of different approaches to the learning and teaching of citizenship is
somewhat scant and requires further investigation. It is clear though, that
'active citizenship' can be understood as much in terms of an approach to
learning as of young people's participation in school and community
life.
• Assessment and qualifications - most countries consider the issue of
assessment from the perspective of the availability of accredited courses

and qualifications. On this basis, most indicate that they do not yet have
established methods of assessing citizenship education and, in particular,
active citizenship – citizenship as an active practice.

• Resources - citizenship practitioners across most INCA countries have the
facility to access a wide and diverse range of materials to support their
approaches to the learning and teaching of active citizenship. It appears
that countries within North, West and Southern Europe, the
Commonwealth, and the USA have the potential to access a broader range
of (free-market) resources than those in Asian and Eastern European
countries such as Japan, Singapore and Hungary.

• Teacher education – three countries (Australia, the Netherlands and
USA) report no provision for initial or in-service training of teachers in
citizenship education. Across the remaining countries there is more
evidence of teacher education. However, the overall picture is one of
piecemeal delivery with more of an emphasis on knowledge-based

elements rather than more active elements of citizenship programmes.

There is little evidence of training of young people in relation to participation and facilitation skills.

• Inspection, monitoring, research and evaluation - nine of the INCA countries have specific provision for the inspection, monitoring, research or evaluation, of citizenship education. This reflects the increasing trend towards some form of statutory citizenship education or civics provision within most of the responding countries.

• Citizenship in non-school settings - most countries do not have formal programmes for citizenship learning or activity in the post-compulsory or adult sectors. In these countries, however, there are many examples of piecemeal community-based programmes, initiatives and activities organised by voluntary organisations, NGOs and state bodies. This indicates that active citizenship is not yet regarded in the context of lifelong learning in all of the INCA countries.

What are the issues and challenges in turning active citizenship
policy into effective practices?
There are a number of overarching conceptual challenges concerning active
citizenship. It would be wrong to assume that all countries necessarily have a
clear understanding of what active citizenship is and of how it can be framed
in education policy and then translated into practice. The degree of policy
reference to education for citizenship, or active citizenship, across and within
countries is extremely varied at present. This reflects the cultural and political

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traditions of different countries, as well as their key motivations for
developing citizenship programmes. Indeed, in certain countries such as the
Netherlands and Japan, though policy related to active citizenship is minimal
or non-existent, practice in these countries is much more clearly developed.

In addition to these conceptual challenges, there are also a range of practical
operational factors which pose significant challenges for the development of
effective practice in active citizenship. These include challenges related to:

• Learning and teaching. There is currently a diversity of learning and
teaching practice across INCA countries, with methods ranging from rote
to experiential learning. It is clear that the discussion about 'active
citizenship' focuses as much upon encouraging teachers in schools to
adopt active learning methodologies, and opportunities for democracy
within the classroom (as in the Netherlands, Northern Ireland and the
Republic of Ireland, for example) as upon creating opportunities for active
participation in the school or wider community. However, this goal is
some way away from being realised across all the responding countries at
present:
• Teacher education. The finding that four countries have practically no

provision of initial, or in-service, teacher training related to citizenship
education is a cause for some concern, as the current lack of clarity about
the best methods of learning and teaching for active citizenship suggests a
strong need for the development of staff, and indeed young people, in this
respect. Analysis of the data suggests that countries need to work on a
number of aspects of teacher education in order to reinforce citizenship
education as an active practice.

• Assessment. There remains a requirement for a clearer, shared
understanding of the meaning of assessment, which provides scope to
recognise young people's achievements in active, as well as knowledge-
based, elements of their programmes. It is unclear from questionnaire
responses whether assessment is genuinely currently dominated by
examination of knowledge-based elements, or whether there are less
formal methods of recognising young people's achievements in active

citizenship in place, which have not been identified at this stage. The
challenge for many countries is to find ways of assessing those elements of
active citizenship which appear difficult to evaluate – skills, dispositions,
values and participation for example.

