

# Learning Environments and School/Classroom Climate as Supports for Civic Reasoning, Discourse, and Engagement

Carolyn Barber, *University of Missouri–Kansas City*

Christopher H. Clark, *University of North Dakota*

Judith Torney-Purta, *University of Maryland*

With the Assistance of:

David Campbell, *Notre Dame University*

Carole Hahn, *Emory University*

Deanna Kuhn, *Teachers College, Columbia University*

## CONTENTS

|   |     |
|---|-----|
| LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS AND SCHOOL/CLASSROOM CLIMATE AS SUPPORTS FOR CIVIC REASONING, DISCOURSE, AND ENGAGEMENT .....                     | 274 |
| DEFINING THE PROBLEM SPACE AND CHALLENGES .....   | 275 |
| WHAT IS MEANT BY THE TERM “CLIMATE” IN THE CONTEXT OF FORMAL LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS? .....   | 278 |
| What Is School and Classroom Climate?, 279  |     |
| How Is Climate Assessed?, 280   |     |
| Challenges of Defining and Measuring Climate, 282   |     |
| WHICH FEATURES OF LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS AND CLIMATES SUPPORT STUDENTS’ CIVIC REASONING AND DISCOURSE, AND WHY ARE THEY EFFECTIVE? ..... | 283 |
| Climate at the Classroom Level, 283   |     |
| Climate at the School Level, 287  |     |
| Limitations of Research on Features of Learning Environments, 290   |     |
| HOW DO STUDENTS PERCEIVE AND SHAPE THESE LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS? .....   | 292 |
| Students’ Experiences in the Classroom, 293   |     |
| Students’ Experiences at the School Level, 297  |     |
| Limitations of Research on Students’ Influence on Learning Environments, 298  |     |

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| WHAT ARE THE BARRIERS THAT EDUCATORS FACE IN ESTABLISHING LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS THAT PROMOTE CIVIC REASONING, DISCOURSE, AND ENGAGEMENT? ..... | 299 |
| SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....  | 301 |
| Research Directions That Address Changing Social and Cultural Contexts, 301  |     |
| Research That Foregrounds Attempts to Understand the Individual Student's Experience, 303  |     |
| Expanding and Developing Research Infrastructure, 305  |     |
| IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS .....   | 306 |
| Encourage Climates That Are Conducive to Civic Discourse Consistently Across the School, 306   |     |
| Ensure That Teachers Are Prepared and Supported, 306   |     |
| Model Civic Discourse and Reasoning for Students and Create Spaces for Students to Practice These Skills, 307                                  |     |
| Provide Opportunities for Collaboration in Class, 307  |     |
| Engage in Organization and Advocacy, 308   |     |
| CONCLUSION.....  | 309 |
| REFERENCES.....  | 310 |

## **LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS AND SCHOOL/CLASSROOM CLIMATE AS SUPPORTS FOR CIVIC REASONING, DISCOURSE, AND ENGAGEMENT**

John Dewey and Lev Vygotsky, among other prominent educational theorists, broadly noted the social nature of education, inquiry, and human conduct (Dewey, 1922; Vygotsky, 1978). In more recent decades, researchers interested in understanding young people's social and political development have become increasingly aware of the contextualized nature of the learning process, focusing on how individuals' social interactions in both formal and informal learning environments promote or inhibit learning (Carretero et al., 2016). Most civic education policy makers and many practitioners have remained focused on factual learning about structures of government and expectations of civic behavior (such as voting); they have paid less attention to students' developing capacities for civic reasoning and discourse with others, or to the specific characteristics of the learning environments that allow for the practice and development of such skills.

As research on civic education from several disciplinary perspectives has expanded, however, some common understandings regarding these developing skills have emerged. These understandings include, for example, that the nature of the climate or context within learning environments is integral to developing the skills (cognitive, interpersonal, and intrapersonal) and dispositions necessary to engage in civic reasoning and discourse. Thus, research to support effective encouragement and practice of civic reasoning and discourse requires identifying and mapping not only this development but also the characteristics of the broader classroom and school climates in which this development is most likely to occur.

In particular, an examination of research on these issues in order to identify trends, gaps, and areas for collaboration, especially activities that the National Academy of

Education might encourage, has been largely missing. The purpose of this chapter is to synthesize existing literature on how formal learning environments support (or detract from) young people's civic reasoning, discourse, and (in turn) civic engagement. In addition to relevant literature from several areas of education, the authors incorporate concepts from political science as well as several branches of psychology (including community, developmental, educational, and political psychology) that approach this topic from different theoretical perspectives. Taking into account the strengths and limitations of available literature, including how well it generalizes across educational settings and contexts, they follow this review with recommendations for strengthening research on this topic and conclude with some initial recommendations for teachers and administrators who seek to develop learning environments to foster students' civic skills and dispositions in a variety of contexts.

### DEFINING THE PROBLEM SPACE AND CHALLENGES

It is important first to define the scope of the focus on *learning environments* in general and on school and classroom climate in particular. The academic journal *Learning Environments Research: An International Journal* describes learning environments as including "the social, physical, psychological, and pedagogical contexts in which learning occurs and which affect student achievement and attitudes" (Springer Nature Switzerland AG, 2020). Based on this definition, the authors posit that a given learning environment comprises numerous, interrelated, and constantly shifting factors. Young people are exposed to numerous learning environments that can influence how civic discourse and reasoning skills develop, including family, neighborhoods, peers, community and religious organizations, and online spaces as well as schools. This chapter focuses on formal learning environments within K-12 schools as perceived by students, administrators, and teachers. For consideration of the impacts of out-of-school factors on student learning, readers should consult Chapter 5 in this report on the social and ecological contexts of schooling. This chapter focuses primarily on face-to-face interactions, with some discussion of digital learning opportunities as employed within formal educational settings; readers should consult Chapter 7 in this report for a broader exploration of online spaces for civic reasoning and discourse.

Moreover, and as further defined below, this chapter focuses on *school and classroom climates*, or the qualities of these formal learning environments as experienced by members of the school and classroom community, including though not limited to teachers, administrators, and (importantly) students (Schweig et al., 2019). As climates within a given school or classroom are formed from the collective experiences of multiple people, they develop and change over time as the individuals within them develop and change. This forms a recursive loop between the development of the individual and of the learning environment within the classroom/school (Freedman et al., 2016b). The importance of climate has been underscored by Cohen et al. (2010, p. 74), who described school climate as "the single most powerful K-12 educational strategy" for supporting the knowledge, skills, and dispositions central to participation in a democracy.

While the climates of learning environments within schools are theorized to be distinct from formal curriculum and pedagogical strategies, they affect how students may respond to course content or activities. Teachers' pedagogical choices have a reciprocal

relationship with the learning environment: While the selection and effectiveness of teaching methods is informed by the broader environment in which specific activities take place, feelings of support, safety, or challenge within the environment are in turn determined in part by the use of particular teaching methods (Hahn, 1996). In this chapter, the authors consider pedagogy insofar as it shapes the learning environment but do not provide in-depth descriptions of specific teaching methods; rather, referring readers to Chapter 8 in this report for further elaboration on pedagogies that are successful in promoting civic reasoning and discourse.

The authors also acknowledge the need to place the emphasis on *civic reasoning, discourse, and engagement*, including their manifestation in contexts outside the school. This means focusing on publications that exhibit a clear connection between learning environments and these particular processes and/or outcomes. In defining these terms, Stitzlein in Chapter 1 in this report poses the “key civic question” as “What should we do?” The focus is on actions, taken by a group, toward a desired outcome that is aligned with a sense of ethical responsibility. Within this framing, Stitzlein considers civic discourse as a context for reasoning, in which individuals work together through discussion and deliberation to support inquiry and empirical investigation while also engaging with the emotional aspects of civic questions. For the purposes of this chapter, the authors consider “engagement” as broadly inclusive of the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors (current or intended) that both represent and inform courses of action that could be taken in response to a civic issue or opportunity. This is similar to what Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011) have called “emergent participatory citizenship.” While those in the field generally theorize that engagement follows civic reasoning and discourse, it is important to acknowledge that experiences in other contexts shape the background that young people bring to formal learning environments. In turn, these environments will shape students’ civic discourse and reasoning skills, as well as their propensity for future inquiry and civic engagement beyond the classroom.

Even with this framing, considering civic reasoning and discourse in formal K–12 learning environments presents challenges. The first challenge is that neither “learning environments” nor their “climates” are unitary entities. Rather, there are several features of an environment that scholars, practitioners, or policy makers may have in mind when using these terms. As a case in point, in Chapter 2 in this report the authors describe effective learning environments for civic reasoning and discourse as constituting a number of characteristics, in that they must:

draw and build on students’ prior knowledge, promote a sense of emotional safety, establish relevance through engagement with real-world problems, provide opportunities to develop personal and collective efficacy through scaffolded and iterative challenges, support students in questioning sources of information and beliefs, interrogating their own assumptions, and wrestling with complex and contradictory ideas, and ensure access to a multiplicity and variety of cultural and ideological perspectives, including ones that resonate with students’ own lived experiences and those that are less represented in the dominant culture. (p. 70)

This statement suggests that any of a number of features of an environment’s climate may act as a support (or deterrent) for providing students with opportunities to engage

in civic reasoning and discourse in ways that support further engagement. In a similar vein, Conklin in Chapter 8 in this report describes a positive classroom discourse climate as being characterized by three factors: establishing personal trust between teachers and individual students; containing developmentally appropriate scaffolding by the teacher; and continuing consistent threads of discussion over time (as opposed to moving between multiple varied, isolated points of discussion). What is clear from both chapters is that when referring to a “positive” climate, one may mean a climate that is supportive, safe, and/or intellectually challenging for any number of reasons. Because of this, careful attention to how terms are used and how researchers assess different aspects of the school and classroom environments is warranted when looking to apply research findings to policy and practice.

Second, the effectiveness of any approach toward creating an effective formal learning environment may depend on where a school is situated geographically and within broader discourse communities. At the time of this writing, the United States and other countries have seen a recent rise in political contention and what many see as a decline in democratic norms of discourse. At the same time, social divides pertaining to race, immigrant status, gender, wealth distribution, and many other characteristics have exposed stark differences in how people perceive and address issues. Levinson and Fay (2019) noted that completely open discourse may even pose threats to the safety or well-being of some students (e.g., deliberations about immigration policy for immigrant students or bathroom access for transgender youth). Consideration of the specific learning environments in which students address civic issues thus becomes important, both for supporting individual students’ learning and for raising policy- and practice-based questions about how educators should balance competing considerations and interests when promoting civic discourse and reasoning.

This consideration of multiple dynamic social and cultural contexts also raises a third challenge in that each individual’s particular set of contexts inhabited and experiences garnered uniquely shapes how they learn (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018a). Schweingruber (2020) pointed to the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine report *How People Learn II* as indicating the socially situated nature of civic reasoning, distributed across students. This is based on the fact that various individuals in any given learning environment perceive its climate differently (a feature also noted in Chapter 8 in this report), and may learn from that climate differently. Students enter schools and classrooms with differing life experiences that are embedded in different life settings, informed not only by the beliefs of adults around them but broader cultural beliefs as well (Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2011). In turn, they interact with classmates, staff, and faculty in their schools in ways that inform the approach they take to civic issues. These approaches may at times be different from learning processes experienced in community or family settings (Freedman et al., 2016a), particularly when those out-of-school experiences are characterized by conflict or marginalization (see Chapter 5 in this report).

Also important are individuals’ identities and attitudes toward various groups or institutions, as well as the extent of interest in social or political issues. Other variations reflect systemic ways in which educational contexts tend to privilege or dismiss voices of students from particular backgrounds or those who embrace particular identities (as Mirra & Garcia, 2017, have documented). This challenge is especially salient among

adolescents, who are beginning to construct their own political identities (Prior, 2010; Sears, 1983) and becoming cognitively and socially equipped to take into account the perspectives of others holding different viewpoints (Franzoi et al., 1985; King & Baxter Magolda, 2005). However, adolescents are also very sensitive to the reactions of the peer groups with which they affiliate, to the attitudes that their parents express, and to a wide range of emotions that they may experience in interpersonal interactions. Thus, attention to the developmental status of students within particular school and classroom settings becomes another dynamic process to take into account.

Given this context, this chapter addresses four questions:

1. What is meant by the term “climate” in the context of formal learning environments? What specific features of the learning environments are important to address, both in individual classrooms and schools?
2. What features of learning environments and climates support students’ civic reasoning and discourse, and why are they effective?
3. How do students perceive and shape these learning environments? What might account for individual and group differences in experiences within a particular school or classroom? In particular, what role is played by social group membership (e.g., race, ethnicity, gender, immigrant status, sexual identity) and/or individual identity?
4. What are the barriers that educators face in establishing learning environments that promote civic reasoning, discourse, and engagement?

This chapter’s exploration of these four questions has led to envisioning a program of research with the potential to shape the design and implementation of robust school climates for students’ civic reasoning and discourse that would be effective with a wide range of students. In addition, this chapter provides recommendations for teachers, administrators, and other stakeholders (including teacher educators and professional organizations) who wish to help establish learning environments that foster civic discourse, reasoning, and engagement.

### **WHAT IS MEANT BY THE TERM “CLIMATE” IN THE CONTEXT OF FORMAL LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS?**

Prior to making recommendations for creating educational climates conducive to civic discourse and reasoning, it is important to understand what is meant when describing an environment’s “climate” or using other related terms. Educators taking steps toward productive climates should do so with an understanding of the various ways in which it has been operationalized and studied in the literature. As described earlier, distilling the specific characteristics of climates within formal learning environments is complex because “climate” is not a single static characteristic or entity, nor is it necessarily experienced in the same way by different individuals. Rather, it is a collection of factors interacting with each other that can sometimes change even over short periods of time. Appropriately, research on formal learning environments tends to use multi-dimensional models to capture the various aspects of an organization’s climate, although some dimensions are more often studied than others.

Adding further complexity, the “climate” of a learning environment can be applied to a school as a whole or to a particular classroom within it. This section poses two questions that Schweig et al. (2019) believe that educators should ask when examining the interrelated features of school/classroom climate: (1) What is meant by climate? and (2) How is it assessed?

### **What Is School and Classroom Climate?**

Berkowitz et al. (2017) reviewed several models outlining core components of school climate. While specific definitions varied across models, the most prominent positive dimensions were strong interpersonal *relationships*, a sense of *safety* (emotional as well as physical), a feeling of *connectedness*, and reliable *supports* for learning. Beyond these broad dimensions are more specific terms. These include the *ethos* of a school (Campbell, 2006) or of teachers (Flanagan et al., 2007). Others are the *pedagogical climate* resulting from teachers’ classroom organization and setting of an atmosphere, *relationship quality* among peers or between students and teachers (including the absence of bullying), the role of *student voice* in meaningful school decision making, perceptions of *equity* in how students from different backgrounds are treated, *openness* in discussions, and a general sense of *belonging*. Taken together, these various constructs capture many ways in which the quality of learning environments can support student learning: Students are motivated to learn in an environment where they feel emotionally safe and valued (by adults or by each other), and where they are supported to engage in authentic and meaningful ways (see the concluding chapter in this report titled Recommendations for Practice, Policy, and Research; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018a).

While these general characteristics of climate have been considered in relation to civic outcomes, some other aspects of climate pertain more directly to the perception of environments as being supportive for specific civic reasoning and discourse activities. From this latter vantage, a focus on the degree of openness for discussion, specifically of social issues where controversy may exist, is particularly important. From this viewpoint, a climate conducive to students’ development of competencies for civic engagement is one that fosters discussion in ways that expose youth to differing and sometimes conflicting opinions (see review by Campbell, 2019). Such an environment incorporates many traditional features of climate identified by Berkowitz et al. (2017) and aligns with the way learning environments can be informed by core learning principles (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018a); open discussion is characterized by a sense of safety in sharing one’s viewpoints, and this can be fostered by positive interpersonal relationships.

