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England's Results from the IEA International Citizenship Education Study: What Citizenship and Education mean to 14 Year Olds

David Kerr, Anne Lines, Sarah Blenkinshop and Ian Schagen
National Foundation for Educational Research

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C O N T E N T S

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

England was one of 28 countries that participated in the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study (known as the Citizenship Education Study in England), a two-phase, cross-national study of citizenship education. This study is the largest of its kind ever undertaken, involving 90,000 14-year-olds, as well as teachers and headteachers. Phase 1, undertaken in 1994, took the form of a qualitative case study of citizenship or civic education developments. It provided an overview of the approaches to citizenship education currently being taken in the participating countries involved in the study, as well as a wealth of other contextual information. In Phase 2 every country tested and surveyed a nationally representative sample of 14-year-olds about their knowledge of civic related content, their skills in understanding civic-related materials (*civic knowledge*), their concepts of and attitudes towards citizenship issues (*civic concepts*), and their actual and intended participation and practices in this area (*civic engagement and participation*). There was also a teacher and a school questionnaire.

Although the IEA Citizenship Education Study was designed such that international comparisons can be made, the data collected allow for in-depth, national-level analysis. The national analysis for England is the subject of this report. The findings of the study will inform and stimulate discussion among policy-makers, curriculum developers, teachers, teacher educators, researchers and the general public about citizenship education, particularly given that it will be a statutory requirement for citizenship education to be taught in secondary schools from September 2002.

♦   **Civic Knowledge and Civic Skills**

On a test of civic knowledge, students in most countries, including England, have an understanding of fundamental democratic values and institutions, but there is some concern about their depth of understanding. In England students' scores on civic knowledge were similar to the international average. There was no significant difference between boys and girls. Items on the 'civic knowledge' test were divided into two sub-scales for purposes of analysis: **civic content knowledge** (knowledge of key civic principles and practices, such as what is meant by democracy) and **civic skills** (being able to interpret civic-related material, such as an election leaflet). In the majority of countries, students were able to answer factual questions (civic knowledge) but found it more difficult to answer questions which demanded skills of interpretation (civic skills). However, England was one of a few countries where students scored highest on civic skills. In fact, on the civic skills sub-scale students in England scored significantly higher than the international average. Students in England had greatest difficulty in answering items which addressed their knowledge about democracy and government.

♦   **Attitudes Towards Civic Concepts**

Students in England believe that freedom of speech, free elections and support for women entering politics strengthen democracy. They believe **democracy** is weakened when politicians give jobs in government to family members, when wealthy people have undue influence on government and when media opinions are uniform. However, there is some evidence that more sophisticated ideas about the political process elude young people at this age.

The survey investigated students' **concept of citizenship**. Fourteen-year-olds across countries believe that obeying the law is the most important facet of being a good adult citizen. Voting in elections is also seen as important. However, support for many types of conventional political activity, such as voting or joining a political party, appears to be weak. Though voting is seen as important in many countries, including England, young people believe that joining a political party and discussing political issues are of little importance for adult citizenship. Activities in the community and in relation to non-partisan groups (such as environmental and human rights groups) have much more appeal to young people and are seen as part of an adult citizen's role. However, in England, students rated both *conventional citizenship* and *social-movement citizenship* low in importance for adult citizenship compared to the international average for these measures.

Fourteen-year-olds are already members of a political culture. They possess concepts of social and economic responsibilities of government that largely correspond to those of adults. They are more likely to believe that the **government** should take society-related responsibility, such as providing free basic education or preserving order, than take responsibility for activities associated with the economy, such as reducing income inequalities or controlling prices. Significantly, the concept that government has society-related responsibilities is strongly endorsed by students in England, compared to those in many other countries.

Fourteen-year-old boys and girls possess similar concepts of democracy and government responsibility. However, girls in England attribute more society-related and economic responsibilities to government than boys.

Taken together, there is some evidence that the attitudes and beliefs of young people in the study to the concepts of democracy, citizenship and government fit with the notion of the growth of a **'new civic culture'**.[1] This 'new' culture, is characterised by less hierarchy and more individual decision-making. The generation of young people represented by the study's 14-year-olds, including those in England, is gravitating increasingly to actions linked to more informal social-movement groups rather than those linked to more formal conventional political parties and groupings. Young people also show much less interest in political parties, as well as in discussing political issues.

♦   **Attitudes Towards Civic Institutions and Groups in Society**

Fourteen-year-olds across countries, including those in England, are moderately trusting of their government institutions. Courts and the police are most trusted, followed by national and local governments. In contrast, political parties are trusted very little. Students' trust of the national government in Westminster is slightly below the international mean.