• Resources. There is currently a wealth of information and a range of
media upon which countries can draw to develop active citizenship
programmes. However, much of this information is produced and
presented in an ad hoc fashion, and has not been designed to link
specifically with different countries' curriculum documents or
programmes of study. The challenge for policy makers and practitioners is
to find ways of accessing this information, using it to best effect, and
making appropriate use of new media, in particular the Internet, in
developing their programmes.

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• Inspection and evaluation. Most inspection and evaluation frameworks,
with the exception of those in the Netherlands, do not currently consider
active citizenship specifically. This is not surprising given the relative
newness of active citizenship practice and terminology across INCA
countries, and the fact that, in many countries it is regarded as an integral
aspect of a broader concept of citizenship education. A general point
however, is that a large number of the countries have inspection or
evaluation frameworks in place for citizenship education. It is important
that the findings of these inspections be used in a formative way, in order
to inform the development of active citizenship practice internationally.

• Post-compulsory linkages. There is currently a plethora of post-
compulsory community-based programmes, initiatives and activities
organised by states, voluntary organisations and NGOs. These activities
tend to have developed in a piecemeal fashion and there is currently no

clear linkage between these and the formal citizenship curriculum within
schools, and crucially no apparent sense of active citizenship fitting within
a framework for lifelong learning.

How can active citizenship be achieved and what are its
outcomes?
The thematic study shows clear signs of emerging policy and practice in
relation to active citizenship within many of the INCA countries. However,
the analysis also suggests that the definition, policy orientation and
development of active citizenship is still in its early stages. There is much yet
to be considered, achieved and agreed, if active citizenship is to become firmly
embedded within the contexts of the school curriculum, school democratic
structures, other education and training establishments and wider
communities, and a clearer recognition of its outcomes developed. A number
of the challenges to achieving active citizenship and reaching agreement on it
outcomes remain to be tackled. These include:

• Definition - Chief amongst the challenges to embedding active citizenship
and recognising its outcomes is arriving at an accepted working definition
of what it is. Analysis of questionnaire data, and the views of experts from
INCA countries, suggest that key to this definition is being clearer about
the nature of the relationship between education for citizenship and
active citizenship. In particular, there is a need for more detailed
consideration of the central question, namely 'To what extent is active
citizenship an exposition of education for citizenship?', i.e how far is
active citizenship an active process which facilitates the translation of the
policy goals of an education for citizenship into effective practices.
• Learning and teaching approach – the challenge of determining the
most appropriate learning and teaching approaches for promoting active
citizenship. It is clear that 'active citizenship' can be understood as much

in terms of an active approach to learning, as in terms of young people's
participation in school and community life, and as such, may extend
beyond the citizenship curriculum. Stronger foundations need to be laid in

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many countries and a number of key practical implementation measures
addressed, including:

☐ Testing out and discovering the most effective learning and teaching
strategies for developing appropriate knowledge, skills, dispositions
and creativity amongst young people, within the parameters of each
country's approach to citizenship education and/or active citizenship.
☐ Developing opportunities for initial and in-service teacher training in
citizenship education or active citizenship. It is clear that training
needs to be well focused, with a clear expression of the subject's

rationale, aims and objectives. This is key, given the current lack of
agreement regarding definitions and understanding of active
citizenship and, indeed, education for citizenship, internationally.
Additionally, teacher education should seek to develop effective skills
of facilitation, and learning and teaching approaches that will best
develop knowledge, skills, dispositions and creativity, and
opportunities for active learning and participation, among young
people.

☐ Exploring the meaning of assessment for active citizenship, and
supporting practitioners and young people to find ways of recognising
achievements, especially in areas that prove difficult to evaluate: skills,
dispositions, values and participation for example. It is important that
the relative ease of examining knowledge of civics, and the 'factual'
elements of citizenship education, does not detract from the important

task of recognising young people's achievements in terms of skills
development and active participation.
◻ Considering whether practitioners and young people need guidance
and direction in locating and using relevant resources for active
citizenship (in countries which have access to a wide and diverse range
of materials), or whether the free market should prevail. Additionally,
where possible, attempts should be made by schools to maximise their
use of local resources, including agencies offering services to the local
community and young people themselves.
◻ Creating opportunities for the inspection or evaluation of active
citizenship within inspection frameworks for citizenship education or
civics. In addition, it is important that the findings of different
countries' citizenship/civics inspections be used in a formative way, in
order to inform the development of active citizenship practice
internationally.