A further distinction is required between school and classroom climate. One of the earliest, most influential articles on civic education climate was a review written by Ehman (1980) soon after the “first wave” of political socialization research. It distinguished between school-level and classroom-level factors supporting civic discourse and participation. At the school level, he argued that norms, policies, and opportunities for student participation contribute to a community where civic discourse is (or is not) valued. Following Ehman’s work, others have focused on how shared civic norms and values among students and staff at a school in support of particular civic outcomes

(e.g., voting, civic character) can in turn shape the climate of a school (Campbell, 2006, 2019; Seider, 2012), in a mutually reinforcing way.

A second layer suggested by Ehman (1980) is climate within the classroom. Even within a single school, students interact within several different environments that can facilitate or inhibit their learning (each with its own climate; see Berkowitz et al., 2017). Authors who discuss this level describe a consistent connection between the pedagogies enacted in the classroom for the purposes of encouraging discussion, argumentation, and dialogue along with the overarching atmosphere (e.g., its degree of support and safety) in which these activities take place. This connection between climate and pedagogy, detailed earlier (e.g., through discussion of Hahn, 1996), was also reflected in Geboers et al.'s (2013) use of the term "pedagogical climate" in their literature review to discuss ways in which civic education influences student outcomes.

### How Is Climate Assessed?

Beyond acknowledging the multiple aspects of climate, it is also important to consider the variety of ways in which these constructs have been operationalized (Schweig et al., 2019). Researchers have employed a variety of methodologies to assess various components of climate, both as they characterize the learning environment generally and as specifically related to environments designed to support civic learning and engagement. Some use observation and case study, identifying exemplary schools and classrooms (e.g., Seider, 2012) or documenting the range of openness found in typical classroom environments (e.g., Hahn, 1991). However, while features of climate can be construed as organizational characteristics, they are experienced uniquely by each person within an environment. Thus, researchers also interview individual students and teachers (e.g., Flanagan, 2013), or conduct content analyses of the nature of particular discussions (e.g., Kuhn et al., 2013). That said, the most common way to assess aspects of climate, both by researchers and by educational leaders at both the state and local levels, is through the use of students' self-report scales (Berkowitz et al., 2017; Schweig et al., 2019). Such scales are often based on only a few questions; therefore, even when they have undergone rigorous psychometric testing, their brevity limits the extent to which they provide actionable information. In fact, sometimes only a single question is used: For example, Campbell (2012) acknowledged that a distinct limitation of his measure of school ethos is that it was based on one item about the importance of voting for good citizenship.

Assessments of the openness of a classroom discussion climate, the most frequently assessed facet of climate pertaining specifically to civic reasoning and discourse, often do not capture quality or even frequency of discussion. Instead, they provide information on whether participants perceive the classroom environment as conducive to such discussions. One of the most well-known and rigorously tested measures of this construct is the Openness of Classroom Climate for Discussion scale, initially developed by Ehman (1969). This scale was developed around the same time as several survey-based studies of young people's political socialization in the fields of psychology and political science (Hess & Torney, 1967; Jennings & Niemi, 1974). Different versions have been developed over the years, using items from several sources (Hahn, 1998; Hahn & Tocci, 1990; Torney et al., 1975; Walberg & Anderson, 1968). Notably, versions of this scale have been adapted by international teams of researchers for the civic education studies

fielded by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) beginning in the 1970s (Torney et al., 1975), including the 1999 IEA Civic Education Study (CIVED; Torney-Purta et al., 2001) and the International Civic and Citizenship Education Studies of 2009 (ICCS:09; Schulz et al., 2010) and 2016 (ICCS:16; Schulz et al., 2017). These studies have reported very similar results based on nationally representative samples of students in schools drawn from more than 45 countries. The scale contains the following items:

When discussing political and social issues during regular lessons, how often do the following things happen? (Never, rarely, sometimes, often)

1. Teachers encourage students to make up their own mind.
2. Teachers encourage students to express their opinion.
3. Students bring up current political events for discussion in class.
4. Students express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from most of the other students.
5. Teachers encourage students to discuss the issues with people having different opinions.
6. Teachers present several sides of the issues when explaining in class.

The Openness of Classroom Climate for Discussion scale has been a robust predictor of students' civic knowledge and engagement both across countries and across more than five decades, not only in the IEA studies themselves (e.g., Knowles et al., 2018; Lin, 2014; Torney et al., 1975), but also in smaller-scale data collections (e.g., Avery et al., 2013; Gniewosz & Noack, 2008; Hahn, 1998). Results from these analyses are featured prominently throughout the remainder of this chapter. Although it is the most widely used and discussed scale embedded in the IEA civic studies, there are other scales measuring students' sense of the effectiveness of student voice in addressing school issues (Torney-Purta et al., 2001), students' assessments of the quality of student-teacher relationships (e.g., Maurissen et al., 2018) and teachers' or principals' reports of the openness of climate (e.g., Quintelier & Hooghe, 2013). Other large-scale survey programs, such as the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult Health, similarly provide scales both for use in secondary data analyses and in primary data collections (e.g., Flanagan et al., 2007).

Outside of these large-scale survey instruments, survey-based studies have incorporated other self-report measures of climate characteristics including students' perceptions of discussion openness (e.g., Kahne et al., 2013) or fairness within the classroom (e.g., Gniewosz & Noack, 2008) or within the school (e.g., Karakos et al., 2016). For example, instruments by Brand et al. (2003) assessing school climate in the middle school context have been used by several researchers to assess aspects of climate in association with civic engagement (Geller et al., 2013; Guillaume et al., 2015; Karakos et al., 2016). These include dimensions with specific connections to civic participation at school (e.g., experience of a democratic school climate), as well as more general measures of perceptions by students of their relationships with each other and with teachers that may be associated with civic outcomes. Taken together, the variety of measures used underscores the complex and myriad ways in which a school or classroom "climate" can support civic reasoning and discourse. This provides background to keep

in mind when considering key findings from research employing these measures and approaches as they are presented in subsequent sections of this chapter.

### Challenges of Defining and Measuring Climate

Practitioners should bear in mind the assumptions and contexts in which school and classroom climate research takes place. Learning environments are complex and assessing them necessitates simplification, especially if one is limited to survey measures. Furthermore, as Morine-Dershimer (2006) notes, investigations of the discourse present in classrooms are often tied to the subject matter of the course being observed. Insights gleaned from research in one context and subject might not translate to another. This issue becomes particularly salient when considering that much of the research on formal learning environments for civic discourse and reasoning at the class level has been situated in social studies classrooms despite the fact that, as the authors of the concluding chapter in this report titled Recommendations for Practice, Policy, and Research note, civic discourse and reasoning take place in all subject areas. In addition, although research on climate (both qualitative and quantitative) has produced important insights, several measurement challenges remain to be addressed. Researchers should be explicit about which aspects of climate they are measuring (and from whose viewpoint) and to which outcomes these features are expected to connect. For example, in theorizing approaches to studying Black youths' sense of belonging at school, Gray et al. (2018) conceptualized institutional and instructional opportunity structures specifically (including teachers' modeling of civic behavior and frequency of sociopolitical discussions) as being predictive of students' sense of belonging. Beyond this, many consider outcomes that measure civic engagement or action (current or intended), but do not include assessments of civic reasoning or discourse. Rather, reasoning and discourse are assumed to be the mediating mechanism through which characteristics of a learning environment's climate influence the engagement outcome.

Because of the nature of existing large surveys, it is not usually adequate to use these methodologies alone to examine the specific meanings that students place on climate, or the specific ways in which it is embedded into school contexts. Although survey-based studies of classroom and school climate are useful, a broader array of methodologies would enhance understanding of learning environments. These include qualitative and mixed-methods studies, as well as longitudinal work tracing students' experiences and activities. Examples include Sakiz's (2017) evaluation of interventions designed to improve perceptions of school climate among Turkish students with disabilities, Mischel and Kisantas's (2020) mixed-methods study about the impact of bullying on school climate, and Malin et al.'s (2015) longitudinal, mixed-methods study on civic purpose in adolescence as expressed in different contexts. Qualitative studies are time consuming but important, especially because of their ability to describe several dimensions of context in addition to discussion processes or to deeply assess the nature of discourse within a targeted learning environment (e.g., the micro-ethnographic discourse-analytic approach described by Green et al., 2020). Multi-method studies, perhaps including methods such as focus group interviews with teachers, could also advance research in this area (Torney-Purta et al., 2010). Regardless of the approach taken, a challenge for researchers is to distill and adequately describe results gained

with a variety of methods (often in a variety of contexts with a wide range of students) to make them helpful to those outside the research community.

### WHICH FEATURES OF LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS AND CLIMATES SUPPORT STUDENTS' CIVIC REASONING AND DISCOURSE, AND WHY ARE THEY EFFECTIVE?

There is a consistent connection between the environment in which learning takes place and the success of learning activities (see Hahn, 1996, 1998, for an overview). A climate that is open for discussion of issues and respectful of student voice, even when it involves disagreeing with peers or teachers, has been found to support reasoning and quality discourse about civic issues. This in turn fosters important civic engagement outcomes, such as the exploration of alternative courses of civic action and understanding the kinds of reasons individuals give for holding particular opinions. Green (1983), in a review of early studies on the then-emergent field of linguistic process research in teaching, found that classroom contexts for discourse arise through teacher and student interactions, and that these contexts impact how discourse takes place and how it is interpreted by participants. Likewise, learning environments and climates for civic discourse and reasoning specifically are co-constructed by educators and students in schools and classrooms. In this section, the authors focus specifically on the role of educators in creating climates for civic discourse and reasoning, both through their own interactions with students and by providing opportunities for students to engage with teachers and with each other (Kuhn et al., 2019).

#### Climate at the Classroom Level

##### *Overall Impacts of Classroom Climate*

Although based on correlational findings, an association between an open classroom climate for discussion and youths' civic outcomes is well-documented, spanning more than 40 years and across many countries (early examples being Hahn, 1998; Torney et al., 1975). This association was one of four key findings in Knowles et al.'s (2018) review of 100 research studies that had analyzed survey data from the IEA's CIVED and ICCS:09 studies across multiple nations. Similarly, two literature reviews drawing from studies employing a broad range of data sources have highlighted an open discussion climate (or "pedagogical climate") as an important factor for teaching civic or moral education (Geboers et al., 2013; Schuitema et al., 2008). These reviews drew from research conducted across multiple national contexts. The literature they summarized documented associations between positive climates and civic engagement as defined in a number of ways, including knowledge, attitudes, and current or intended action in both conventional civic- and social action-oriented spheres. For example, an analysis of ICCS:09 data across 38 countries and more than 5,000 schools found that variation in open classroom climate accounted for 5 to 8 percent of the variance between schools in students' egalitarian values (Carrasco & Irribarra, 2018).

The extent to which students vary in their perceptions of climate have led some to wonder to what extent teachers shape classroom climate (Hart & Youniss, 2018). This

section focuses on research that describes features of open climates over which teachers have some control, and will later discuss students' perceptions and experiences. A first step toward establishing a classroom climate conducive to discourse is willingness on the part of the teacher to encourage civic discourse at all, and then being able to incorporate appropriate pedagogies to do so (Hahn, 2010). As Stitzlein notes in Chapter 1, civic reasoning and civic discourse differ from reasoning and discourse more broadly because of their connection to questions of common action (i.e., the "What should we do?" question). Many teachers feel unprepared to lead students in discussions of controversial public issues that would help develop students' civic reasoning and discourse skills (Hess & McAvoy, 2015; Kuhn, 2019; Parker & Hess, 2001; Reznitskaya & Wilkinson, 2017). In some cases, teachers fear negative reactions from parents or community members if they include contradictory views on controversial topics, a topic discussed briefly in a later section (see also Hess & McAvoy, 2015; McAvoy & Hess, 2013). A larger number of teachers, however, simply lack confidence in their classroom management abilities to effectively lead such discussions. Teacher educators could address this problem by modeling strategies for future teachers and providing space to practice (Pace, 2019; Parker & Hess, 2001).

One specific solution Kuhn et al. (2019) reported as effective is transferring more of the managerial role to students themselves by having them engage in discourse in various structured forms in pairs and small groups. Middle school students, these researchers found, are quite able to engage in serious discussion of challenging issues, with an adult largely overseeing rather than serving as a conduit through which all talk passes. In fact, one product of students engaging in argumentation in the classroom is the likelihood of the students becoming increasingly aware and accepting of norms governing their discourse. During the course of an intervention designed to facilitate the development of argumentation skills in electronically mediated dialogues, Kuhn et al. (2013) observed an increase in metatalk (i.e., talk about the discourse in which one is engaging). Students increasingly held themselves accountable to these self-imposed norms regarding acceptable argument moves and called their peers to task when these were violated. This indicates development of the metacognitive skills needed for these learners to direct their own activities in similar situations in the future (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018a). Indeed, in reflecting on such findings, Zorwick and Wade (2016) noted that such norms potentially go beyond the context of a specific activity and inform behavior in a broader range of deliberative contexts. These student behaviors have the potential to impact the character of future interactions in classrooms as well as communities; this speaks broadly to the importance of the role of the student in shaping the climates within a variety of learning environments.

Second, teachers can model cogent political reasoning, disclosing their opinions and leaving space for student disagreement (Hess, 2009; Hess & McAvoy, 2015; Journell, 2017). Interestingly, while many teachers believe that neutrality (rather than disclosure) creates an appropriate class climate, many researchers argue this is not necessarily the case. Certainly, disclosing opinions with the explicit or implicit understanding that the teacher's opinion is the "correct" view can be counterproductive and even unacceptable (Kelly, 1986), yet many teachers actually create more closed climates while trying to remain neutral. This is particularly so if opinions are inadvertently disclosed (Niemi & Niemi, 2007) or teachers unintentionally choose materials or topics for discussion that

privilege one position over another (Clark et al., 2020; Journell, 2017). Although teachers should not make the classroom a platform for their political views, the other extreme of providing no models or opportunities for expressing opinion sends the implicit message that political thinking is not important or even dangerous. It is important to recognize, however, that this is often difficult for teachers, as they may fear sanctions as a result of expressing their opinions (Zimmerman & Robertson, 2017). For example, Geller (2020) noted that recent political circumstances have made even some basic facts politically charged. Teachers in Geller's study feared that correcting misconceptions, addressing inaccurate media, or even supporting student advocacy (e.g., during the March for Our Lives walkouts protesting gun violence) could be viewed as biased by students, parents, or administrators.

Beyond modeling reasoning, teachers play an important role in setting the norms for civic discourse in all classroom interactions. In reflecting on what was learned about improving classroom civility in their study of deliberation on contentious social policy issues in four Midwest high schools, Crocco et al. (2018a) acknowledged that skillful facilitation is key. In deliberative contexts, explicit teacher guidance is vital to ensure that students respond to their peers' viewpoints in a respectful manner. Such guidance is especially important when classrooms include individuals from both dominant and marginalized social groups (such as those defined by race or ethnicity or by immigration status). Discussion without close teacher guidance can increase the likelihood of intergroup conflict and stereotyping (Banks, 2008). One approach is to incorporate students' perspectives when setting ground rules for deliberation. Parker (2006, 2010) argued that deliberative elements should be pervasive in classrooms, for example, when setting behavioral expectations. Some teachers opt for structured methods, such as "accountable talk" protocols, to make sure that the classroom environment remains respectful and conducive to discussions while scaffolding intellectual standards and reasoning skills such as the need for evidence (Michaels et al., 2008). Such efforts appear to be noticed by students: Gniewosz and Noack (2008) found that higher perceptions of fairness within the classroom predicted lower intolerance toward foreigners among German youth.