Students across countries express varying levels of **trust in mass media sources**. Overall, news presented on television is most trusted, followed by news on the radio

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[1]   This notion of a 'new civic culture' was picked up in the literature review which accompanied Phases 1 and 2 of the study. A number of recent studies by political scientists have identified this cultural change, see particularly, Dalton (2000) and Clark and Hoffman-Martinot (1998). There is considerable evidence in the study to reinforce such a cultural change.

and news in the press. In England, there is much greater trust among students in television news compared to trust in newspapers. The percentage of students in England who trust television news is above the international mean, and the percentage who trust newspapers is considerably below the international mean. Indeed, students in England show the lowest level of trust of newspapers compared to those in the other 27 countries involved in the study. The extent to which students are explicitly encouraged critically to read or analyse newspapers or view news programmes as part of citizenship education varies across countries. In almost all countries, including England, news broadcasts on television were the most prominent sources of political information for young people. However, England was one of the countries with the least extensive consumption of television news broadcasts by students. In many countries, including England, more girls than boys listened to radio news broadcasts.

Fourteen-year-olds in England are moderately **trusting of other institutions** in modern society. Schools are the most trusted institution in society among students. This is followed by trust in the armed forces and the United Nations (UN). The lowest level of trust is in the European Union (EU), but this is still higher than students' trust of political parties and of the government in Westminster.

Most young people have highly positive attitudes towards their country and its symbols and towards the **national identity**. The large majority of students would not want to live permanently in another country. In most participating countries, the average young person has a sense of patriotism and of trust or attachment to the country as a political community or to government institutions (or to both). In England students have relatively less positive attitudes towards their country or nation compared to those in other countries, although boys have more positive attitudes about national identity than girls.

Regarding **international relations**, young people in England support the need to defend the political independence of the UK from threats from other countries and to maintain the UK's traditions and cultures.

Fourteen-year-olds in the study, including those in England, are largely supportive of **women's political and economic rights**. Students in England have one of the highest scores among participating countries regarding support for women's political and economic rights. Support for women's political rights tends to be stronger in countries that have many women in the national government than in those where there are few women in these positions. Girls are much more likely to be supportive of women's rights than boys in all countries. This is the most substantial gender difference found in the study. England is one of the countries where the gender difference is especially large. However, it is important to note that overall support is high for this measure across participating countries. Boys in England are more supportive of women's political and economic rights than boys in most other participating countries. The same applies for girls in England compared to those in other countries.

Fourteen-year-olds in the study are generally positive about **immigrants'** rights, and especially believe they should have equal educational opportunities (the term 'immigrant' was not defined in the questionnaire, and thus students responded according to their own perceived meaning of the term). The majority of young people

also support the right of immigrants to vote and to retain their language and culture. In virtually all countries, girls have more positive attitudes to immigrants than boys. Students in England have relatively less positive attitudes towards immigrants than in some other countries. It should be noted that, even in the lowest scoring countries, the mean scores on this scale do not indicate negative attitudes among the majority of respondents. However, there are a minority of students in all countries, including in England, with especially negative attitudes towards the rights of immigrants and women. These are of particular concern when their attitudes are discriminatory and contrary to the law.

♦ **Attitudes to Civic Engagement and Participation in Political Activities**

At age 14, young people have only a moderate **interest in politics** in most countries. Only one-quarter of the students in England agreed or strongly agreed with the statement in the survey: 'I am interested in politics.' In the majority of countries, including England, girls were less interested in politics than boys.

Students in England were most likely to participate in **discussions about politics** with family members, rather than teachers or people of their own age. However, overall the majority of students in England were involved in little or no discussion of political issues at home, at school or with their peers. Young people in England have few opportunities to experience political discussions. This lack of opportunities may have a detrimental effect on students' knowledge, attitudes and engagement with the political process.

Voting in national elections is by far the most **preferred intended conventional political activity** of 14-year-old students. A majority of students in the study expressed a readiness to vote as adults. In England over two-thirds of students said they would vote in general elections. However, it should be remembered that the intention to vote, or not to vote, assessed at age 14, is not necessarily a predictor of future voting behaviour. Collecting money for a social cause (charity work) ranked as the second most likely political activity in which young people would participate. This was preferred by more girls than boys in most countries, including England.

A majority, approximately four-fifths of 14-year-olds in all countries, including England, do not **intend to participate** in conventional political activities, such as joining a political party, writing letters to newspapers about social and political concerns, and being a candidate for a local or municipal office. England was one of the countries below the international mean on the conventional participation scale.

Participation in **non-violent protests and illegal protest activities** varies across countries. In England the percentage of students likely to engage in these activities was low compared to most other countries, with only one-third expecting to participate in non-violent demonstrations. Only a minority of students in all countries – mainly boys – claimed that they were likely to engage in illegal protest activities such as spray-painting slogans on walls, blocking traffic and occupying buildings.