Considering whether any continuity and progression is to be found
between school-based citizenship programmes, and post-compulsory
citizenship education.

 Considering the connections between the development of active
citizenship within a variety of learning contexts, notably curriculum,
extra-curricular, school community and wider communities. This
would help to develop a stronger sense of a lifelong learning
perspective in citizenship education or active citizenship, and
encourage a more 'joined up' or systematic approach to the
development of citizenship education policy and practice.

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Outcomes – the challenge of identifying and gaining agreement on the
outcomes of an education for citizenship and active citizenship. Analysis of

country responses, and discussion among delegates at the Oxford international
seminar, underlines that, at present, the outcomes of an education for active
citizenship that involves learning through an active process in a variety of
contexts ('active citizenship') are more aspirational and visionary than
grounded in the reality of practice. This is to be expected given that these are
early days in the development and acceptance of the term 'active citizenship'.
The majority of countries are still feeling their way in terms of policy
orientation and the development of practice and have given limited
consideration to the outcomes of such an education.

Final comment
Perhaps, above all, this second thematic study has underlined the timely
nature of the focus on 'active citizenship', or citizenship as an active practice.
This is a coming development in many countries and is also being picked up
and explored by supra-national organisations such as the European

Commission, Council of Europe and International Association for Educational
Achievement (IEA). However, the study has shown that the concept and
practice of active citizenship is often neither as active a practice in reality nor
as easily defined in relation to citizenship as might be envisaged.

What is clear is that the development and promotion of active citizenship is
still in its infancy. There is considerably more development work and
conceptual underpinning that needs to take place in order that stronger
foundations can be laid for embedding it in policy and practice and beginning
to identify and measure its outcomes. This thematic study represents one such
contribution to this underpinning. It is hoped that the outcomes will prove
useful not only to those countries that participated but to all those with an
interest in this area.

Introduction

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1. Introduction

The INCA2 thematic study on active citizenship, of which this report is the
final outcome, was commissioned by the Qualifications and Curriculum
Authority in England (QCA) in May 2005. QCA is interested in revisiting the
topic of citizenship education, and specifically 'active citizenship', following
considerable developments in policy and practice in this area both in England
and in the UK, Europe and the wider world, since the first INCA thematic
study on citizenship education was undertaken by NFER some eight years ago
(Kerr, 1999).

In England, in particular, the introduction of citizenship as a statutory new
National Curriculum subject for all students aged 11 to 16 in 2002 (QCA,

1999), the promotion of a pilot programme of citizenship development
projects in 16 to 19 education and training (Craig, et al, 2004) and an
emphasis on promoting active citizenship in local communities (Woodward,
2004) has succeeded in broadening the nature and scope of the discussion
about the most effective policies and practices concerning citizenship
education. Recent policy developments in England are replete with references
to promoting active citizenship – citizenship as an active process. Indeed in
its latest report on the progress of citizenship in schools and colleges in
England, OFSTED talks about citizenship promoting "critical democracy" in
which young people are educated to be 'critical and active citizens'
(OFSTED, 2006). However, there are still many unanswered questions as to
the meaning and implications of such policy directives for evolving practice.3
As OFSTED note 'it is the active elements that make citizenship new and
challenging' (OFSTED, 2006 p. 8). Given this context, revisiting citizenship

education, with a particular focus on 'active citizenship' is very timely for
QCA.