Finally, teachers can establish respectful and supportive relationships with students. While emotional support and positive relationships are key components of positive climates generally, they are especially crucial for the development of civic reasoning and discourse given the potential discussion of controversial social issues and the propensity for disagreement or discomfort among members of the classroom community. Maurissen et al. (2018) argued that positive student-teacher relationships set the context in which deliberations can openly take place. Using data from the ICCS:09 study in 38 countries, they found a correlation between students' positive perceptions of relationships with teachers (both individual and aggregated across the school) and their perceptions that their classrooms are open for discussion. In addition, the quality of such relationships were themselves positively related to greater civic knowledge and stronger norms of citizenship (Isac et al., 2013). The authors also see this focus on strong relationships, particularly between educators or adult leaders and students, as a core component of action civics programs (e.g., Andolina & Conklin, 2020, discussing Project Soapbox; Mikva Challenge, 2020).

*Climate in Groups Within the Classroom*

Teachers also have opportunities to construct micro learning environments such as small groups and online spaces. These can have substantially different dynamics when compared to the macro class environment. A full recounting of group pedagogies is beyond this review's scope. The social interactions within group contexts, however, are significant to the development of civic reasoning and discourse. Kuhn (2015) found little difference between the quality of work in tasks devoted to concept acquisition completed by individuals compared with groups. However, she found that collaborative work both between students who shared a position and with those who held an opposing view was a key advantage in the development of argument skills. Both approaches to collaborative work require seeking to make one's ideas understood, as well as seeking to understand those of another. It has been known for a couple of decades that differences in group structure as well as task structure influence this process (Cohen, 1994). In addition, according to Johnson et al. (2010), collaboration can benefit students' socio-emotional well-being by, for example, reducing anxiety and raising self-esteem, as well as promoting positive feelings toward classmates and peer-to-peer interactions.

Group work can also cultivate feelings of collective efficacy among students. This is particularly true in cases where group activities focus students' attention on working together to address issues of importance in their communities beyond the school. For example, Gallay et al. (2020) drew on work by Elinor Ostrom to describe how characteristics of effective groups (including mutual respect, responsibility, and communication) could be applied in educational practices designed to cultivate students' support for the environmental commons. One of the themes identified by Gallay et al. (2020) in analyzing 4th–12th graders' essays on their experiences with place-based stewardship education in Michigan was the importance and power of working as a team of change agents in their communities alongside peers as well as teachers and community partners. Relatedly, some students' responses indicated that they had personally developed skills needed as a member of a team, especially when navigating diversity in experiences and perspectives within groups.

Online spaces such as discussion forums are another approach increasingly used by teachers to foster civic discourse. The focus in this chapter is only on classroom-based applications of digital learning spaces. For a fuller treatment of the opportunities and limitations of online environments for supporting student civic reasoning and discourse, see Chapter 7 in this report. Choosing to use digital spaces as a classroom environment for civic reasoning and discourse involves tradeoffs, some of which may be more or less appealing to teachers depending on their goals for student knowledge and skill development. For example, online learning environments differ in terms of the pace and type of interaction among students and instructors. These environments are typically asynchronous and rely on reading and writing skills, which tend to require more investment of student time than speaking and listening (Blankenship, 2016; Larson, 2003). Content analysis of student work, however, suggests that a benefit of the slowed pace is that students have more time to process information and compose more thoughtful responses (Blankenship, 2016). In addition, online discourse has the benefit of preserving a record of the exchange, enhancing opportunity for reflection by students as well as teachers (Kuhn, 2015).

Asynchronous online environments also tend to elicit broader participation than face-to-face settings. Larson (2003) noted that students who are reluctant to participate in classroom discussions are more likely to contribute to online forums. More recently, Clark et al. (2015) found that female high school students tended to express a preference for online forums when discussing controversial issues and participated in them at levels similar to male students. Anonymity in discussion forums also appears to encourage female participants. Clark et al. (2015) found that female students' participation in online forums was related to perceptions of the overall classroom climate when student names were visible. When students discussed a controversial issue using a pseudonymous screen name, the association with classroom climate perceptions disappeared and participation rates were roughly equal for male and female students.

Educational websites may also offer students a means of developing civic discourse and reasoning. Stoddard et al. (2016) offered one of the few in-depth analyses of an online civic learning platform in their study of the iCivics program. While the game-based structure of the content of iCivics offered many learning opportunities, these researchers identify ways in which iCivics could improve, such as providing students with more opportunities for deliberative thinking or weighing multiple considerations or perspectives. Some of these issues may have been mitigated more recently to strengthen its use as a means of developing civic discourse and reasoning skills. The iCivics platform is only one example, however, and more research is needed to evaluate the potential of such digital environments.

### Climate at the School Level

Turning to the school level, one reason that a positive climate is thought to be associated with civic discourse, reasoning, and engagement outcomes is due to the presence of widely shared core values among members of the school community. Early research on school-level climates for citizenship education focused on comparing public schools, private schools, and charter schools in the United States. Campbell (2012) noted several studies that found differences favoring private and charter schools in civic skills and volunteer activity, although findings on civic attitudes (including tolerance) were more mixed. In reflecting on these differences, Campbell posited that the sense of mutual trust and shared values, such as that afforded by a common religious tradition in the case of Catholic schools, could result in a shared ethos within a school that fosters civic outcomes.

Campbell (2012) also noted that Catholic schools were not the only settings able to cultivate a civic ethos. When members of the school community shared strong views on the importance of certain activities for good citizenship (e.g., voting), civic outcomes among students were stronger. He suggested that research on charter schools could explore what it means to have a strong school ethos for civic education, particularly when they incorporate a civic mission explicitly in their mission statement (e.g., Cesar Chavez Public Charter Schools for Public Policy in Washington, DC; Chavez Schools, 2020). Broad school missions also provide a context through which teachers can make instructional decisions that are aligned with school values; for example, Ladson-Billings (2000) described how a math teacher in an African-centered school in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, selected activities designed to hone math skills in application to racist

zoning laws, thus connecting to youths' developing understanding of sociopolitical consciousness. These principles are extensively illustrated in Seider's (2012) research on the connection between school culture and civic character development in a Boston charter school. Specifically, he noted a shared commitment to working for continuous improvement and a sense of community in fostering civic character. In earlier grades, this included a focus on behaviors leading to a harmonious environment within specific classrooms; in older grades, this included respect for diverse viewpoints about issues and students working together across differences.

Seider's case study research highlights additional features of the overall school culture that speak to broader principles about what constitutes a positive school climate for civic discourse, reasoning, and engagement. School leaders can intentionally strive to create a particular culture (or ethos) in their schools. A review of research sponsored by the Wallace Foundation (Leithwood et al., 2004) found that superintendents and principals played a valuable role in shaping the culture of schools and promoting student learning. In particular, the report found that effective school leaders articulated a vision for the school, provided the necessary tools and training to achieve that vision, and created the support structures needed to sustain work toward the community's goals. That said, what is unique about setting a school climate in support of civic reasoning and discourse is that, practically by definition, the most supportive climates are those in which leaders explicitly take into account student voice in these processes. School leadership is in and of itself a learning environment for civic reasoning and discourse, and the focus on consequential decisions in the schools that students attend means that the issues being discussed are relevant and connected to personal experience (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018a). Yet, despite the benefits that come from having students involved in decision-making processes, authentic opportunities for student engagement remain limited (Brasof & Mansfield, 2018), often due to perceptions of youth as being unprepared to contribute meaningfully to the work of a school.

Nevertheless, research has documented benefits of incorporating and valuing student voice, particularly when it comes to students' subsequent civic action. Mansfield et al. (2018) presented a continuum of incorporating student voice, building on work by Mitra et al. (2014) and others, ranging from students "being heard" to collaborating with adults to being prepared to take on leadership roles. Flanagan (2014) noted that students who believed that teachers within their schools respected students' diverse perspectives were themselves more committed to civic dispositions. However, student voice appears to be especially effective in encouraging further civic action when it contributes meaningfully to school decision making. Studies employing data from the IEA civics studies, both in the United States (Godfrey & Grayman, 2014, using CIVED) and cross-nationally (Maurissen et al., 2018, using ICCS:09), found a positive association of students' perceptions of schools as responsive to students' voice in decision making (which can be considered a feeling of collective efficacy within the school context) to their perceptions of classrooms as open to discussion. Perceived responsiveness to student voice also had strong and unique effects on important civic outcomes themselves. In a separate analysis focusing specifically on Flemish youth participating in ICCS:09, Maurissen et al. (2020) found that both individual perceptions of the importance of student voice in school decision making and averages at the school level were related

to greater support for immigrants' rights. However, the openness of classroom climate itself was not. Similarly, using CIVED data, Torney-Purta et al. (2008) found that confidence in the value of student voice was related to knowledge about children's rights, although classroom discussion climate was not. Student voice in school was also a stronger predictor of attitudes toward immigrant rights and social movement citizenship than was classroom climate.

Mitra et al. (2014) have pointed out that active and meaningful student participation in school decision making is rare in the United States. Yet, Mitra et al. did identify some examples of school-wide efforts that engaged youth meaningfully. They described a California secondary school serving immigrant and working-class youth that engaged students as leaders in responding to important school issues. One key feature was the importance placed on cultivating skills for civic reasoning as well as capacities for taking on leadership in school improvement efforts: skills and roles at the higher end of the continuum of student voice. Situating these activities within the broader community context was also important.

More broadly, a positive school climate also contains positive and supportive relationships among individuals in the school, building on the need for feelings of emotional safety within the learning environments identified earlier. Guillaume et al. (2015) used surveys to examine the association between school climate, measured by Brand et al.'s (2003) school climate measure, and "emergent" civic engagement behaviors among middle school youth of color from a city in the Midwestern United States. They found that perceiving a more positive school climate, defined by characteristics such as teacher helpfulness and positive relationships among students, was related indirectly to civic engagement through perceptions of connectedness at school. This suggests the importance of meeting students' needs for support and inclusion when supporting their participatory development. Moreover, Jagers et al. (2017) found that positive climates within homeroom classes (e.g., involvement in setting rules) were predictive of civic engagement of Black and Latinx middle school youth only when the school at large was perceived as treating students of different social group backgrounds equitably. This suggests that part of the effectiveness of overall school climates comes from providing a setting in which individual classroom climates can be effective.

Similar findings emerge when operationalizing school climate in other ways as well. Flanagan et al. (2007) found associations between students' perceptions of teacher ethos in the school (standards of respect, fairness, and tolerance as perceived by students) and students' civic commitment and belief in America as a just society; these findings were consistent for students across racial/ethnic groups. A context of safety in the school is also important. Using a person-centered analytic approach with ICCS:09 data, Reichert et al. (2018) examined how perceptions of various aspects of school and classroom climate cohered into different patterns across countries within the Nordic region. In examining predictors of such patterns, Reichert et al. noted that, when there are substantial instances of bullying and social exclusion in a school, climates for developing active citizenship appear to be reduced.

Finally, extracurricular activities within the school environment provide contexts in which skills of deliberation may be honed, much in the same way as classroom activities. As one example, student councils are commonly considered as a mechanism for providing students with a voice in school decision making and in creating an open

climate that is respectful of students' opinions. A survey of 524 administrators conducted by the *Education Week* Research Center (2018) found that student government was the most commonly reported place where students were thought to be able to express their civic voices and rights (36 percent), ranking slightly higher than classroom activities and assignments (33 percent). However, there is mixed evidence on the extent to which student councils effectively provide authentic and consequential opportunities to inform how schools function. Importantly, McFarland and Starmanns (2009) noted that U.S. public schools serving students from low-income and/or minoritized racial and ethnic groups often lacked student councils altogether, or had councils charged with overseeing social functions rather than meaningfully contributing to decision making within a school. By contrast, elite public schools (which tended to serve more privileged students) granted their student councils more decision-making power and autonomy. The nature of involvement itself can also vary across student councils; Halfon and Romi (2019) classified student councils in Israel into four groups along two dimensions: one representing the extent to which councils encouraged volunteering in the community, and the other representing how councils fostered students' rights. Of note is that there was one group of councils that did not encourage either type of involvement.

Other activities center on the importance of democratic deliberation in schools and other contexts to promote civil discourse (Ladenson, 2012; McGranahan, 2020). Particularly important in these activities is having students justify their ideas as part of a mutually accepted norm of discourse (Kuhn et al., 2013; Michaels et al., 2008). Ladenson's Intercollegiate Ethics Bowl program asks students at the high school or college level to develop arguments about a variety of issues taking into account stakeholders' values as well as relevant facts. The quality of these arguments and students' responses to counterarguments is judged in a competition. However, equitable access to such extracurricular contexts is often limited due to the fees that many schools charge to participate in such activities (Putnam, 2015).

In summary, in addition to classroom environments, the structures for discussion and participation introduced by a school's influential adults are essential in creating the supportive context needed for civic discourse and reasoning. Creating a school-wide culture for civic discourse can reinforce and enhance such learning in the classroom. Extracurricular activities can provide additional opportunities for discourse, reasoning, and engagement.

### **Limitations of Research on Features of Learning Environments**

While researchers have highlighted the substantial role of class and school climate, there are areas that remain understudied. Earlier work contains notable studies relevant to climates for civic reasoning and discourse for elementary students (Angell, 1991; Bickmore, 1999), but most of the research described here focuses on climates as experienced by adolescent students. Notable exceptions include Seider's (2012) focus on civic character development in the early grades and Mitra et al.'s (2014) discussion of "carpet time democracy" activities. While adolescence is an important period for the development of civic reasoning and discourse skills, additional research on the nature of learning environments in the early years of schooling is warranted (see

the concluding chapter in this report titled Recommendations for Practice, Policy, and Research; Patterson et al., 2019).

Second, there is room in this research arena for a more nuanced discussion of the intended civic outcomes of positive school and classroom climate. The work presented here focuses on a variety of civic reasoning, discourse, and engagement outcomes. Certainly, the positive impact of climate on such outcomes is generally consistent. More innovative research, however, might detail the nature of supports for specific civic competencies that encompass lived experiences out of school and take into account ways in which broader social structures in and out of school either privilege or marginalize those experiences. Some existing work in this area is discussed in the next section, but more is needed.

Third, additional research should focus on how learning environments for civic reasoning and discourse may function similarly or differently across subject areas. While opportunities for civic reasoning and discourse exist across the disciplines (see the concluding chapter in this report titled Recommendations for Practice, Policy, and Research), the vast majority of the research that considers the nature of classroom climates for civic learning focuses on civics or other social studies-related content areas. This makes it challenging but important to bring the perspectives of other disciplines to bear when discussing civic issues; for example, the consideration of climate change as a civic issue inspiring youth action involves the incorporation of knowledge from an array of scientific disciplines to engage in informed reasoning and discourse (Cherif et al., 2019). Little is known, however, about the nature of science classroom climates as they support civic reasoning and discourse specifically. Work exploring the teaching of socio-scientific issues in science classrooms holds particular promise, as many of the same principles described above are discussed in research in this area (Walsh & Tsurusaki, 2014; Zeidler et al., 2011). However, researchers and practitioners alike focused more on how these learning environments support scientific reasoning rather than on civic reasoning about social issues or on potential civic actions (e.g., Kuş, 2015, in Turkey; Nuangchaleerm, 2009, in Thailand). Citizen science projects may further inform this work through their focus on the scientific process as experienced in community contexts (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018b). Turning to literacy education, Mirra and Debate Liberation League (2020) provide an example of research foregrounding climate issues through their description of how a group of middle school students integrated personal identities and experiences into their experiences with policy debate. This resulted in an English/Language Arts learning environment in which student voices and experiences were central and valued as part of civic dialogue in ways that are not typical of conventional debate programs.

Fourth, the role of schools and (especially) classrooms in the development of competencies for critical consciousness (Watts et al., 2011) is another area that would benefit from additional work, even while acknowledging the limitations of traditional civic education in cultivating these abilities (see Chapter 3 in this report). Godfrey and Grayman's (2014) analysis of CIVED data is one example of research tying classroom climates to these specific outcomes. Diemer et al.'s (2008) analysis of data from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 focused on the role of race relations in school as predictors of sociopolitical development among low-income youth of color.