- **Civic Engagement in Classrooms, Schools and Youth Organisations**

Young people are generally **confident in the effectiveness of school participation**. Fourteen-year-olds generally believe that groups of students working together in school can enhance the school and help to solve problems that may arise. The large majority of students across countries have had some positive experience with students getting together at school, in either formal or informal groups, to solve problems and improve the school. Young people daily experience the school as a social and political system. Solving problems that arise there in interaction with others can foster a sense of membership of, and participation in, this community.

Confidence that participation at school can make a difference is valuable in itself and may influence the willingness of young people to participate in political activities as adults. Schools are environments that are part of the everyday lives and experiences of young people. They throw up problems that matter to students and provide opportunities for young people to take part in 'real' rather than 'anticipated' actions. This sense of '*school efficacy*' (of improving things in school) was identified in the study and may be as important a factor in future political behaviour as the broader sense of '*political efficacy*' (the relationship between citizens and the national government) that has frequently been measured in research on citizenship education.

Schools are places where students across countries believe that they learn to understand people and to cooperate in groups. These are vitally important learning goals. However, 14-year-olds perceive that schools do not place much emphasis on teaching about the importance of voting in local and national elections. Students also have few **opportunities to learn** about the kinds of conflict that lead to differing political positions and to the debate and discussion that surrounds election campaigns. This raises the concern that if schools do not explicitly promote this basic level of electoral understanding and participation, then this may affect the future commitment of students to participate in the political system.

Across all countries, about one-quarter of the students say that they are often encouraged to voice their opinions during discussions in their **classrooms**. In the majority of countries, including England, girls more than boys perceive that their classrooms are open to discussion. Those countries that have experienced considerable changes in civic or citizenship education in the past ten years appear to have a less open classroom climate for discussion. Attention in those countries has been focused on including content and training new teachers rather than on fostering classroom climate. The current citizenship initiative in England needs to be aware of this trend.

- **Teachers' Attitudes Towards Citizenship**

There was consensus among teachers that citizenship education is important for students, that schools have a strong role to play and that citizenship education should be part of the **formal curriculum**. However, there was no strong sentiment that it should be a separate subject, but rather that it should be **integrated with other social subjects.**

In England, although teachers came from a variety of subject backgrounds, they felt quite confident about teaching citizenship education. **Confidence levels** among teachers were higher in England than the international average, despite reporting a need for training in subject-matter knowledge. However, the perceived importance of some topics still outweighed teachers' confidence in teaching them.

Teachers ranked **training** on subject-matter and **better materials** as top priorities for future development in the area of citizenship education. Overall, the majority of countries mentioned three priorities – the need for better materials, more teaching time and increased training regarding subject-matter.

Teachers in the study used a wide variety of **sources** when planning for citizenship education, including external and internal as well as official sources. In England teachers reported that media and self-produced materials were the most frequently used sources. Official curriculum documents and textbooks were drawn upon but less frequently. Citizenship education is most often taught through teacher-led approaches, such as the use of textbooks and worksheets and teacher talk, though teachers also report some use of classroom discussion of controversial issues.

The most frequently adopted form of **student assessment** in citizenship education in England was verbal responses from students in class. In most other countries, a combination of written essays and oral participation was favoured. Because standardisation of assessment within countries was not very high, teachers had freedom to choose the most appropriate ways of assessing students.

♦ Making Connections

The interrelationship between civic knowledge and civic participation
The findings show that the more **civic knowledge** young people acquire, the more likely they are to use this knowledge to exercise their right of **participation** as an adult citizen, namely to vote. In most countries, including England, **civic knowledge** was the most powerful predictor of intended civic participation as adults. Open climates for discussion in the classroom had a **positive** effect on both civic knowledge and intention to vote in three-quarters of countries, including England. Students from homes with more books, and those who watched television news programmes, had higher civic knowledge scores in a number of countries, including England.

Schools, teachers and students
Analysis of the small number of questions which were repeated in the school, teacher and student surveys reveal that these groups have noticeably different **perceptions and experiences** in relation to citizenship education. Students were much less positive about their experiences than teachers, and teachers were less positive than headteachers. There is consensus, though, that citizenship education should be taught in schools and integrated into other subjects. There is a gap between the extent of opportunities offered to students to participate in civic-related activities and organisations and the level of take-up.

♦ Conclusions and Recommendations

Students in most countries, including England, have an understanding of fundamental democratic values and institutions, but **depth of understanding** is an issue. Students

with most civic knowledge are most likely to expect to participate in political and civic activities. Overall, there is **scepticism** among students about traditional forms of political engagement other than voting. They are more open to other forms of involvement in civic life, such as collecting money for a social cause or participating in non-violent protests. However, it is likely that schools and community organisations have **untapped potential** to influence positively the civic preparation of young people. Teachers recognise the importance of citizenship education in preparing young people for citizenship and feel that schools have a strong role to play. Importantly, students' attitudes fit with the notion of the growth of a '**new civic culture**',[2] characterised by less hierarchy and more individual decision-making.