A consideration of the meaning, purpose and practice of active citizenship is
also timely for other countries involved in the INCA network and dovetails
with on-going developments in citizenship and human rights education across
the world. For example, The Council of Europe designated 2005 the European
Year of Citizenship through Education (Council of Europe, 2004), with a

2   International review of curriculum and assessment frameworks internet archive.
3   For further details about the development of active citizenship policy and practice in England see the Background Paper to the thematic study. It provides a case-study example of active citizenship development in England (Nelson and Kerr, 2005).
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strong emphasis on promoting and strengthening education for democratic

citizenship (EDC). Additionally, the European Commission has launched a
new programme of activities entitled Citizens for Europe to run from 2007 to
2013 to promote active European citizenship. The Commission has also set up
an expert working group to investigate how indicators for active citizenship
can be produced across Europe that feed into the follow up to the Lisbon
process from 20104. Meanwhile, at international level, the United Nations
(UN) Decade on Human Rights is on going and being strengthened by a new
programme on human rights education. There are also efforts to promote
sustainable development initiatives as part of a push on the global dimension
of citizenship. Finally, the IEA has recently announced plans for a third study
on Civics and Citizenship Education (ICCS) to run from 2006 to 20105. The
study will investigate, among other things, how well young people are
prepared to undertake their roles and responsibilities as active citizens both in
school and in the wider communities to which they belong. These

developments underline just how much QCA in England, and those involved
in the INCA network from other countries, can learn from this thematic study.

The current thematic study on active citizenship is made up of four main
processes and outcomes. It comprises:

1. A background paper. Published in 2005, this paper summarises relevant
literature in relation to active citizenship, and provides a case-study
example of active citizenship policy and practice within England in the
UK. It was disseminated to the INCA network in September 2005, along
with a questionnaire, designed by the EURYDICE Unit at NFER and
QCA, asking INCA representatives to provide details on active citizenship
policy and practice within their countries (Nelson and Kerr, 2005).
2. An issues paper. Produced early in 2006, this paper summarises
questionnaire responses received from INCA network country

representatives. There are 20 countries in the INCA network, 11 of whom,
at the time of writing, had responded to the questionnaire. It was
disseminated to the INCA network in February 2006 (Nelson and Kerr,
2006).
3. An international seminar. This took place in Oxford, England in March
2006, hosted by QCA and NFER. It provided an opportunity for country
representatives from 13 INCA countries to meet, share views and
experiences of active citizenship, and to consider developments that
needed to take place in order for active citizenship policy and practice to
develop internationally. The outcomes of this seminar are interwoven into
this final report (see Annexes A and B for details of the Oxford seminar
programme, and delegate list respectively).

4   For more details visit:
http://www.farmweb.jrc.cec.eu.int/CRELL/active_citizenship.htm
5   For more information about ICCS visit:
http://www.iea.nl/icces.htm

Introduction

4. A final report (the current document). This report draws on data collected
through the questionnaire survey of INCA countries in 2005 and 2006, and
on discussions and key findings arising from the international seminar in
March 2006. Fourteen countries responded to the questionnaire - Australia,
Canada, England, Hungary, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand,
Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, Scotland, Singapore, Spain, the
USA and Wales, and there was additional representation from one country,
Italy, at the Oxford seminar. The report seeks to provide answers, as far as
possible, to the five key questions around which the study is based. These
are outlined below.

The first INCA thematic study on citizenship education (Kerr, 1999) helped to
enrich understanding about education for citizenship at a time when

participating countries, including England, were either just about to begin, or
had just begun to undertake, major reforms in this area. These reforms were
part of a broader revision of education and national curricula. Since then
developments in citizenship education have moved on apace, and the evidence
base that can be drawn upon to assess the development of citizenship
education across INCA countries, is a great deal stronger than in the 1990s
(http://www.iea.nl/icces.html; Birzea, et al, 2004; Ireland, et al, 2006, Maes,
2006).