Each of these studies noted the limitations inherent in using existing data to measure the types of social action thought to be fostered through critical consciousness. However, this also suggests that there is ample room for further research. Given the role of students' own backgrounds in such development (and specifically, their experiences with marginalization), some relevant research appears in the following section.

Finally, research is needed to connect teacher education practices to teachers' abilities to establish open climates in K–12 schools. Researchers should examine the features of teacher preparation programs that best prepare teachers to establish climates where civic discourse and reasoning can thrive. In one of the few studies of teacher education practices related to establishing open climates, Pace (2019) documented the practices of four teacher educators in England, Northern Ireland, and the United States as they prepared future teachers to facilitate the teaching of controversial issues and create open classroom climates. The teacher educators utilized contained risk-taking strategies, which alerted preservice teachers to be prepared for unforeseen difficulties that might be associated with addressing controversial issues in their class. Strategies were discussed for addressing some of these potential difficulties (such as managing emotional moments and reflecting on positionality) before they actually happened in class. Follow-up studies that track preservice teachers as they move into their own classrooms should investigate the extent to which teachers effectively follow through with such strategies from their methods courses. Professional development focusing on promoting civic discourse in the classroom shows promise in increasing both teacher self-efficacy and student perceptions of climate (Barr et al., 2015). However, more thorough study is needed to identify best practices for such programs, especially in classrooms where students are not used to being allowed to express their opinions or where they perceive risk to themselves in doing so.

### HOW DO STUDENTS PERCEIVE AND SHAPE THESE LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS?

It is especially important for educators to understand the influence of students in shaping classroom and school climates. The *Education Week* survey of administrators (*Education Week Research Center*, 2018) found that respondents viewed the classroom as one of the principal places in schools where students can express their civic voices and opinions. We assume that students who participate in learning environments with the features described above are more likely to have positive experiences engaging in high-quality civic discourse compared to students lacking such opportunities. However, students' own perspectives on topics and their prior experiences both in school and in the community more broadly shape how learning environments are ultimately formed, and also how students perceive and benefit from experiences in their schools and classrooms. As Green (1983) notes, and as acknowledged earlier, discourse and the construction of meaning in classrooms is dependent on interactions between and among both teachers and students. Thus, understanding student perceptions of the classroom and events therein is an important part of understanding classroom climates for civic discourse.

## Students' Experiences in the Classroom

### *Differences in Perceptions of Classroom Climates*

Not all students share the same view of a given classroom as a space to talk and learn, or one in which civic discourse is encouraged. Indeed, individual perceptions of climate have been found to be more predictive of student outcomes than aggregate ratings or ratings provided by teachers or principals (Quintelier & Hooghe, 2013). Both Hart and Youniss (2018) and Campbell (2019) cite this variation as evidence of a problem of endogeneity, where variables that have not been measured impact the outcome of a study. In short, cross-sectional surveys cannot disentangle respondents' pre-existing differences from their reports of recent experiences. Students who have long had more interest in political and social issues, for example, may both feel more comfortable in classroom discussions and report stronger dispositions toward civic involvement. Temperamental characteristics such as shyness may also similarly contribute. Another explanation (and the authors' primary focus in this chapter) comes from Michaels et al. (2008), who acknowledged that some youth are socialized (by specific aspects of their family background or interactions in their neighborhood) to shy away from engaging in discourse in public, including at school. Such differences in socialization are an expected part of a diverse educational landscape reflecting varying norms and values across (for example) religions, ethnicities, nations of origin, or community groups. Because such variation in norms among members of a classroom reciprocally contribute to how learning environments are perceived by those in the classroom, this issue makes causal direction hard to specify.

One set of such individual differences includes enduring personal and group identities. Individual identities are multi-faceted and, especially in young people, may shift. In addition, different elements of an individual's identity can become more or less salient depending on circumstances. In the concluding chapter in this report titled Recommendations for Practice, Policy, and Research, Lee et al. have reviewed literature on the development of identity and its relation to civic discourse and reasoning. Here, the focus is on what happens when aspects of student identities intersect and interact with features of their learning environments, how they are perceived, and how students learn to negotiate within them.

Researchers have been able to associate elements of individual or group identity to perceptions of learning environments relevant to civic discourse and reasoning. For example, group differences, both in terms of demographic characteristics such as race or gender and in terms of affiliations such as religious or political beliefs, can impact individuals' prior knowledge or framing of a given issue. In one study, Crocco et al. (2018b) noted the role of positionality in determining students' approaches to the discussion of immigration policy. Students' identities in relation to the topic under consideration, particularly as members of immigrant families, informed their approach to classroom discussion. While classroom discussion and deliberation pedagogies might be egalitarian in their intent, members of some groups may find their voices ignored or repressed by the majority in such exercises (see Chapters 5 and 8 in this report; Fraser-Burgess, 2012; Young, 2000). Thus, providing support for engaging with diverse perspectives may be an especially important part of an open classroom climate, especially for students whose experiences with the political and legal system are characterized by

conflict, uncertainty, and marginalization (see Chapter 5 in this report). In part because group identity deeply informs participation and boundaries of acceptable topics for debate, these students may benefit from experiences designed to allay their anxieties, foster a sense of trust, and facilitate a gradual learning process about being members of a “civic public.” Conklin in Chapter 8 in this report similarly suggests that when the teacher opens questions of current concern to class members, such as their experiences of inequality, lack of connection to the community, or discrimination, discussion can be an entry point to “critically relevant civics.” Taken together, this suggests that educators may benefit from training on how to be sensitive to these issues as they attempt to create these settings.

Group identity also guides behavior and shapes the beliefs of individuals who hold that identity (Brown, 1991; Gilbert, 1994; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Focusing on students engaging in discussions and deliberations, Fraser-Burgess (2012) argued that group identities incorporate foundational beliefs and ideas (e.g., based on religion or traditions) that play a role in defining an individual’s identity. When such beliefs conflict with those of the majority, she argues that engaging in a discussion of those ideas results in a situation where “the student must either repressively transcend his or her group identity beliefs or face further social marginalization” (Fraser-Burgess, 2012, p. 496). While several responses in this situation may also be possible (particularly if the learning environment itself is adaptable), Fraser-Burgess’s framing may be helpful in understanding findings of racial differences in classroom climate perceptions based on group comparisons in large-scale survey data. For example, Campbell (2007) found in analysis of CIVED data from the United States that, on average, White students tended to perceive classroom climates as significantly more open than did students of color. Campbell also noted an inverse relationship between the racial heterogeneity of the classroom and students’ overall perception of an open classroom climate. Racially diverse classrooms were generally perceived as less open than homogenous classrooms (regardless of the predominant race of students in the classroom). Similarly, Torney-Purta et al. (2007) found that students who indicated they were of Latinx ethnicity reported their classrooms to be less open on average than did their peers who did not self-identify in this way. In fact, when these group differences in classroom climate perceptions were statistically controlled, the size of differences in scores on conventional civic outcomes such as civic knowledge and intent to vote was considerably reduced. Findings such as these deserve reflection with the aim of better understanding how to improve perceptions of classrooms as being open by all students.

Gender (binary self-report of male or female) has also been predictive of perceptions of classroom climate, with female students perceiving more openness on average than male students in many countries (Barber et al., 2015; Hahn, 2010; Knowles et al., 2018; Maurissen et al., 2018). The impact of gender on perceptions of classroom climate was moderated by the degree of confidence students had in the value of student voice in school more broadly; such confidence in student voice was more strongly predictive of classroom climate perceptions for male students, resulting in smaller gender differences among students with high degrees of confidence (Maurissen et al., 2018). This finding is particularly interesting given that the dynamics of social interaction can privilege the voices of male students over female students in classrooms. For example, Crocco et al. (2018b), in their study of deliberation on controversial issues such as immigration

policy, found that contributions that were more traditionally masculine in nature (typically couched in statistical explanations, and most often coming from male students) were less often challenged or dismissed than were contributions that focused on relational issues (more often interpreted as feminine). Moreover, as Michaels et al. (2008) noted when reflecting on gender dynamics in the classrooms they observed, girls may be socialized not to raise objections when they disagree with another's viewpoint.

Another factor affecting perceptions of classroom climate is socioeconomic status. A review of studies conducted using IEA data sets concluded that students of lower socioeconomic status tended to report less openness of classroom climate than did their higher-income peers (Knowles et al., 2018). Michaels et al. (2008) described instances of socioeconomic privilege that they witnessed when observing the implementation of accountable talk protocols (rules for peer interaction and use of evidence). To put these findings into context, however, analyses of ICCS:09 data from Chile, a country with high degrees of structural inequality and economic segregation impacting the education system, revealed that socioeconomic differences in the openness of classroom climate for discussion were not as dramatic as observed differences in civic knowledge (Castillo et al., 2015). However, both were key predictors of anticipated future civic participation. Thus, while Castillo et al. raise concern over the ways in which schools perpetuate existing political inequalities through inequitable opportunities for acquisition of civic knowledge, they see promise in the promotion of open classroom climates as a strategy for encouraging more equitable political participation.

### *Differences in the Functioning of Small Groups*

Individual and group differences also impact the dynamics found within smaller discussion groups. In general, there is evidence that identity or salient group membership (national, religious, racial) influences students' interpretation of information (Barton & McCully, 2005; Epstein, 2009; Porat, 2004). However, these factors are associated with varied behavior depending on the identities or affiliations of other group members. Goldberg (2013), for example, found that Mizrahi and Ashkenazi Israeli students' self-reported ethnicity was associated with differences in the way they discussed a controversial issue with group members, depending on whether those group members shared a common ethnicity. In discussing the Israeli Melting Pot policy, an instance of controversy between members of the two ethnic groups, non-mixed ethnicity groups tended to reinforce their own identities more often than those in mixed ethnicity groups.

Students' political affiliations and their impact on discussion groups has also been examined as an influence on student behavior and perceptions of the classroom (Clark, 2018; Hess & McAvoy, 2015; Kahne & Bowyer, 2017), especially in the broader social context of ideological bubbles, fake news, and partisan polarization. Political scientists have found that ideology or prior beliefs can impact reasoning about political and social issues in adults (e.g., Lodge & Taber, 2013), though studies of the impact of ideological composition of discussion groups have often reached divergent conclusions (Esterling et al., 2019; Farrar et al., 2009; Kuhn & Lao, 1996; Kuhn et al., 2018; Lao & Kuhn, 2002; Schkade et al., 2007). Empirical research on political affiliation's impact on discourse and reasoning for young people is relatively sparse, particularly in the context of formal learning environments. However, Stoddard and Chen (2016), in a study of discussions

about a controversial social issue among small groups of young adults, suggested that political identity affected the dynamics of discussion groups. In particular, mixed-political identity groups (liberal/conservative) tended to have richer discussions with more divergent points of view expressed than did homogenous groups. Clark (2018) found that high school students with strong partisan identities tended to increase their repertoire of arguments (see Cappella et al., 2002) in ways that favored their own position shortly after an online deliberation. This took place regardless of whether they were in mixed or uniform partisan identity groups.

### *Differences in Climate's Association to Civic Outcomes*

In addition to considering differences among students in their experiences in classrooms, it is also important for educators to consider the ways in which classroom climate may influence anticipated future engagement differently for students who are members of different social groups. Specifically, there may be a compensatory effect of classroom climate on civic engagement. For example, the openness of classroom climate has been found to moderate gender differences in civic outcomes. Using CIVED data from 28 countries, for example, Barber and Torney-Purta (2009) found that the differences between male and female students in support for women's rights were smaller in schools with higher average reports of classroom climate openness; this was due to more support for gender equality among male students in schools with more open climates. In another analysis of CIVED data in the United States, Godfrey and Grayman (2014) found that the association between an open classroom climate and students' sense of collective efficacy in school decision making was stronger among non-White students compared to White students. Similarly, Campbell (2008) found stronger effects of open classroom climate on intent to vote among students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds compared to those from higher socioeconomic backgrounds. This set of conclusions, however, should be viewed with caution, as other research has identified ways in which some features of a climate can exacerbate existing inequalities. In Dutch schools, for example, Wanders et al. (2019) found that differences in youths' societal involvement associated with parent education were more pronounced among students who perceived their relationships with teachers to be the most positive.

An open classroom climate may be especially important in providing support for engaging with diverse perspectives in ways that lead to future engagement. Campbell (2007) found that the more racially and ethnically heterogeneous a classroom was, the less that students within the classroom saw themselves as future informed voters or active political participants. However, discussion in open classroom environments, particularly those fostering rich intercultural dialogue that credits different experiences and recognizes positionality of participants, may partially compensate for these effects. The authors are encouraged by this because Campbell (2007) also found that highly open classroom climates mitigated the lower levels of intended participation sometimes associated with students in racially diverse classrooms. Similarly, following the 2012 U.S. election, Kawashima-Ginsberg and Levine (2014) found that students from racially diverse schools who reported more frequent engagement with controversial issues in school showed higher political engagement than those who did not. This scattered set of findings suggests that this topic should be further investigated.

### **Students' Experiences at the School Level**

Students also perceive and shape the school environment beyond their classrooms in various ways. In his review of early research, Ehman (1980) recognized extracurricular activities as spaces in which peers could be brought together to encourage civic norms. One way in which extracurricular contexts encourage civic development is by providing space for young people to discuss personally salient social issues with peers. To connect to the earlier discussion of student voice, such activities provide dedicated spaces and structure to foster the types of discussion that may be recognized as an important part of school decision making by administrators.

Seider (2012) highlighted how some extracurricular discussion groups for young men and women provided space for discussion of issues particularly salient to their developing gender identities. These included discussion groups that were tied not only to social issues in the community, but also to issues in the school (e.g., disciplinary practices). Other activities have similarly used connections to students' social identities to create safe and engaging environments in which youth could discuss social issues. Extracurricular groups such as gay-straight alliances (GSAs), for example, can promote feelings of inclusion, encourage engagement and activism, and influence the climate of schools as a whole. Mayo (2013b) and Lapointe (2016) argued that such groups can provide models for teachers wishing to incorporate the voices of LGBTQ individuals into the curriculum, where they have typically been excluded (Thornton, 2003). Furthermore, Mayo (2013a) argued that students and teachers involved in GSAs are able to take steps to foster a generally more inclusive school environment. A study of 33 GSAs by Poteat et al. (2018) noted that higher levels of involvement in these organizations were related to higher civic engagement and advocacy among students.

Other extracurricular or co-curricular activities characterized by broader opportunities for peer interaction also potentially serve as an important bridge between learning within classrooms and the broader climate for civic reasoning within schools. Thapa et al. (2013) highlighted service learning as one example of how teaching and learning activities connect to the larger climate of the school and have a role in promoting civic development. Specifically, service learning activities that take place in collaborative environments, where students are encouraged to interact with and build on each other's ideas, are thought to be particularly effective for developing civic competencies. While there is extensive literature on service learning, little of it explicitly ties to civic discourse skills, however.

To this point, there has been an implicit assumption that students' experiences of particular climates within a school have an impact on their civic engagement, often through shared opportunities for reasoning and discourse. However, in understanding individual variability in perceptions of climate, it is also possible that levels of actual civic engagement among youth within schools can have a bearing on the type of climate perceived, a reciprocal causality similar to that suggested earlier. This possibility has been explored in a series of studies in middle schools in the urban Southeastern United States. Individuals with higher levels of civic participation (reports of helping or leadership in the school or local community) reported stronger relationships in school, believed rules to be more consistent, and reported a more democratic school climate; they also reported lower degrees of bully victimization. This finding was also

observed at the group level; cohort-level average of civic participation was associated with a democratic climate (Karakos et al., 2016).