The main recommendations from England's participation in the study concern the need to:

♦ make the study's conclusions and recommendations available as widely as possible. A series of **broadsheets aimed at particular audiences**, including policy-makers, headteachers, teachers, young people, teacher educators, community representatives and researchers, are available.

♦ prioritise **teacher education and training programmes** in citizenship education, for both existing and new teachers, in order to develop the school and classroom practices which underpin effective citizenship education.

♦ make greater use of the **untapped potential** that schools and communities have to develop students' civic knowledge and engagement in civic and political life.

♦ **work in partnership** with all those interested and involved in citizenship education, including young people, in order to share experiences and promote good practice.

♦ use the study's findings as a **baseline** for informed decision-making concerning policy, practice and research in citizenship education.

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[2] This notion of a 'new civic culture' was picked up in the literature review which accompanied Phases 1 and 2 of the study. A number of recent studies by political scientists have identified this cultural change see particularly Dalton (2000) and Clark and Hoffman-Martinot (1998). There is considerable evidence in the study to reinforce such a cultural change.

1. BACKGROUND, AIMS AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

England was one of 28 countries that participated in the two-phase International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study (known as the Citizenship Education Study in England).[3] The study is the largest of its kind ever undertaken involving 90,000 14-year-olds, as well as teachers and headteachers. It builds from the first IEA study on civic or citizenship education which was undertaken in 1971 (Torney *et al.*, 1975). The findings at international and national levels have important implications for policy, practice and research in citizenship education. They can be used to inform policy-makers, headteachers, teachers, community representatives, parents and others who are concerned about ensuring the development of effective citizenship education for all young people both in schools and in communities.

England's participation in Phase 1 of the study was funded jointly by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). Participation in Phase 2 was funded by the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), now the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). The National Research Coordinator (NRC) for England, for both phases, was located at NFER.

Although the study aims to provide international comparisons, the data collected have also enabled detailed national analyses to be carried out. This report focuses primarily on detailed analyses that have been carried out on the Phase 2 national dataset for England. It presents the results and main findings from England's participation in Phase 2 of the study. However, comparisons are made throughout to England's results within the context of the international findings from Phase 2. An international report of the Phase 2 results for all participating countries, entitled *Citizenship and Education in Twenty-eight Countries: Civic Knowledge and Engagement at Age Fourteen* (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001), was released in March 2001. A summary of the international findings, and preliminary results of England, from Phase 2 was also released in England at the same time (Kerr *et al.*, 2000).

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[3] This is in line with the current initiative in citizenship education in England, which has led to the introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory National Curriculum subject for students age 11 to 16 in schools from September 2002 (Crick Report, 1998; QCA, 1999). It was felt it would be confusing to those with an interest in this area in England to refer to civic education. This might diminish the impact of the study's findings, particularly for teachers and schools.

This introductory chapter sets the scene for the rest of the national report. It begins by examining the background and aims of both phases of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, and the reasons for England's participation. It then sets out the framework for the study, including the instrument design, testing and analysis plans for Phase 2. The chapter concludes with a brief description of the structure of this national report.

1.2   Background and Aims of the Study

Recent rapid changes in the social, political and economic order have raised many questions about how best to prepare young people for their roles and responsibilities as adult citizens in modern democratic societies. England is no exception to this trend. There have been growing concerns, in many countries, about the declining rates of participation of young people in civic and political activities, such as voting. Concerns have been expressed, in particular, about the decreasing number of young people who are engaging with the formal and informal groups in communities which make up 'civil society'.

Concerns have been raised not only about the engagement and participation of young people, but also about their levels of knowledge, understanding and skills concerning civil and political matters. Some countries have detected gaps in the knowledge and understanding of students about both the concept of democracy and the main political and democratic institutions in society. Other countries have begun to question the skills levels of young people and their ability, in particular, to analyse political issues and information presented to them by the mass media.

These issues have led many countries to review and rethink their approaches to citizenship education in both formal and informal settings. This review process has raised questions across countries about the direction that citizenship education should take. These have focused, in particular, on the contribution that schools and teachers can make in developing the civic knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes of young people. This has led to further questions about the relationship of schools with other influences on young people in this area, notably parents, peers and community representatives.

However, it soon became clear that there were insufficient, up-to-date, empirical cross-national data about citizenship education, to enable many of these questions to be answered. The only major cross-national study of this area had been conducted by IEA nearly 30 years ago and had involved only nine countries (Torney *et al.,* 1975). England did not participate in the first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971.

The current IEA Civic Education Study was begun in 1994 in response to this gap in empirical data, both within and across countries. The issues and questions raised by countries across the world about citizenship education have informed the design and conduct of this study.