One of the major developments since the late 1990s has been a growing
interest in the concept of 'active citizenship' and an emphasis on its promotion
through policy and practice in a variety of contexts. However, although 'active
citizenship' is a frequently mentioned goal, or desired outcome, of citizenship
at national, regional and international levels, understanding of what it is, and
experience of how it can be developed effectively, is still evolving within and

across these contexts. There are a number of issues that remain to be explored.
In particular, though, 'active citizenship' forms part of a new language of
citizenship in the 21st century:

• What are the roots of this new language?
• What are its conceptual underpinnings and the drivers that spur on its
promotion?
• What implications does the promotion of active citizenship have for policy
and practice within and across countries?
This report seeks to provide answers to some of these issues by addressing
five key questions. These questions are those which the QCA, in dialogue
with NFER researchers, deemed to be of most interest in exploring the theme
of active citizenship, and learning from developments in INCA countries. The
questions are as follows:

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• What is active citizenship and how is it defined?

• How is citizenship and active citizenship framed in education policy?
• What implementation measures are there to turn citizenship and active
citizenship policies into effective practices?
• What are the issues and challenges in turning active citizenship policy into
effective practices?
• How can active citizenship be achieved and what are its outcomes?

The chapters that follow consider each of these questions in turn, and seek to
provide some insights into active citizenship definitions, policies, practices
and outcomes. The short final chapter attempts to sum up what has been learnt
from this thematic study.

The report is evidence based, in that the models proposed, and conclusions
reached, have been drawn from data provided by responding INCA countries.
Some of this data was provided through questionnaire returns, whilst other
data has been derived from discussions at the International Seminar, held in

Oxford, England, in March 2006. A range of relevant literature relating to
active citizenship has also been drawn upon. Where the information under
discussion has been drawn from one source specifically, this is made clear in
the report. However, where it was presented through both questionnaire
responses, and seminar discussion, as was often the case, references to 'data'
should be taken to mean information provided through more than one source.

What is active citizenship and how is it defined?

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2. What is active citizenship and how is it defined?

This fundamental question lies at the heart of this thematic study. It is hoped
that the report will help to identify a conceptual framework underpinning the

development of active citizenship and that such a framework will, in turn, lead
to greater clarity in terms of the aims and purposes assigned to active
citizenship. Chapter 3 that follows provides fuller details of countries'
definitions and approaches to 'active citizenship' within policy
documentation. The purpose of this chapter is to take a step back from the
detail and, instead, begin to explore the contexts for, and drivers of, active
citizenship and to identify the activities which comprise active citizenship and
which influence how it is defined within and across INCA countries.

To this end, and drawing on the outcomes of the wider literature reviewed in
the Background Paper (Nelson and Kerr, 2005), the questionnaire responses
from INCA countries (Annexe C shows the questionnaire to which
international experts responded) and delegates' inputs into the international
seminar in March 2006 (see Annexe A for the seminar programme and

specific questions), the chapter seeks to accomplish three specific tasks. These
are to:

• set the context and outline the key drivers that are bringing an increasing
emphasis on active citizenship in the development of policy and practice in
countries
• identify and categorise some of the principal actions and behaviours that
comprise active citizenship
• begin to explore the interplay of drivers and factors that influence the ways
in which active citizenship is defined within and across INCA countries.

This chapter, therefore, provides valuable background to a deeper
consideration of the exploration of policy documentation concerning active
citizenship in Chapter 3.

Before attempting to outline the key drivers for active citizenship it is worth
making a few general observations about the challenges posed in this thematic

study of participating countries and respondents understanding and defining
the term 'active citizenship'. For example, initial questionnaire responses
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received from the 14 participating countries and discussions at the Oxford
Seminar indicated that the term 'active citizenship' is currently not clearly
defined or understood. A number of countries did not explicitly recognise the
term, whilst others referred to it, but with very different interpretations and
meanings, as well as differing degrees of emphasis (as outlined in Chapter 3,
sections 3.1 to 3.3). Many of the countries sent through details of the policy
and practices of citizenship education in response to questions about active
citizenship.