Also on this topic, Geller et al. (2013) compared the associations of different forms of civic engagement to climate perceptions. Some associations were found in expected directions (e.g., higher degrees of personally responsible civic behavior were positively associated with perceiving positive relationships, fair rules, and democratic climates). However, participating in leadership activities was associated with perceiving school rules as less consistent and fair. Geller et al. acknowledged that the participants in this third study were enrolled in schools in which young African American men were disproportionately suspended, suggesting that youth were responding to present and critical issues of inequality witnessed in their school community. Involvement in youth participatory action research (YPAR) has similarly been found to be related to Black students' critical analyses of their schools (Hope et al., 2015). These results illustrate that in some contexts the reasoning and discourse skills gained through meaningful, active involvement in supportive structures that center the perspectives of youth and their communities, including but not limited to YPAR, youth organizing, and leadership opportunities, appears to be associated with students becoming more critical of injustice in their school environment (Akom et al., 2008; Caraballo et al., 2017; Kirshner & Ginwright, 2012; Mitra et al., 2014). These findings call to mind a variety of social movements over the past 50 to 60 years in which civically engaged youth took social action against unjust environments in their schools, including (though not limited to) walkouts sponsored by the Brown Berets in response to Chicano students' treatment in California schools in the 1960s, activities to support the lack of action in support of GSAs and LGBTQ students in Utah high schools in the 1990s, and (more recently) activities in response to the shootings at Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School and in support of the Black Lives Matter movement (Cherif et al., 2019; Mansfield et al., 2018; Wray-Lake & Abrams, 2020).

### **Limitations of Research on Students' Influence on Learning Environments**

Opportunities exist to expand research into ways students perceive and shape learning environments and, as important, to inform other areas of research, teacher preparation, and policy. Much of the research presented here, particularly at the classroom level, relies on data from large-scale survey programs. These surveys may not be able to identify specific practices and conditions that serve to create learning environments for civic reasoning and discourse. While no survey can capture all of the potentially relevant factors affecting the classroom and school climate, they help to generate hypotheses that could be further tested using more rigorous quantitative research designs such as randomized control trials (e.g., Barr et al., 2015) or within-subjects longitudinal designs. Realistically, however, such studies are difficult to conduct in schools and classrooms and can be difficult to appropriately contextualize.

Moreover, many of the studies cited here rely on categorical indicators of membership in demographic groups (e.g., by race or gender), an approach that has limited explanatory value for exploring young people's complex and intersecting identities (Freedman et al., 2016a). Research examining a broad range of civic engagement outcomes and/or that considers features of learning environments as moderators of group differences adds some nuance; however, research using complementary methodologies

(particularly qualitative approaches like case study analysis) provides important insight into how individual youth construct their civic identities. Research on differences in how particular groups perceive classroom climates includes relatively few investigations involving characteristics such as immigrant status (for exceptions, see Abu El-Haj, 2007, and follow-up studies) or being an English language learner.

Although studies of students' civic engagement and perceptions of the civics curriculum often carry implications for research on learning environments, extended exploration would be needed to make such connections explicit. For example, work by Rubin (2007) and Rubin et al. (2009) documented that many students in urban schools, with student bodies marginalized by both socioeconomic status and race, lack trust in school institutions. This is often due to lack of connections between their own lived experiences in their families and neighborhoods and what they experience at school (Speer et al., 2019), or to limited sense of safety or empowerment within schools, particularly when working with teachers or other adults affiliated with the school (Wray-Lake & Abrams, 2020).

On one hand, negative experiences with educational authorities, including with inequitable and harsh disciplinary practices, have been shown to have long-term effects on political trust and participation later in life (Bruch & Soss, 2018). No-excuse classroom management approaches employed by some urban charter schools are posited, based on ethnographic analyses, to have similar effects on reproducing social inequalities by encouraging compliance-oriented rather than participatory-oriented approaches to civic life (Graham, 2020).

At the same time, Mirra and Garcia (2017) highlighted how a re-conceptualization of civic life toward actions for social justice lends itself to models of engagement foregrounding the voices of students from minoritized communities. Such an approach is often found when researchers examine learning environments outside of the school context, including grassroots youth activism organizations (Kirshner, 2008, 2009) and digital spaces (see Chapter 7 in this report). Indeed, when discussing how critical social capital can support civic development through the cultivation of collective efficacy, particularly for Black and Latinx youth, it is more likely to be community organizations rather than schools that are described as contexts in which this could be developed (Akom, 2003; Akom et al., 2008; Ginwright, 2007; Sampson et al., 1999). What is not always clear is how formal learning environments (which Mirra and Garcia, 2017, argue have historically perpetuated inequalities in civic learning) could be re-envisioned to provide climates offering fruitful spaces for such action and reflection.

### **WHAT ARE THE BARRIERS THAT EDUCATORS FACE IN ESTABLISHING LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS THAT PROMOTE CIVIC REASONING, DISCOURSE, AND ENGAGEMENT?**

Despite considerable evidence on the qualities of learning environments that promote civic reasoning and discourse, it is often a challenge to implement these features within actual school and classroom environments with students who may have vastly different backgrounds in discussing political or social issues. This section addresses these barriers at the school, classroom, and individual levels. Many are directly related to the two major challenges identified earlier: contexts beyond the school and individual differences in students' characteristics and experience within and outside of school.

Within a school, an important factor is how the school responds to external pressures (e.g., policy mandates from the district or the broader context of the community, including its political and/or partisan dimensions). School leaders adapt their behavior to the social context in which schooling takes place in ways that may influence the climate for civic discourse, reasoning, and engagement among students. In some cases, such as mandates for testing that determine funding or school evaluations, there is little choice. Many schools, perceiving that raising test scores is the key to the evaluation of their school, restructure the school schedule to prepare for required tests. Most states do not have assessments of civic discourse and reasoning skills, preferring to focus on civic knowledge if civic-related topics are tested at all (Brezicha & Mitra, 2019). Basic reading and computational skills are often emphasized at the expense of less frequently tested conceptual skills and understandings necessary to make sense of political or social topics (Fitchett & Heafner, 2010).

Civic reasoning and discourse should not exclusively exist in social studies curriculums and classrooms. However, while opportunities for civic reasoning and discourse exist across the curriculum (see the concluding chapter in this report titled Recommendations for Practice, Policy, and Research), many believe that there is a unique set of language and practice existing in the social studies that supports the development of civic reasoning and discourse skills. Thus, time devoted to these topics is critical to helping students develop the core understanding needed to engage in civic-related problems outside of the social studies classroom, whether in other content areas or more broadly in their schools and communities (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018a). However, testing requirements and the pressure to boost math and reading scores, particularly in the elementary years, can often reduce the time available for civic reasoning and discourse by reducing the space for social studies (Fitchett et al., 2014; Thomas, 2005). To compensate for reduced time, teachers often attempt to integrate social studies content with literacy instruction, but researchers studying such integration typically find that literacy becomes the primary goal and other content or skills development is incidental (Boyle-Baise et al., 2008; Brophy & Alleman, 2008). Within social studies courses themselves, concerns about preparing students for system-wide tests can also reduce attention to discussions that can develop civic discourse and reasoning. Journell (2010), for example, studied six teachers in Chicago during the 2008 election. While all six felt it was important to discuss the election with students, several of the teachers reported tension between their desire to incorporate this current event with pressure to prepare students for an examination required for graduation.

Social and political contexts can also influence school and classroom climate. Historically, educators in the United States have often been sanctioned for encouraging discourse about controversial issues or attempting to teach subjects perceived as beyond the comfort zones of administrators or community members (Zimmerman & Robertson, 2017). In fact, some teachers fear that their discussions of controversial issues will invite criticism (McAvoy & Hess, 2013). As discussed earlier, the result is that many teachers commit to maintaining a neutral stance in the classroom, which can result in political opinions going unexamined, as Journell (2012) found in his study of six teachers during the 2008 election.

Often, societal forces without explicit connections to schooling result in alterations to the way schools function. One example is the increasing social and political

polarization in the United States and elsewhere. In a relatively well-publicized incident, conservative parents objected to their students hearing a message from then-president Barack Obama at the beginning of the 2009 school year even though the message was focused on encouraging students to work hard in school (McAvoy & Hess, 2013). In other cases, parents and community members may influence students' sense of the school as a welcoming place to learn. Macgillivray (2004), to give just one example, highlighted a school facing resistance from community members as it sought to include LGBTQ students in its non-discrimination policies.

A related concern is that school personnel may become uncomfortable with student expressions of political opinion and, in turn, may restrict opportunities for students to express and defend their opinions in the classroom. Levinson and Fay (2019) used vignettes to elicit reactions from education scholars, administrators, teachers, and students. There was considerable disagreement about how schools and teachers should respond to discussion of divisive political issues. Disagreements occurred, for example, on what constitutes appropriate student political expression in the classroom, or whether students should be allowed to express support for policies if their classmates would be negatively impacted by those policies. In such situations, it is understandable that many teachers restrict student opinion expression.

Many of the barriers to creating environments conducive to civic discourse and reasoning in schools stem from external factors. These shift over time, and researchers continually identify new barriers (or new manifestations of old barriers) to creating productive civic learning environments. In the current period of political polarization and shifting political norms, studying the interplay of these factors and school environments is particularly crucial.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In the process of conducting this review, the authors found substantial literature that either directly or implicitly describes and investigates high-quality learning environments as contexts where students can engage in civic discourse leading to a range of potentially beneficial outcomes. There are many ways for researchers to extend this work, attending both to individual development and variation in experience and to broader contexts. A general principle is that civic discourse is both an essential component of the process of civic education and a facilitator of individual outcomes that span social and political reasoning, knowledge, and behavior. It is also deeply contextualized by factors at the school, community and family levels. In concluding, the authors make some specific recommendations.

### Research Directions That Address Changing Social and Cultural Contexts

#### *Acknowledge the Need for Research That Adapts to Changing Political and Social Landscapes in Which Discourse Takes Place*

At the dawn of the third decade of the 21st century, the norms of civic discourse are in flux. Students and teachers have few models of respectful disagreement and productive civic discourse from beyond the classroom. Researchers cannot ignore the

current political context of discourse, both nationally and locally. A normative conversation about the value of different forms of civic reasoning, such as that described by Westheimer and Kahne (2004), in an age of widening political and social divides may be essential. For example, the civic reasoning and discourses that promote consensus or compromise are different from those intended to combat entrenched injustice.

#### *Increase Research Focused on the Interplay Between the School and the Community*

After an extensive review, Torney-Purta et al. (2010) expressed concern that research that considers only in-school or out-of-school factors ignores overlap in individuals' membership in numerous communities. In this vein, research on learning environments should not ignore the opportunities and challenges provided in the community surrounding the school. While other papers in this project describe the broader context of civic learning, and how such contexts are mediated by proximal settings including families, peers, and schools (see Chapter 5 in this report), the focus here is on recommendations for research addressing explicit areas of overlap between school and other contexts. Service learning, to provide one example, is thought to support the development of youth civic dispositions (particularly in light of social inequality) because youth have an opportunity to have contact with individuals whose perspectives vary from their own (Flanagan, 2014). Activities designed to foster youth empowerment, including leadership and grassroots organizations for youth social action, are potentially a very valuable context (Kirshner, 2009; Mitra et al., 2014), and additional research on the interaction of empowerment with the formal learning environment is warranted (Speer et al., 2019).

In particular, up-to-date empirical documentation (e.g., Macgillivray, 2004) is needed to specify the various mechanisms through which community contexts shape the willingness to discuss issues within the learning environment. For example, there is fear of community pushback on the part of some teachers wishing to discuss controversial issues (McAvoy & Hess, 2013). In-depth examination of such events can help educators and researchers understand the frequency and ramifications of instances of community pressure that may cause teachers and schools to alter curricula, policy, or activities. Tools that use network analysis techniques to better understand community contexts (e.g., Paluck et al., 2016) hold particular promise in this regard. Collaboration with scholars who study school and community policy should also be encouraged. As social environments are prone to change, continued research on the interaction between the community and the school environments is necessary.

#### *Conduct Research on Environments Beyond Traditional, In-Person Classes*

While digital civic literacy is covered more fully in other sections in this report (see Chapter 7), new technologies have created new educational spaces for civic discourse and reasoning, including forums for digital interaction/discussion and websites (and programs) such as iCivics that scaffold civic thinking. Despite increased interest in these digital spaces, their impact on civic discourse, reasoning, and engagement remains relatively understudied. In particular, researchers should more fully explore the interactions that these online or simulated educational environments promote, and how these

interactions compare to and connect with those in face-to-face contexts (Larson, 2003). As digital environments are increasingly prevalent in youth civic discourse and engagement, research on these climates is becoming particularly important (Middaugh et al., 2017).

Furthermore, research designed to study civic skill development within extracurricular or co-curricular environments that link instruction within the school with engagement in community contexts is warranted. This could expand on work on conventional service learning contexts in ways that are familiar to educators (e.g., Billig et al., 2005). It also needs to be updated to consider more empowerment-oriented approaches to such involvement. In doing so, special attention should be paid to the context of these environments and how students are likely to engage with the individuals whom they meet in the communities outside of school. Furthermore, the role of students themselves in creating and taking leadership in these opportunities should be at the forefront.

### **Research That Foregrounds Attempts to Understand the Individual Student's Experience**

#### *Consider How Multiple Developmental Contexts Interact*

Ehman (1980) was prescient in commenting about the importance of extracurricular activities for cultivating the peer relationships that can support civic learning (a focus that continues until today), and more recent research has considered peer interactions in the context of small groups within classroom settings (e.g., Kuhn, 2015). Research on informal civic learning environments also points to peer relationships in and of themselves (alongside other groups such as families) as an important context for developing skills related to civic reasoning and discourse (Richardson, 2003; Wilkenfeld & Torney-Purta, 2012). These interactions take place both in face-to-face and online contexts. If students attend school (and specific classes) with a particular group of peers, there is also likely to be overlap between peer networks and experiences in formal learning environments.

McDevitt and Kiousis (2007) developed a model to conceptualize how peers and parents each influence the associations between classroom discussions and later civic outcomes; they posited that peer groups are especially important contexts for cultivating capacities for protesting and nonconventional forms of participation, whereas more conventional forms of participation were more often cultivated through parents. Researchers could more fully consider how the informal peer context and specific features of formal educational learning environments relate to each other, particularly as they create (or constrain) supportive climates for civic learning and discourse. For example, Morine-Dershimer (2006) has noted the need for researchers to more fully explore student dynamics and discourse as taking place in small group work, and recent work by Green et al. (2020) highlights the potential of micro-ethnographic discourse analysis to aid in such exploration by providing a framework for theoretically grounded inquiry into complex learning processes. From another methodological vantage point, social network analysis may be useful in assessing how peer networks interface with the more formal organization of students existing within schools. This approach has been used to study aspects of young people's civic development from

other vantage points, but it has not been adequately integrated into methodologies for studying school or classroom climate.

*Further Examine Developing Reasoning and Discourse Skills as Processes Through Which a Supportive School/Classroom Climate Shapes Civic Outcomes*

By drawing on a variety of literature from different disciplines, the authors have laid out evidence that the climate of a learning environment shapes opportunities for dialogue, which in turn has the potential to influence attitudes or lead to civic action. They have also highlighted literature that examines how teachers and peers construct opportunities for argumentation and dialogue within formal learning environments, and ways in which these opportunities support civic reasoning and discourse skills. At present, however, it is implied that the broader climate of classrooms and schools shapes reasoning and discourse skills (which in turn prepares youth for further civic action). There are very few studies that explicitly follow this pathway of linking an open climate to civic action through increased civic reasoning skills, however. Research that directly tests links between climate and discourse skills is needed to assess whether the cognitive and social processes that are thought to be encouraged within an open discussion climate are indeed being developed in a way that equips students for participation in and outside school. An increased use of randomized controlled trials (advocated by Campbell, 2019) is one approach to strengthening research in this area. However, there are also important caveats in this area related to appropriate generalizations across social contexts that should be further developed through qualitative and mixed-methods work. Taken together, the resulting knowledge base could strengthen the theory of change that could inform practical interventions in this area.