The main goal of the study is to identify and examine in a comparative framework the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their role as citizens in democracies. One focus of the study is on **schools**, and a second is on opportunities for **civic participation outside the school**, especially in the **community**. The school focus is not limited just to the formal taught curriculum, but also investigates opportunities for discussion in classrooms and students' participation in school life. A primary purpose of the study is to obtain a clearer picture of how young people are initiated into the political communities of which they are members, including both in and out-of-school experiences. Though the study concentrates on political processes and institutions, the concept 'political' is used in a broad sense and is not limited to formal political organisations and legislative structures.

The study focuses on three particular dimensions of citizenship:

- *civic knowledge* (including civic content knowledge and civic skills)
- *civic concepts and attitudes*
- *civic engagement and participation*.

No research study can provide answers to all the questions raised by countries about young people's development of these dimensions. However, it is clear that rigorous cross-national research in citizenship education can play a major role in the creation of a strong empirical foundation for this area. This foundation can assist those involved in decision-making about citizenship education, whether policy-makers, practitioners or researchers.

Indeed, it is the intention that the results of the study, both at national and crossnational levels, will inform and stimulate discussion among policy makers, curriculum developers, teachers, teachers' educators, researchers and the general public about citizenship education. This is particularly important in the context of England. The recent policy initiative in this area has resulted in the introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory National Curriculum subject for students aged 11 to 16 in secondary schools from September 2002 (Crick Report, 1998; QCA, 1999). Chapters 10 and 11, entitled 'Making Connections' and 'Conclusions and Recommendations' respectively, are deliberately designed to stimulate discussion

about England's results in the study and their implications for the direction of the current citizenship education initiative.

1.3   The Participating Countries

Twenty-eight countries participated in Phase 2 of the IEA Citizenship Education Study (listed below).   Approximately two-thirds of the countries joined at the beginning of Phase 1 of the study.   The other third, including England, joined the study during the conduct of Phase 1. All participating countries can be classified as liberal or electoral democracies. The age at which people can vote for the first time is 18 in all the countries involved in the study.   It is interesting to note that a considerable number of participating countries are from Europe.   This opens up the possibility of further cross-European analysis of the findings from these countries at a later date.

Countries participating in the IEA Citizenship Education Study

• Australia	• Hungary
• Belgium (French)*	• Italy
• Bulgaria	• Latvia
• Chile	• Lithuania
• Colombia	• Norway
• Cyprus	• Poland
• Czech Republic	• Portugal
• Denmark	• Romania
• England	• Russian Federation
• Estonia	• Slovak Republic
• Finland	• Slovenia
• Germany	• Sweden
• Greece	• Switzerland
• Hong Kong (SAR)**	• United States of America

*   Only the French educational system in Belgium participated.
** Special Administrative Region of China.

1.4 England's Participation in the Study

Unlike other countries involved in the study, England did not have civic or citizenship education as a formal part of the school curriculum at the time of participation. As has already been mentioned, citizenship education is now to be introduced formally in secondary schools from September 2002, as part of the revised National Curriculum. However, at the time of Phase 2 testing in schools, the details of these proposals were not common knowledge to students, teachers or headteachers in England. This factor must be taken into account when comparing the results for 14-year-olds and the responses from teachers in England with those in other participating countries. All other countries have a much longer tradition of civic or citizenship education in the school curriculum. This may have given 14-year-olds in some participating countries an advantage over their counterparts in England, particularly in the test of civic knowledge. Students in some countries may have already been taught about some of the civic and political topics addressed in the cognitive test of civic knowledge, as part of the formal school curriculum.

The main reason for England's participation in the study was to understand more about the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their role as citizens in modern society. This understanding is important in informing the progress and direction of the current initiative in citizenship education in England. This began in 1997, which is why England had a delayed entry into Phase 1 of the study. The primary purpose of participation in Phase 1 was to learn from citizenship education developments in schools and in communities in other countries. The main aim of Phase 2 participation was to obtain a clearer picture about the level of civic knowledge, skills, understanding of concepts and attitudes and intended participation actions of young people in England. It was hoped that the Phase 2 findings could be used to inform the progress and direction of the citizenship education initiative, particularly in relation to schools, teachers and classroom practice. England's participation in the study also provides a useful baseline of information and empirical data prior to the formal introduction of citizenship into schools in 2002.

1.5 The Two Phases of the IEA Citizenship Education Study

As discussed above, the IEA study was developed in response to a considerable gap in knowledge regarding what civic or citizenship education meant in many countries. This gap influenced the design of the study. It was considered important to begin with a more qualitative, in-depth case-study component (Phase 1) and follow this with a quantitative test and survey (Phase 2).