This is a crucial finding. The responses suggest that the notion of active
citizenship is conceived currently, in most countries, as entwined with the

progress of citizenship education. The documentation received reveals the growing promotion of active citizenship linked to an emphasis in many countries on a more participatory form of citizenship that involves the development of citizenship education as an active process. It also highlights the spread of this active process to a range of contexts radiating out from schools and encompassing homes, local neighbourhoods and wider communities at national, regional and international level.

The thematic study has also shown that, at present, there is limited exploration of the conceptual underpinnings of active citizenship and, as a result, a distinct lack of clarity and common understanding of where it has come from and what it means. Such exploration is beginning to emerge through the work of supra-national bodies such as the European Commission, (Dr Weend et al., 2005; Eurydice, 2006) in partnership with the Council of Europe and the IEA, as

well as that of researchers (Kennedy, 2006; Jochum et al., 2005). This
thematic study is a contribution to such exploration. However, it is clear from
this study that it will take some time before there is understanding and
common agreement of the definition and meaning of active citizenship.
Though many participating countries promote, and respondents support, active
citizenship they appear to do so for a range of reasons. This finding came
through very clearly in the Oxford Seminar. It suggests that active citizenship,
once it is more clearly understood, is likely to be as contested a concept as that
of citizenship. It is also likely to encompass a multitude of meanings and
emphases dependent on cultural and historical contexts.

2.1 Context and drivers of active citizenship

The first thematic study in citizenship undertaken in the late 1990s (Kerr,
1999) underlined the important role of context and culture in understanding
What is active citizenship and how is it defined?

aims and approaches to citizenship education. This finding still holds true in

this second thematic study in relation to active citizenship. This is because

approaches to and definitions of active citizenship are related to shifting

notions and definitions of citizenship and citizenship education across

countries. Researchers and commentators have expanded at length on the

tensions facing the traditional concept of citizenship as defined in relation to

the nation state (Held, 1989; Kymlicka, 2001, Osler and Starkey, 2003).

These tensions arise as the notion of citizenship is revisited and revised in

response to the rapid pace of change in modern society.

A fundamental part of this review is centred on an acceptance of the changing

nature of the relationship between citizens and the state. The literature often

draws a distinction between three particular theoretical approaches to

citizenship – liberal, communitarian and civic republican (see Jochum et al.,
2005). While distinct in their conceptions of and starting-points for
citizenship, the changing nature of the relationship between citizens and the
state is beginning to establish clearer links between these three traditions. This
is because citizenship in the 21st century is increasingly becoming defined not
just in relation to citizenship as a status (historically status in relation to the
nation-state) but also crucially in relation to citizenship as an active practice.
The relentless pace of change is beginning to pose serious questions about the
nature of participation in modern society and, in particular, about how citizens
participate in civic and civil society. Increasing interest and action in
encouraging people to view citizenship as both a status and an active practice
explains the growing interest in the notion of 'active citizenship'.

So what has caused this dual emphasis to take place? There are a number of

reasons but perhaps the main two are: first the response of countries to the
impact of rapid global change on society and second, interrelated changes in
the role and practice of education. Each of these reasons is explored in turn.
The first citizenship thematic study observed that citizenship education
developments were closely linked to 'a concern in many countries about how
to respond to a period of unprecedented global change' (Kerr, 1999, p.11) and
provided a list of the key challenges at the time namely:

• rapid movement of people within and across national boundaries
• growing recognition of the rights of indigenous peoples and minorities
• collapse of political structures and the birth of new ones
• changing role of women in society
• impact of the global economy and changing patterns of work
Active Citizenship in INCA Countries

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- effect of a revolution in information and communication technologies (ICT)
- increasing global population
- creation of new forms of community (Kerr, 1999, p.12).

Interestingly, this list of key challenges remains highly relevant at the start of
the new century and can be supplemented by the growing challenges now
posed by environmental/climate change, random acts of terrorism across the
world and concerns about the continued sharp downturn in participation in
civic society, particularly among younger generations. Though many of the
challenges remain the same as in the late 1990s they have been exacerbated by
the relentless pace of change facing modern societies.

While accepting that there are many positives for individuals