Also important is increased attention to the relationship between thinking and discourse as related to action. Throughout this chapter, the authors have made reference to discourse, reason, and action as three mutually enforcing pillars of civic development. Reviewing the large literature on how thinking and reasoning develop in the second decade of life and beyond exceeds the scope of this chapter. However, such development, which is substantial albeit variable across individuals, is crucial to consider when linking discourse to action. Thinking is implicit in discourse, and discourse may provide a particularly effective path to its development (Kuhn, 2019; Michaels et al., 2008; Olson, 2016). Moreover, thinking is essential to civic action; without well-reasoned conviction to give them purpose, civic actions are unlikely to be sustained (Malin et al., 2015).

*Connect Research on Reasoning and Discourse Skill Development to Research in the Field of Socio-Emotional Learning*

Finally, the foregrounding of reasoning and discourse processes placed emphasis on a primarily cognitive approach to understanding the developmental underpinnings of civic action. However, in keeping with the acknowledgment that human learning integrates perceptual and affective components along with cognitive factors (see the concluding chapter in this report titled Recommendations for Practice, Policy, and Research; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018a), the authors have also summarized clear evidence that the socio-emotional components of civic action

cannot be overlooked. Particularly important are feelings of belonging and safety that are encouraged through positive, open school and classroom climates. Looking at the issue in this way, there is an opportunity for increased theoretical and practical connections between programs in civic engagement and in socio-emotional learning (SEL).

Jones et al. (2019) recently outlined a framework for understanding SEL in practice that highlights the ways in which cognitive, social, and emotional skills develop through supportive relationships. They highlight particular SEL initiatives developed from work in school districts to foster positive school climates. These initiatives were developed through close research-practice partnerships and in ways that were responsive and grounded in meaningful theories of change. While Jones et al. (2019) discuss SEL's roots in prevention science—a framework not traditionally tied to civic-related outcomes—the two traditions overlap extensively (Catalano et al., 2002; Cohen et al., 2010; Kia-Keating et al., 2011; Wentzel, 2015). This overlap in traditions has considerable potential for considering the role of school and classroom climate as related to civic outcomes in nuanced ways (Andolina & Conklin, 2020).

### Expanding and Developing Research Infrastructure

Beyond the specific and substantive recommendations provided, the authors also note a few general recommendations for encouraging the collecting and sharing of relevant data in further research. The first acknowledges that many of the findings presented in this paper are based on research from the IEA civics studies. From the vantage of understanding the U.S. context in particular, this presents a limitation as the United States has not participated in these studies since CIVED in 1999. A recommendation for further research in this area, therefore, is to resume participation in the IEA's civics and citizenship education studies. This could be accomplished through full national participation or through involvement via state-level benchmarking, which takes place using the same instruments but later than the main testing. Through such involvement, the United States would gain up-to-date information about students' opportunities to benefit from civic discourse and from an atmosphere of mutual respect in their schools, which could assist in identifying ways to improve educational programs to encourage civic participation. The next International Civic and Citizenship Education Study, slated for 2022, will include many of the same psychometrically rigorous measures of civic participation and attitudes in classrooms and schools used previously (including those relating to class and school climate) while also considering new or updated measures to assess current issues and challenges (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, 2020). Ensuring that national assessments (such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress [NAEP] civics and history assessments) include measures of classroom and school climate is also important.

A second suggestion recognizes that infrastructures to support data sharing, whether from international surveys or from studies specific to a particular country or region, would also help foster further research. For example, CivicLEADS, funded by the Spencer Foundation and housed at the University of Michigan's Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research (Regents of the University of Michigan, 2020), has become a repository for information on studies in this area, including those conducted using qualitative or geospatial methodologies as well as survey-based studies.

Available resources include more than 20 data sets with accompanying instruments, codebooks, and bibliographies of published research. With expanded funding, this could become a source for enhancing networks and collaborations between researchers to foster and develop new projects, either using archived data sets or encouraging new data collections specifically addressing topics raised here. Furthermore, CivicLEADS or another source could provide a bulletin board or even an early warning system about threats to open discourse and suggestions from teachers about how to deal with them.

### **IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS**

Given the associations between democratic school and classroom climates and the development of student civic reasoning and discourse, educators should be encouraged to promote such environments in their particular contexts (and should have the backing and support of administrators). These efforts, however, must be carefully contextualized in light of the political and social climate of the community that surrounds the school. Based on the literature reviewed above, the authors offer several recommendations for educators toward building classrooms conducive to the development of civic reasoning and discourse.

#### **Encourage Climates That Are Conducive to Civic Discourse Consistently Across the School**

Democratic discourse thrives in schools where faculty, administrators, and staff are conscious of it and emphasize it. Although discussions of social and political issues commonly take place in social studies classes (and are thus the focus of much of the research literature), there are ample opportunities to engage in civic discourse and reasoning in other school subjects. Engaging with civic issues from a scientific perspective (such as citizen science projects) or a literary perspective can emphasize to students that civic discourse takes place in a variety of contexts and illustrate the transferability of discursive skills.

While classroom pedagogy and climate are important, educators can make the development of civic discourse and reasoning a priority in school governance and policies, extracurricular activities, and other elements of the school. This must be contextualized within the communities surrounding the schools. The aim is that students should see civic discourse and reasoning modeled across multiple school contexts and, in turn, have many opportunities to engage themselves. If a given school emphasizes civic reasoning, discourse, and engagement as part of the ethos of the school (Campbell, 2006), classroom activities and climates, and extracurricular opportunities, it sends the message that such skills and dispositions are valuable foundations for civic life. Furthermore, students should be encouraged to suggest new activities that promote these aims, particularly in the realm of using digital technologies.

#### **Ensure That Teachers Are Prepared and Supported**

Teachers who engage (or want to engage) students on political and social issues are often concerned that they will become targets of ire from parents or community

members, or even students who have objections to the content or format of class discussions. If the school values civic discourse and reasoning, there should be procedures and plans for dealing with challenges. Students who have become engaged because of innovative programs are often the best defenders of those programs. Furthermore, as much as possible, incorporation of civic reasoning and discourse skills in school mission statements and policies can lay the groundwork for responses to criticism. Relatedly, when there are strong networks of educators and administrators committed to engaging students in civic reasoning and discourse, the school can better respond to unforeseen pressures.

Professional organizations can also play a role in supporting teachers as they create spaces for civic reasoning and discourse. In addition to providing resources and strategies for teachers as they strive for open classrooms and schools, organizations such as the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) or the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, through public statements, policy advocacy, and the development of standards, can serve as a counterweight to public discourse that may stifle open discussion of controversial issues. As Hahn (1998, 2010) notes, NCSS has served a similar role in previously contentious political times through issuing statements in support of open discussion of ideas.

### **Model Civic Discourse and Reasoning for Students and Create Spaces for Students to Practice These Skills**

Because educators have considerable power to shape student thinking, they should be conscious about how they model civic behaviors. Open discussion of current events and controversial issues with the allowance of multiple, reasonable viewpoints models the value of civic thinking to students. Avoidance of controversy and opinion expression, on the other hand, sends the message that such issues and skills are not important to citizens. In turn, teacher educators should challenge future teachers to consider dilemmas of practice that exist around such discussions and help develop professional judgment about how to facilitate productive discussions appropriate to the needs and concerns of different developmental levels, student populations, communities, and contexts (Pace, 2019).

### **Provide Opportunities for Collaboration in Class**

Collaborative learning environments in which students talk about political and social issues allow students to develop discursive skills (Kuhn, 2015; Kuhn et al., 2019). The social interaction inherent in collaborative learning or group discussion helps build these skills for later civic participation (Hess, 2009; Hess & McAvoy, 2015). Educators should be intentional about structuring these activities (e.g., which students collaborate with each other in class). Diverse groups often present opportunities for students to engage with a range of ideas and often result in rich discussions (Goldberg, 2013; Stoddard & Chen, 2016).

### Engage in Organization and Advocacy

Teachers and administrators intending to engage in any or all of the above may find themselves constrained by local, state, or even national policies. For example, restrictions on funding availability or mandates for testing can shift the focus to easily measured rote learning and disincentivize more robust civic reasoning and discourse. While educators certainly should exercise the power and influence they have in their local communities to create environments that promote civic reasoning and discourse, they must also strive to voice their concerns in statehouses. Professional organizations and teachers' unions can also serve to amplify teachers' voices at the state and national levels.

#### Recommendations for Practice

- **Climate as a context for content learning:** A learning environment's climate is theorized to have a reciprocal relationship to both the content of a course and the selection and effectiveness of pedagogy. Much of what is known about how classroom climates foster civic reasoning and discourse in particular comes from research conducted in the social studies and other civics-related content areas. However, similar principles may also inform how civic discourse happens in other content areas, such as literacy and science. More research in this vein is especially needed if one accepts the assumption that civic learning should take place across the curriculum.
- **Modeling of civic norms by teachers and administrators:** Staff within a school can serve as powerful models of what civic reasoning and discourse means. At the classroom level, for example, teachers' disclosing of personal opinions and providing opportunities for student disagreement can foster an open climate for political and social discussions. Across the school, administrators can set civic norms through their own inclusion of students' perspectives in their decision-making. Such norms are particularly powerful when shared and consistently communicated by staff members within a learning environment.
- **Development of civic skills and dispositions through scaffolding:** As students begin to deliberate on civic issues and develop a stronger conceptual base, they may need support and structure from more knowledgeable others (such as teachers) to guide their participation. Explicit teacher facilitation can support students' abilities to engage in such discussions, holding high intellectual standards for civic reasoning and ensuring that discussions remain respectful, open, and fair. Over time, students should be encouraged to develop the metacognitive skills needed to monitor their own participation in similar contexts without this explicit guidance.
- **Authenticity and real-world relevance:** Optimal learning environments for civic reasoning and discourse provide opportunities for students to hone their skills on authentic problems relevant to the world around them. This may include discussions of civic issues pertinent to the community in which the school is located and/or recognition of current national or global social and political issues as topics of discussion. It can also involve the treatment of the learning environment itself as a civic context, in which youth apply their reasoning and discourse skills to contribute to decision making and norm-setting within schools and classrooms.
- **Respect for personal experience:** The particular set of social contexts each student inhabits and the associated experiences within them shape how that individual learns. Given that no two individuals within a learning environment have the same background, no two will respond to the climate of that learning environment in the same way. Recognizing this, optimal learning environments account for one's positionality in engaging with civic issues, and build in opportunities of support for engaging with diverse perspectives. This is of particular importance

- when considering how schools and classrooms have historically privileged or marginalized the experiences of students with particular social or cultural backgrounds.
- **Safety and emotional support:** Given the potential for disagreement or discomfort that may come with the discussion of civic issues, a sense of safety, respect, and emotional support is a particularly crucial component of the climate of an effective learning environment for civic reasoning and discourse. Students who report stronger relationships between students and teachers, and among peers in a school tend to feel more connection to their schools and to perceive their schools and classrooms as more open to discussion and inclusive of student voice. Acknowledging the intertwined nature of cognitive and affective components of learning, this suggests that a more explicit and purposeful connection between principles developed as part of social-emotional learning and principles of civic learning may be warranted.
  - **Development of self- and collective efficacy:** Through engaging in civic discourse in open, supportive and challenging school and classroom climates, students develop confidence in their own ability to engage with civic issues that they take with them outside of the learning environment. Moreover, opportunities for engagement with teachers and groups of peers has been found to foster a sense of collective efficacy. This is particularly evident when students have experiences of working with a group to affect change in their community or their school.
  - **Opportunities to move from discourse to action:** In many cases, the presentation of authentic problems in a learning environment presents opportunities for students to engage in social action, as students look to implement changes discussed relevant to their school or community. Student leadership opportunities, youth participatory action research projects, and youth organizing are all examples of activities that can be implemented in learning environments to encourage meaningful and active involvement within supported, developmentally appropriate structures.

## CONCLUSION

Developing students' civic reasoning and discourse skills for future civic engagement is a challenging and complicated objective, particularly in light of supporting future civic engagement. The success of curricula and pedagogy designed to fulfill this objective is inextricably linked to the environment in which activities takes place (Hahn, 1996). This chapter has examined the various tools used to assess the climates of learning environments within classrooms. In addition, it has focused on factors that shape students' experiences in classrooms and schools as a whole. If a student has had an opportunity over time to be a member of a learning community that is open to group participation and also where individual students' views and varied backgrounds are respected, that usually means that student has had the experience of high-quality civic discourse. This participation in turn has likely contributed to the student's own skill, confidence, and disposition to participate, with the many present and potential benefits noted in this chapter. If one were to deconstruct the constructs of school and classroom climate, some of their characteristics might be better understood. It might then become possible to understand how to encourage changes in policies and educational practices, with the potential to orient educators toward the new realities of school-aged populations, who are being prepared to be the new population of voters, parents, work associates, friends, and community participants.

Classroom and school climates are never totally predictable. They depend on a variety of factors and are not easy to change, especially in the short term. Consistent policies

and practices on the part of teachers and administrators promoting the inclusion of current issues on a regular basis, or support for school-wide values and behaviors that promote student agency and voice, can gradually build learning environments suitable for civic reasoning and discourse. A range of international and national research studies have useful information for teachers and administrators about some factors influencing climates at school. Most teachers recognize variation in classroom and school climates. The authors believe it is possible and useful to describe and assess climate as an organizational feature of formal learning environments. In particular, they have focused on respect for the unique contributions from students of all backgrounds, students' perceptions of openness to their contributions, and assistance to students in providing the spaces and guidance necessary to hone their ideas. Of particular importance is teachers' awareness of the everyday out of school contexts in which students live and the factors that encourage or inhibit their civic reasoning and discourse. These can all be useful in providing educators with some ideas about actions to take to further the goals of civic reasoning, discourse, and engagement.

## REFERENCES

- Abu El-Haj, T. R. (2007). "I was born here, but my home, it's not here": Educating for democratic citizenship in an era of transnational migration and global conflict. *Harvard Educational Review*, 27(3), 285–316.
- Akom, A. A. (2003). Reexamining resistance as oppositional behavior: The Nation of Islam and the creation of a Black achievement ideology. *Sociology of Education*, 76(4), 305–325. <http://www.jstor.com/stable/1519868>.
- Akom, A. A., Ginwright, S., & Cammarota, J. (2008). Youthtopias: Towards a new paradigm of critical youth studies. *Youth Media Reporter*, 2(4), 1–30. <http://www.youthmediareporter.org/2008/08/15/youthtopias-towards-a-new-paradigm-of-critical-youth-studies>.
- Andolina, M. W., & Conklin, H. G. (2020). Fostering democratic and social-emotional learning in Action Civics Programming: Factors that shape students' learning from Project Soapbox. *American Educational Research Journal*, 57(3), 1203–1240.
- Angell, A. (1991). Democratic classrooms: A review of theory and research. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 19(3), 241–266.
- Avery, P. G., Levy, S. A., & Simmons, A. M. M. (2013). Deliberating controversial public issues as part of civic education. *The Social Studies*, 104(3), 105–114.
- Banks, J. A. (2008). Diversity, group identity, and citizenship education in a global age. *Educational Researcher*, 37(3), 129–139.
- Barber, C., & Torney-Purta, J. (2009). Gender differences in political efficacy and attitudes toward women's rights as influenced by national and school contexts: Analysis from the IEA Civic Education Study. In D. Baker & A. Wiseman (Eds.), *Gender, equality and education from international and comparative perspectives* (Vol. 10, International perspectives on education and society, pp. 357–394). Emerald Group Publishing.
- Barber, C., Sweetwood, S. O., & King, M. (2015). Creating classroom-level measures of citizenship education climate. *Learning Environments Research*, 18(2), 197–216.
- Barr, D. J., Boulay, B., Selman, R. L., McCormick, R., Lowenstein, E., Games, B., Fine, M., & Leonard, M. B. (2015). A randomized control trial of professional development for interdisciplinary civic education: Impacts on humanities teachers and their students. *Teachers College Record*, 117(2), 1–52. <https://www.tcrecord.org/Content.asp?ContentId=17470>.
- Barton, K. C., & McCully, A. W. (2005). History, identity, and the school curriculum in Northern Ireland: An empirical study of secondary students' ideas and perspectives. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 37(1), 85–116.
- Berkowitz, R., Iachini, A., Moore, H., Capp, G., Astor, R. A., Pitner, R., & Benbenishty, R. (2017). School climate. In *Oxford research encyclopedia of education*. Oxford University Press.