In Phase 1, the qualitative phase, each of the 24 participating countries (including England) completed a national case study of civic or citizenship education developments. National Research Coordinators (NRCs) were responsible for qualitative research to respond to the original 18 framing questions which provided information on the background, content and policy relevant to citizenship education in the country, along with a wealth of other contextual information. The original 18 policy-relevant framing questions were reduced to 12 in the study's international report (see Appendix 1 for a full description of these 12 questions). Each national case study also drew together the views of experts in the country about what 14-year-olds should know about a number of core political and civic topics related to democracy and its institutions, national identity and respect for social cohesion and diversity. The Phase 1 national case studies, including the one for England, have been published in a comparative volume (Torney-Purta *et al.,* 1999; Kerr, 1999a). A second volume, offering further cross-national analysis of the case-study material, is soon to be published (Kerr, 2002; Steiner-Khamsi *et al.*, 2002). A fuller version of the national case study for England has also been published separately by NFER (Kerr, 1999b).

In Phase 2, each participating country **tested** and **surveyed** a nationally representative sample of 14-year-olds about their knowledge of civic-related content, their skills in understanding civic-related materials (***civic knowledge***), their concepts of and attitudes towards citizenship issues (***civic concepts and attitudes***), and their actual participation (***civic engagement and participation***). Fourteen-year-olds were chosen because it is a standard IEA target population, which was also sampled in the first IEA Civic Education Study conducted in 1971. Furthermore, if an older age group had been selected, in a number of participating countries many young people would have completed their secondary education, thus leaving a smaller number of students available for the sample. An exploration of how the students were sampled is given in Section 1.7.3, below.

A **teacher questionnaire** and a **school questionnaire** were also included in Phase 2, in order to put the responses from the **student test** and **survey** into broader context. The **teacher questionnaire** comprised background information about the teachers, as well as questions about their attitudes, views and approaches to teaching, learning and assessment in citizenship education. The teacher questionnaire was completed by three teachers in each participating school, drawn from citizenship-related subjects. In England, teachers of history, PSHE (personal, social and health education) and business studies were chosen. Background information from the teacher

questionnaire is reviewed in Chapter 3 and the attitudes and views of teachers are described in detail in Chapter 9. The **school questionnaire** gathered general information about the context of the school. It also sought to determine the school's approach to citizenship education in terms of curriculum models, in and out of school activities and involvement of teachers. The school questionnaire was completed by the headteacher in each participating school. Background information from the school questionnaire is included in Chapter 3. Chapter 11 compares the attitudes of headteachers with those of students and teachers on similar issues.

It is important to note that the Phase 2 test and survey instruments drew heavily upon material from Phase 1. Indeed the national and cross-national findings from Phase 2 should be read in conjunction with those from Phase 1. The Phase 2 instruments were also reviewed extensively by international experts and the study's NRC over a five-year period, and subjected to rigorous pre-piloting and pilot testing before final decisions were made. Further discussion on instrument development and design can be found in the next section and also in Appendix 2. Most Northern hemisphere countries administered the test and surveys in schools between March and June 1999, while Southern hemisphere countries administered them between August and October 1999. However, in England, Sweden and the USA, for various administrative reasons, the test and surveys were administered in schools in Autumn 1999.

1.6 Design of the IEA Citizenship Education Study Framework

The design of both phases of the IEA Citizenship Education Study was guided by an overall model developed by the study's International Steering Group (ISG) in consultation with the NRC in each participating country. This model provides a framework for organising and analysing the qualitative information (Phase 1) and quantitative data (Phase 2) collected in both phases of the study. The model, known as the '**Octagon**' and illustrated in Figure 1.1, shows how the context of young people's everyday lives, such as participation in activities in the home and at school, and their interaction with their family and peers, contributes to their political knowledge, understanding, thinking, engagement and participation. The model is based on the notion of 'nested communities of discourse and practice' such as communities around school, family, peer group, community representatives and organisations. It is within these 'nested communities' that young people develop their thinking and behaviours. The model has it roots in two contemporary psychological theories – ecological development (Bronfenbrenner, 1998) and situated cognition (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Figure 1.1   Model for the IEA Citizenship Education Study
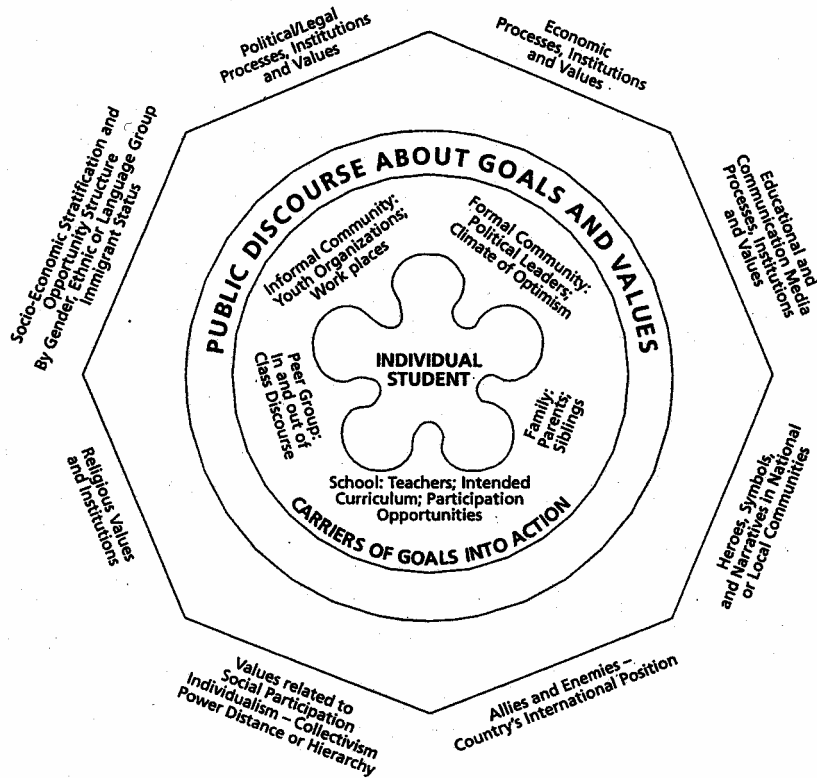
Source: TORNEY-PURTA *et al.,* (2001).