- Bickmore, K. (1999). Elementary curriculum about conflict resolution: Can children handle global politics? *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 27(1), 45–69.
- Billig, S., Root, S., & Jesse, D. (2005). *The impact of participation in service-learning on high school students' civic engagement* (CIRCLE Working Paper 33). Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE), University of Maryland.
- Blankenship, W. G. (2016). Talking it out: Online discussion forums in the social studies classroom. *Social Studies Research and Practice*, 11(1), 136–158. [http://www.socstrpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/MS06595\\_Bankenship.pdf](http://www.socstrpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/MS06595_Bankenship.pdf).
- Boyle-Baise, M., Hsu, M. C., Johnson, S., Serriere, S. C., & Stewart, D. (2008). Putting reading first: Teaching social studies in elementary classrooms. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 36(3), 233–255.
- Brand, S., Felner, R., Shim, M., Seitsinger, A., & Dumas, T. (2003). Middle school improvement and reform: Development and validation of a school-level assessment of climate, cultural pluralism, and school safety. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(3), 570.
- Brasof, M., & Mansfield, K. C. (2018). Student voice and school leadership: An introduction. *Journal of Ethical Educational Leadership, Special Issue 1*, 5–9.
- Brezicha, K. F., & Mitra, D. L. (2019). Should we be testing civics? Examining the implications of the civic education initiative. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 94(1), 63–77.
- Brophy, J., & Alleman, J. (2008). Early elementary social studies. In L. S. Levstik & C. A. Tyson (Eds.), *Handbook of research in social studies education* (pp. 33–49). Routledge.
- Brown, D. (1991). *Human universals*. Temple University Press.
- Bruch, S. K., & Soss, J. (2018). Schooling as a formative political experience: Authority relations and the education of citizens. *Perspectives on Politics*, 16(1), 36–57.
- Campbell, D. E. (2006). *Why we vote: How schools and communities shape our civic life*. Princeton University Press.
- Campbell, D. E. (2007). Sticking together: Classroom diversity and civic education. *American Politics Research*, 35(1), 57–78.
- Campbell, D. E. (2008). Voice in the classroom: How an open classroom climate fosters political engagement among adolescents. *Political Behavior*, 30(4), 437–454.
- Campbell, D. E. (2012). Civic education in traditional public, charter, and private schools: Moving from comparison to explanation. In D. E. Campbell & M. Levinson (Eds.), *Making civics count* (pp. 229–246). Harvard University Press.
- Campbell, D. E. (2019). What social scientists have learned about civic education: A review of the literature. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 94(1), 32–47.
- Cappella, J. N., Price, V., & Nir, L. (2002). Argument repertoire as a reliable and valid measure of opinion quality: Electronic dialogue during campaign 2000. *Political Communication*, 19(1), 73–93.
- Caraballo, L., Lozenski, B., Lyiscott, J., & Morrell, E. (2017). YPAR and critical epistemologies: Rethinking education research. *Review of Research in Education*, 41(1), 311–336.
- Carrasco, D., & Irribarra, D. T. (2018). The role of classroom discussion. In A. Sandoval-Hernandez, M. M. Isac, & D. Miranda (Eds.), *Teaching tolerance in a globalized world* (pp. 87–102). Springer.
- Carretero, M., Haste, H., & Bermudez, A. (2016). Civic education. In L. Corno & E. M. Anderman (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (3rd ed., pp. 295–308). Routledge.
- Castillo, J. C., Miranda, D., Bonhomme, M., Cox, C., & Bascopé, M. (2015). Mitigating the political participation gap from the school: The roles of civic knowledge and classroom climate. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 18(1), 16–35.
- Catalano, R. F., Hawkins, J. D., Berglund, M. L., Pollard, J. A., & Arthur, M. W. (2002). Prevention science and positive youth development: Competitive or cooperative frameworks? *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 31(6, Suppl), 230–239.
- Chavez Schools. (2020). *History*. <http://www.chavezschools.org/history>.
- Cherif, A. H., Gialamas, S., Pelonis, P., Harris, J., & Siuda, J. E. (2019). The role of educators in growing leaders and leadership among school students. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 10(18), 1–10.
- Clark, C. H. (2018). The impact of student political identity over the course of an online controversial issue discussion. *Democracy and Education*, 26(2), 1–15. <https://democracyeducationjournal.org/home/vol26/iss2/1>.

- Clark, C. H., Bordwell, D. T., & Avery, P. G. (2015). Gender and public issues deliberations in named and anonymous online environments. *Journal of Public Deliberation*, 11(2), Article 2. <https://www.publicdeliberation.net/jpd/vol11/iss2/art2>.
- Clark, C. H., Schmeichel, M., & Garrett, H. J. (2020). Social studies teacher perceptions of news source credibility. *Educational Researcher*, 49(4), 262–272.
- Cohen, E. G. (1994). Restructuring the classroom: Conditions for productive small groups. *Review of Educational Research*, 64(1), 1–35.
- Cohen, J., Pickeral, T., & Levine, P. (2010). The foundation for democracy: Promoting social, emotional, ethical, cognitive skills and dispositions in K-12 schools. *Interamerican Journal of Education for Democracy*, 3(1), 74–94. <https://scholarworks.iu.edu/journals/index.php/ried/article/view/618>.
- Crocco, M., Halvorsen, A.-L., Jacobsen, R., & Seagall, A. (2018a). Less arguing, more listening: Improving civility in classrooms. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 99(5), 67–71.
- Crocco, M., Seagall, A., Halvorsen, A.-L., & Jacobsen, R. (2018b). Debating public policy issues with adolescents: Classroom dynamics and sociocultural considerations. *Democracy and Education*, 26(1), 1–10. <https://democracyeducationjournal.org/home/vol26/iss1/3>.
- Dewey, J. (1922). *Human nature and conduct: An introduction to social psychology*. Henry Holt and Company.
- Diemer, M. A., Hsieh, C., & Pan, T. (2008). School and parental influences on sociopolitical development among poor adolescents of color. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 37(2), 317–344.
- Education Week Research Center. (2018). Civics education in K-12 schools: Results of a national survey. Editorial Projects in Education. <https://www.edweek.org/media/civics-survey-report-education-week.pdf>.
- Ehman, L. H. (1969). An analysis of the relationships of selected educational variables with the political socialization of high school students. *American Educational Research Journal*, 61, 559–580.
- Ehman, L. H. (1980). The American school in the political socialization process. *Review of Educational Research*, 50(1), 99–119.
- Epstein, T. (2009). *Interpreting national history: Race, identity, and pedagogy in classrooms and communities*. Routledge.
- Esterling, K. M., Fung, A., & Lee, T. (2019). When deliberation produces persuasion rather than polarization: Measuring and modeling small group dynamics in a field experiment. *British Journal of Political Science*, 1–19.
- Farrar, C., Green, D. P., Green, J. E., Nickerson, D. W., & Shewfelt, S. (2009). Does discussion group composition affect policy preferences? Results from three randomized experiments. *Political Psychology*, 30(4), 615–647.
- Fitchett, P. G., & Heafner, T. L. (2010). A national perspective on the effects of high-stakes testing and standardization on elementary social studies marginalization. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 38(1), 114–130.
- Fitchett, P. G., Heafner, T. L., & Lambert, R. G. (2014). Examining elementary social studies marginalization: A multilevel model. *Educational Policy*, 28(1), 40–68.
- Flanagan, C. (2013). *Teenage citizens: The political theories of the young*. Harvard University Press.
- Flanagan, C. (2014). Teaching a larger “sense of community.” *Analysis of Social Issues and Public Policy*, 14(1), 423–425.
- Flanagan, C. A., Cumsville, P., Gill, S., & Gallay, L. S. (2007). School and community climates and civic commitments: Patterns for ethnic minority and majority students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(2), 421–431.
- Franzoi, S. L., Davis, M. H., & Young, R. D. (1985). The effects of private self-consciousness and perspective taking on satisfaction in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48(6), 1584–1594.
- Fraser-Burgess, S. (2012). Group identity, deliberative democracy and diversity in education. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 44(5), 480–499.
- Freedman, S. W., Barr, D. J., Murphy, K., & Beširević, Z. (2016a). The development of ethical civic actors in divided societies: A longitudinal case. *Human Development*, 59, 107–127.
- Freedman, S. W., Hull, G. A., Higgs, J., & Booten, K. P. (2016b). Teaching writing in a digital and global age: Toward access, learning, and development for all. In D. H. Gitomer & C. A. Bell (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (5th ed., pp. 1389–1449). American Educational Research Association.

- Gallay, E., Pyckett, A., Smallwood, M., & Flanagan, C. (2020). Urban youth preserving the environmental commons: Student learning in place-based stewardship education as citizen-scientists. *Sustainable Earth*, 3(3).
- Geboers, G., Geijsel, F., Admiraal, W., & ten Dam, G. (2013). Review of the effects of citizenship education. *Educational Research Review*, 9, 158–173.
- Geller, R. C. (2020). Teacher political disclosure in contentious times: A “responsibility to speak up” or “fair and balanced”? *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 48(2), 182–210.
- Geller, J. D., Voight, A., Wegman, H., & Nation, M. (2013). How do varying types of youth civic engagement relate to perceptions of school climate? *Applied Developmental Science*, 17(3), 135–147.
- Gilbert, M. (1994). Remarks on collective belief. In F. Schmitt (Ed.), *Social epistemology: The social dimensions of knowledge* (pp. 235–253). Rowman & Littlefield.
- Ginwright, S. A. (2007). Black youth activism and the role of critical social capital in Black community organizations. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 51(3), 403–418.
- Gniewosz, B., & Noack, P. (2008). Classroom indicators and attitudes towards foreigners. *Journal of Adolescence*, 31(5), 609–624.
- Godfrey, E. B., & Grayman, J. K. (2014). Teaching citizens: The role of open classroom climate in fostering critical consciousness among youth. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 43(11), 1801–1817.
- Goldberg, T. (2013). It's in my veins: Identity and disciplinary practice in students' discussions of a historical issue. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 41(1), 33–64.
- Graham, E. J. (2020). “In real life, you have to speak up.” Civic implications of no-excuse classroom management practices. *American Educational Research Journal*, 57(2), 653–693.
- Gray, D. L., Hope, E. C., & Matthews, J. S. (2018). Black and belonging at school: A case for interpersonal, instructional, and institutional opportunity structures. *Educational Psychologist*, 53(2), 97–113.
- Green, J. L. (1983). Research on teaching as a linguistic process: A state of the art. In E. Gordon (Ed.), *Review of research in education* (Vol. 10, pp. 151–254). American Educational Research Association.
- Green, J. L., Baker, W. D., Chian, M. M., Vanderhoof, C., Hooper, L., Kelly, G. J., Skukauskate, A., & Kalainoff, M. Z. (2020). Studying the over-time construction of knowledge in educational settings: A microethnographic discourse analysis approach. *Review of Research in Education*, 44, 161–194.
- Guillaume, C., Jagers, R., & Rivas-Drake, D. (2015). Middle school as a developmental niche for civic engagement. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 56(3–4), 321–331.
- Hahn, C. L. (1991). Controversial issues in social studies. In J. Shaver (Ed.), *Handbook of research on social studies teaching and learning* (pp. 470–480). Macmillan.
- Hahn, C. L. (1996). Research on issues-centered social studies. In R. W. Evans & D. W. Saxe (Eds.), *Handbook on teaching social issues* (pp. 25–41). National Council for the Social Studies.
- Hahn, C. L. (1998). *Becoming political: Comparative perspectives on citizenship education*. State University of New York Press.
- Hahn, C. L. (2010). Issues-centered pedagogy and classroom climate for discussion: A view from the United States. In K. J. Kennedy, W. O. Lee, & D. L. Grossman (Eds.), *Citizenship pedagogies in Asia and the Pacific* (Vol. 28, CERC studies in comparative education, pp. 315–331). Springer.
- Hahn, C. L., & Tocci, C. M. (1990). Classroom climate and controversial issues discussions: A five nation study. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 18, 344–362.
- Halfon, E., & Romi, S. (2019). High-school student councils: A typological approach. *Education, Citizenship, and Social Justice*.
- Hart, D., & Youniss, J. (2018). *Renewing democracy in young America*. Oxford University Press.
- Hess, D. E. (2009). *Controversy in the classroom: The democratic power of discussion*. Routledge.
- Hess, D. E., & McAvoy, P. (2015). *The political classroom: Evidence and ethics in democratic education*. Routledge.
- Hess, R. D., & Torney, J. V. (1967). *The development of political attitudes in children*. AldineTransaction.
- Hope, E. C., Skoog, A. B., & Jagers, R. J. (2015). “It'll never be the White kids; it'll always be us:” Black high school students’ evolving critical analysis of racial discrimination and equity in schools. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 30(1), 83–112.
- International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement. (2020). *ICCS 2022: International Civic and Citizenship Education Study of 2022*. <https://www.iea.nl/studies/iea/iccs/2022>.

- Isac, M. M., Maslowski, R., Creemers, B., & van der Werf, G. (2013). The contribution of schooling to secondary-school students' citizenship outcomes across countries. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 25(1), 29–63.
- Jagers, R. J., Lozada, F. T., Rivas-Drake, D., & Guillaume, C. (2017). Classroom and school predictors of civic engagement among Black and Latino middle-school youth. *Child Development*, 88(4), 1125–1138.
- Jennings, M. K., & Niemi, R. G. (1974). *The political character of adolescence: The influence of families and schools*. Princeton University Press.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Roseth, C. (2010). Cooperative learning in middle schools: Interrelationship of relationships and achievement. *Middle Grades Research Journal*, 5(1), 1–18.
- Jones, S. M., McGarrah, M., & Kahn, J. (2019). Social and emotional learning: A principled science of human development in context. *Educational Psychologist*, 54(3), 129–143.
- Journell, W. (2010). The influence of high-stakes testing on high school teachers' willingness to incorporate current political events into the curriculum. *The High School Journal*, 93(3), 111–125.
- Journell, W. (2012). Ideological homogeneity, school leadership, and political intolerance in secondary education: A study of three high schools during the 2008 Presidential Election. *Journal of School Leadership*, 22, 569–599.
- Journell, W. (2017). *Teaching politics in secondary education: Engaging with contentious issues*. State University of New York Press.
- Kahne, J., & Bowyer, B. (2017). Educating for democracy in a partisan age: Confronting the challenges of motivated reasoning and misinformation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 54(1), 3–34.
- Kahne, J., Crow, D., & Lee, N. J. (2013). Different pedagogy, different politics: High school learning opportunities and youth political engagement. *Political Psychology*, 34(3), 419–441.
- Karakos, H. L., Voight, A., Geller, J. D., Nixon, C. T., & Nation, M. (2016). Student civic participation and school climate: Associations at multiple levels of the school ecology. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 44(2), 166–181.
- Kawashima-Ginsberg, K., & Levine, P. (2014). Diversity in classrooms: The relationship between deliberative and associative opportunities in school and later electoral engagement. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy*, 14(1), 394–414.
- Kelly, T. E. (1986). Discussing controversial issues: Four perspectives on the teacher's role. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 14, 113–138.
- Kia-Keating, M., Dowdy, E., Morgan, M. L., & Noam, G. G. (2011). Protecting and promoting: An integrative conceptual model for healthy development of adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 48(3), 220–228.
- King, P. M., & Baxter Magolda, M. B. (2005). A developmental model of intercultural maturity. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46(6), 571–592.
- Kirshner, B. (2008). Guided participation in three youth activism organizations: Facilitation, apprenticeship, and joint work. *Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 17(1), 60–101.
- Kirshner, B. (2009). Power in numbers: Youth organizing as a context for exploring civic identity. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 19(3), 414–440.
- Kirshner, B., & Ginwright, S. (2012). Youth organizing as a developmental context for African American and Latino adolescents. *Child Development Perspectives*, 6(3), 288–294.
- Knowles, R., Torney-Purta, J., & Barber, C. (2018). Enhancing citizenship learning with international comparative research: Analyses of IEA civic education datasets. *Citizenship, Teaching, & Learning*, 13(1), 7–30.
- Kuhn, D. (2015). Thinking together and alone. *Educational Researcher*, 44(1), 46–53.
- Kuhn, D. (2019). Critical thinking as discourse. *Human Development*, 62, 146–164.
- Kuhn, D., & Lao, J. (1996). Effects of evidence on attitudes: Is polarization the norm? *Psychological Science*, 7(2), 115–120.
- Kuhn, D., Zillmer, N., Crowell, A., & Zavala, J. (2013). Developing norms of argumentation: Metacognitive, epistemological, and social dimensions of developing argumentative competence. *Cognition and Instruction*, 31(4), 456–496.
- Kuhn, D., Floyd, D., Yaksick, P., Halpern, M., & Ricks, W. (2018). How does discourse among like-minded individuals affect their thinking about a complex issue? *Thinking and Reasoning*, 25(3), 365–382.
- Kuhn, D., Feliciano, N., & Kostikina, D. (2019). Engaging contemporary issues as practice for citizenship. *The Social Studies*, 110(5), 207–219.

- Kuş, Z. (2015). Science and social studies teachers' beliefs and practices about teaching controversial issues: Certain comparisons. *Journal of Social Science Education*, 14(3), 84–97.
- Ladenson, R. F. (2012). Civility as a democratic civic virtue. In D. Mower & W. Robinson (Eds.), *Civility in politics and education* (pp. 207–220). Routledge.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2000). Culturally-relevant pedagogy in African centered schools: Possibilities for progressive educational reform. In D. Pollard & C. Ajirotutu (Eds.), *African-centered schooling in theory and practice* (pp. 187–198). Bergin & Garvey.
- Lao, J., & Kuhn, D. (2002). Cognitive engagement and attitude development. *Cognitive Development*, 17, 1203–1217.
- Lapointe, A. A. (2016). Queering the social studies: Lessons to be learned from Canadian secondary school gay-straight alliances. *Journal of Social Studies Research*, 40(3), 205–215.
- Larson, B. E. (2003). Comparing face-to-face discussion and electronic discussion: A case study from high school social studies. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 31(3), 347–365.
- Leithwood, K., Louis, K. S., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). *How leadership influences student learning*. The Wallace Foundation.
- Levinson, M., & Fay, J. (2019). *Democratic discord in schools: Cases and commentaries in educational ethics*. Harvard Education Press.
- Lin, A. R. (2014). Examining students' perception of classroom openness as a predictor of civic knowledge: A cross-national analysis of 38 countries. *Applied Developmental Science*, 18, 1–14.
- Lodge, M., & Taber, C. (2013). *The rationalizing voter*. Cambridge University Press.
- Macgillivray, K. (2004). Gay rights and school policy: A case study in community factors that facilitate or impede educational change. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 17(3), 347–370.
- Malin, H., Ballard, P. J., & Damon, W. (2015). Civic purpose: An integrated construct for understanding civic development in adolescence. *Human Development*, 58, 103–130.
- Mansfield, K. C., Welton, A., & Halx, M. (2018). Listening to student voice: Toward a more holistic approach to school leadership. *Journal of Ethical Educational Leadership, Special Issue 1*, 10–18.
- Maurissen, L., Claes, E., & Barber, C. (2018). Deliberation in citizenship education: How the school context contributes to the development of an open classroom climate. *Social Psychology of Education*, 21(4), 951–972.
- Maurissen, L., Barber, C., & Claes, E. (2020). Classroom discussions and political tolerance towards immigrants: The importance of mutual respect and responsiveness. *Acta Politica*, 55, 242–266.
- Mayo, J. B. (2013a). Critical pedagogy enacted in the gay-straight alliance: New possibilities for a third space in teacher development. *Educational Researcher*, 42(5), 266–275.
- Mayo, J. B. (2013b). Expanding the meaning of social education: What the social studies can learn from gay straight alliances. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 41(3), 352–381.
- McAvoy, P., & Hess, D. (2013). Classroom deliberation in an era of political polarization. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 43(1), 14–47.
- McDevitt, M., & Kioussis, S. (2007). The red and blue of adolescence: Origins of the compliant voter and the defiant activist. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 50(9), 1214–1230.
- McFarland, D., & Starmanns, C. E. (2009). Inside student government: The variable quality of high school student councils. *Teachers College Record*, 111(1), 27–54. <https://www.tcrecord.org/Content.asp?ContentId=15173>.
- McGranahan, L. (2020). The examined life: Winning Words prepares high schoolers for an epic ethics competition. *The University of Chicago Magazine*, 112(3), 12–13.
- Michaels, S., O'Connor, C., & Resnick, L. B. (2008). Deliberative discourse idealized and realized: Accountable talk in the classroom and in civic life. *Studies in Philosophy and Education*, 27(4), 283–297.
- Middaugh, E., Bowyer, B., & Kahne, J. (2017). U suk! Participatory discourse and youth experiences with political media. *Youth and Society*, 49(7), 902–922.
- Mikva Challenge. (2020). *Theory of change*. <https://mikvachallenge.org/our-work/theory-of-change>.
- Mirra, N., & Garcia, A. (2017). Civic participation reimagined: Youth interrogation and innovation in the multimodal public sphere. *Review of Research in Education*, 41, 136–158.
- Mirra, N., & Debate Liberation League. (2020). Without borders: Youth debaters reimagining the nature and purpose of public dialogue. *English Teaching*, 19, 253–267.

- Mischel, J., & Kitsantas, A. (2020). Middle school students' perceptions of school climate, bullying prevalence, and social support and coping. *Social Psychology of Education*, 23, 51–72.
- Mitra, D., Serriere, S., & Kirshner, B. (2014). Youth participation in U.S. contexts: Student voice without a national mandate. *Children and Society*, 28(4), 292–304.
- Morine-Dershimer, G. (2006). Classroom management and classroom discourse. In C. M. Everston & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management* (pp. 127–156). Routledge.
- National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2018a). *How people learn II: Learners, contexts, and cultures*. The National Academies Press.
- National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2018b). *Learning through citizen science: Enhancing opportunities by design*. The National Academies Press.
- Niemi, N. S., & Niemi, R. G. (2007). Partisanship, participation, and political trust as taught (or not) in high school history and government classes. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 35(1), 32–61.
- Nuangchalearn, P. (2009). Development of socioscientific issues-based teaching for preservice science teachers. *Social Sciences*, 5(3), 239–243.
- Olson, D. R. (2016). *The mind on paper: Reading, consciousness and rationality*. Cambridge University Press.
- Pace, J. L. (2019). Contained risk-taking: Preparing preservice teachers to teach controversial issues in three countries. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 47(2), 228–260.
- Paluck, E. L., Shepherd, H., & Aronow, P. M. (2016). Changing climates of conflict: A social network experiment in 56 schools. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 113(3), 566–571.
- Parker, W. C. (2006). Talk isn't cheap: Practicing deliberation in school. *Social Studies and the Young Learner*, 19(1), 12–15.
- Parker, W. C. (2010). Listening to strangers: Classroom discussion in democratic education. *Teachers College Record*, 112(11), 2815–2832.
- Parker, W. C., & Hess, D. (2001). Teaching with and for discussion. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(3), 273–289.
- Patterson, M. M., Bigler, R. S., Pahlke, E., Brown, C. S., Hayes, A., Ramirez, M. C., & Nelson, A. (2019). Toward a developmental science of politics. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 84(3), 7–185.
- Porat, D. A. (2004). From the scandal to the Holocaust in Israeli education. *Journal of Contemporary History*, 39(4), 619–636.
- Poteat, V. P., Calzo, J. P., & Yoshikawa, H. (2018). Gay-straight alliance involvement and youths' participation in civic engagement, advocacy, and awareness-raising. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 56, 13–20.
- Prior, M. (2010). You've either got it or you don't? The stability of political interest over the life cycle. *Journal of Politics*, 72(3), 747–766.
- Putnam, R. D. (2015). *Our kids: The American dream in crisis*. Simon & Schuster.
- Quintelier, E., & Hooghe, M. (2013). The relationship between political participation intentions of adolescents and a participatory democratic climate at school in 35 countries. *Oxford Review of Education*, 39(5), 567–589.
- Regents of the University of Michigan. (2020). CivicLEADS: Civic learning, engagement, and action data sharing. <https://www.icpsr.umich.edu/web/pages/civicleads/index.html>.
- Reichert, F., Chen, J., & Torney-Purta, J. (2018). Profiles of adolescents' perceptions of democratic classroom climate and students' influence: The effect of school and community contexts. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 47, 1279–1298.
- Reznitskaya, A., & Wilkinson, A. (2017). *The most reasonable answer: Helping students build better arguments together*. Harvard Education Press.
- Richardson, W. K. (2003). *Connecting political discussion to civic engagement: The role of civic knowledge, efficacy and context for adolescents* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Maryland, College Park.
- Rubin, B. C. (2007). "There's still not justice": Youth civic identity development amid distinct school and community contexts. *Teachers College Record*, 109(2), 449–481.
- Rubin, B. C., Hayes, B., & Benson, K. (2009). "It's the worst place to live": Urban youth and the challenge of school-based civic learning. *Theory Into Practice*, 48(3), 213–221.

- Sakiz, H. (2017). Impact of an inclusive programme on achievement, attendance and perceptions towards the school climate and social-emotional adaptation among students with disabilities. *Educational Psychology*, 37(5), 611–631.
- Sampson, R. J., Morenoff, J. D., & Earls, F. (1999). Beyond social capital: Spatial dynamics of collective efficacy for children. *American Sociological Review*, 64(5), 633–660. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2657367>.
- Schkade, D., Sunstein, C. R., & Hastie, R. (2007). What happened on deliberation day. *California Law Review*, 95(3), 915–940.
- Schuitema, J., ten Dam, G., & Veugelers, W. (2008). Teaching strategies for moral education: A review. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 40(1), 69–89.
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J., Fraillon, J., Kerr, D., & Losito, B. (2010). *ICCS 2009 international report: Civic knowledge, attitudes, and engagement among lower-secondary students in 38 countries*. International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J., Fraillon, J., Losito, B., Agrusti, G., & Friedman, T. (2017). *Becoming citizens in a changing world: IEA International Civic and Citizenship Education Study 2016 international report*. International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.
- Schweig, J., Hamilton, L. S., & Baker, G. (2019). *School and classroom climate measures: Considerations for use by state and local education leaders*. [https://www.rand.org/pubs/research\\_reports/RR4259.html](https://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports/RR4259.html).
- Schweingruber, H. (2020, March). Session discussant: Developmental underpinnings and psychological foundations [Conference presentation]. National Academy of Education Civic Reasoning and Discourse Project, Washington, DC.
- Sears, D. O. (1983). The persistence of early political predispositions: The roles of attitude object and life stage. In L. Wheeler & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), *Review of personality and social psychology* (pp. 79–116). Sage.
- Seider, S. (2012). *Character compass: How powerful school culture can point students toward success*. Harvard University Press.
- Speer, P. W., Peterson, N. A., Christens, B. D., & Reid, R. J. (2019). Youth cognitive empowerment: Development and evaluation of an instrument. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 64, 528–540.
- Springer Nature Switzerland AG. (2020). *Learning environments research: An international journal*. <https://www.springer.com/journal/10984>.
- Stoddard, J., & Chen, J. (2016). Young people's response to The Response: The impact of political diversity and media framing on discussions of combatant tribunals. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education*, 11(1), 65.
- Stoddard, J., Banks, A. M., Nemacheck, C., & Wenska, E. (2016). The challenges of gaming for democratic education: The case of iCivics. *Democracy and Education*, 24(2), 2. <https://democracyeducationjournal.org/home/vol24/iss2/2>.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchsel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–47). Brooks/Cole.
- Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A review of school climate research. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(3), 357–385.
- Thomas, R. M. (2005). *High-stakes testing: Coping with collateral damage*. Erlbaum.
- Thornton, S. J. (2003). Silence on gays and lesbians in social studies curriculum. *Social Education*, 67(4), 226–230.
- Torney, J. V., Oppenheim, A. N., & Farnen, R. F. (1975). *Civic education in ten countries: An empirical study*. Halstead Press of John Wiley.
- Torney-Purta, J., & Amadeo, J. (2011). Participatory niches for emergent citizenship in early adolescence: An international perspective. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 633, 180–200.
- Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H., & Schulz, W. (2001). *Citizenship and education in 28 countries: Civic knowledge and engagement at age 14*. International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.
- Torney-Purta, J., Barber, C. H., & Wilkenfeld, B. (2007). Latino adolescents' civic development in the United States: Research results from the IEA Civic Education Study. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 36(3), 111–126.
- Torney-Purta, J., Wilkenfeld, B., & Barber, C. (2008). How adolescents in twenty-seven countries understand, support and practice international human rights. *Journal of Social Issues*, 4(4), 857–880.

- Torney-Purta, J., Amadeo, J., & Andolina, M. (2010). A conceptual framework and a multimethod approach for research in civic engagement and political socialization. In L. Sherrod, J. Torney-Purta, & C. Flanagan (Eds.), *Handbook of research on civic engagement in youth* (pp. 497–534). John Wiley.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. *Readings on the Development of Children*, 23(3), 34–41.
- Walberg, H. J., & Anderson, G. J. (1968). Classroom climate and individual learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 59(6), 414–419.
- Walsh, E. M., & Tsurusaki, B. K. (2014). Social controversy belongs in the climate science classroom. *Nature Climate Change*, 4(4), 259–263.
- Wanders, F. H., van der Veen, I., Dijkstra, A. B., & Maslowski, R. (2019). The influence of teacher-student and student-student relationships on societal involvement in Dutch primary and secondary schools. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 48(1), 101–119.
- Watts, R. J., Diemer, M. A., & Voight, A. M. (2011). Critical consciousness: Current status and future directions. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 134, 43–57.
- Wentzel, K. R. (2015). Socialization in school settings. In J. Grusec & P. Hastings (Eds.), *Handbook of socialization: Theory and research* (2nd ed., pp. 251–275). Guilford Press.
- Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(2), 237–269.
- Wilkenfeld, B., & Torney-Purta, J. (2012). A cross-context analysis of civic engagement linking CIVED and US Census data. *JSSE-Journal of Social Science Education*, 11(1), 64–80.
- Wray-Lake, L., & Abrams, L. S. (2020). Pathways to civic engagement among urban youth of color. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 85(2), 7–154.
- Young, I. M. (2000). *Inclusion and democracy*. Oxford University Press.
- Zeidler, D. L., Applebaum, S. M., & Sadler, T. D. (2011). Enacting a socioscientific issues classroom: Transformative transformations. In T. D. Sadler (Ed.), *Socio-scientific issues in the classroom* (pp. 277–305). Springer.
- Zimmerman, J., & Robertson, E. (2017). *The case for contention: Teaching controversial issues in American schools*. The University of Chicago Press.
- Zorwick, L. W., & Wade, J. M. (2016). Enhancing civic education through the use of assigned advocacy, argumentation, and debate across the curriculum. *Communication Education*, 65(4), 434–444.