The individual student is at the heart of the Octagon. The student is influenced and socialised by others in society, such as family, peers, teachers, and those in both formal and informal community organisations. Broader influences come from political, economic and legal institutions and processes. Socio-economic factors and personal characteristics, such as gender, ethnicity and religion, will also have an impact on how an individual student interacts with the rest of society. Other broader elements of society include the mass media, a country's international position and symbols which are important at a national or local level. A student will have varying degrees of engagement with the different aspects of society illustrated in the model, although each of these is likely to contribute to the development of personal identity. The model accepts that young people do not only learn from their teachers in schools, but that their political understanding can also be influenced by others in society, particularly their peers. The model applies to all countries participating in the IEA Citizenship Education Study, and represents a framework for organising the information collected in both phases.

In addition to the Octagon model, a list of 18 policy-relevant framing questions was also developed in consultation with the NRCs at the start of Phase 1. The main purpose of these questions was to focus the study on the key issues that were of relevance to policy-makers, teachers, teacher educators, researchers, community representatives and others with an interest in citizenship education. These questions guided the conduct and scope of Phase 1. The responses of the NRCs and national experts to these questions were used to set the limits for the focus of the study. They helped, in particular, to identify the three core international domains which are at the heart of the study, and which formed the basis for the development of the Phase 2 instruments.

The original list of 18 questions was merged into 12 questions in the international report for Phase 2 (Torney-Purta *et al*., 2001) in order to show more clearly the links between the questions and the Phase 2 findings. These 12 policy-relevant questions are outlined in Appendix 1, including where there are links to particular chapters in this report. It is worth considering, when reading this national report, the extent to which the Phase 2 findings in England provide answers to these framing questions. The core international domains and their impact on instrument design are considered in the next section.

1.7   The Design of the Phase 2 Research Instruments

The process of designing the research instruments for the study was complex, given the need to develop questions which were valid across 28 countries. As a consequence, the process was founded on cross-national cooperation and consensus. The intention was not to identify and promote a single best approach to citizenship education in democratic countries, but rather to reflect a range of views about what is important in citizenship education across countries. Questions and items were therefore designed to be universal across countries rather than to be country-specific. It was not the aim, for example, to measure the civic knowledge of students in England about Parliament, but rather to ascertain the level of knowledge and understanding of young people across countries about the key principles of government in a democratic society. The topic areas covered and the actual questions asked were agreed upon among countries after a comprehensive and lengthy process of consultation. Appendix 2 provides detailed information about instrument design.

Following consultation on the findings from Phase 1 between the study's ISG and the NRCs, three '**core international domains**' were identified that all participating countries believed 14-year-olds should understand. These were:

Domain 1   –   **Democracy and Democratic Institutions**
                           What does democracy mean and what are its associated institutions and practices? There were three associated sub-domains:

- democracy and its defining characteristics
- institutions and practices of democracy
- citizenship – rights and duties.

Domain 2   –   **National Identity, Regional and International Relationships**
                           What do young people understand national identity to be and how is it related to other relationships at regional and international level? There were two associated sub-domains:

- national identity
- international and regional relations.

Domain 3   –   **Social Cohesion and Diversity**
                           What do such issues mean to young people and how do they view discrimination?

These three core international domains were used to generate a series of statements of what 14-year-olds might know and believe about these three domains. The statements provided the guidelines for defining the types of items that were to be included in the instruments for Phase 2 of the study. Five types of items were developed for the Phase 2 student civic knowledge test and survey. These were:

Type 1:   Civic content items – Assessing **knowledge** of civic content.

Type 2:   Civic skills items – Assessing **skills** of interpretation of material with civic or political content (including short text passages and cartoons).

Type 3:   Survey items – Assessing how students **understand concepts** such as democracy and citizenship.

Type 4:   Survey items – Assessing students' **attitudes** (such as trust in institutions and attitudes to groups in society).

Type 5:   Survey items – Assessing students' current and expected **engagement or participatory actions** relating to politics (e.g. intention to vote and helping community groups).

Types 1 and 2 formed the student test of civic knowledge, based on multiple-choice items which required the identification of the correct answers. Types 3 – 5 formed the student survey, which did not have correct answers. Additional survey items were also developed which gauged students' perceptions of classroom climate and other

school factors. Interweaving the three core international domains with the item types produces the matrix illustrated in Table 1.1. This matrix served as a framework for the development of the Phase 2 student test and survey. Appendix 2 provides further details about the design and piloting process which led to the final research instrument.

Table 1.1   Framework for the research instrument design

Domain	Test		Survey		
	Type 1	**Type 2**	**Type 3**	**Type 4**	**Type 5**
I Democracy and democratic institutions					
II National identity and international relations					
III Social cohesion and diversity					

Source: IEA Citizenship Education Study

1.7.1 The final research instruments

Following extensive pre-pilot and pilot testing over a five-year period across participating countries, agreement was reached on the final research instruments. The Phase 2 student test and survey comprised three instruments which were designed to take students approximately two class periods (45 minutes each period) to complete. The three instruments included the following:

♦ **Part One** (the test) included 38 questions involving Types 1 and 2 cognitive items – a test of *civic knowledge*. There were 25 civic content (Type 1) items and 13 civic skills (Type 2) items. Each question had four possible answers, of which one was correct.

♦ **Part Two** obtained background information about the students and asked about perceptions of classroom climate and confidence in school participation.

♦ **Part Three** (the survey) comprised statements based on Types 3, 4 and 5 items – a survey of *civic concepts, attitudes, engagement and participation*. Each series of questions had a four-point response scale, e.g. ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. All scales included a 'don't know' category and there was no right or wrong answer.

Examples of the civic content (Type 1) and civic skills (Type 2) items that were included in the Part One test of civic knowledge are shown in Appendix 2. The teacher and school questionnaires also included questions relating to the three core international domains along with background questions about the qualifications and

experience of teachers and the characteristics of the school context. Connections between the student, teacher and school instruments are discussed in Chapter 10.

1.7.2 Piloting the research instruments

In order to gauge the appropriateness of the Phase 2 instruments and to fine tune the administration process, in schools, a pilot study was conducted in England. Part of the pilot involved adjusting the language of items and questions, where appropriate, so as to ensure that students in England could understand them. These adjustments were minimal and were done with the agreement of the study's International Steering Group so as to ensure that valid international comparisons could still be made.

Twenty-one schools with Year 10 students, sampled randomly from maintained and independent schools in England, took part in the pilot study, which involved just under 400 students. The combined results informed the shape of the final instruments and their administration in schools in England.

1.7.3 The school, teacher and student samples

In England, a representative sample of 3,043 14-year-olds, in Year 10, drawn from 128 schools, participated in Phase 2 of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, thus meeting IEA requirements concerning sampling and participation rates. Further details about the students who participated in England can be found in Chapter 3. In addition, 348 teachers completed a teacher questionnaire and 118 headteachers completed a school questionnaire. Background information about the teachers and headteachers in England is contained in Chapter 3. The teacher data is examined in detail in Chapter 9. Meanwhile, connections between the student, teacher and school data are explored in Chapter 10.

In order to ensure consistency across all the different countries participating in the study, procedures for sampling were tightly defined by the study's School Sampling Manual. NRCs were required to oversee the sampling procedures and to report them to the IEA Data Processing Centre (DPC) in Hamburg for approval.

The DPC gave details of the target population, the grade structure of primary education, the exclusion of special schools and small schools from the target population and the minimum cluster size (MCS) for the sampling. The latter corresponded to the average class size for Year 10 (25). Stratification of the secondary schools population by school performance measures (GCSE outcomes) and school type was also outlined. Data to comply with the DPC's criteria was obtained

from the NFER's comprehensive Register of Schools, which incorporated Form 7 data supplied by the DfEE (now DfES).

Once approval of the sampling plans had been received from the DPC, a sample of schools could be drawn. A list of schools in the target population was drawn up, with their measure of size (MOS) – this was the number of Year 10 students in each school. Schools were sorted within strata by MOS, in alternately ascending and descending order. The requirement was then to pick 150 first-choice schools, which was done in such a way that the probability of a school being selected was proportional to its MOS (this ensures that students in large and small schools have equal probabilities of being surveyed). In addition to these first-choice schools, 150 second- and third-choice schools in adjacent positions in the list were also selected. The principle of IEA sampling is that first-choice schools are contacted, and only after one of these has refused to take part is the corresponding second-choice school (and, ultimately, third-choice school) contacted. Data from 129 schools were sent to the DPC. This is 86 per cent of sampled schools, just over the required limit of 85 per cent. Further information on the sampling procedure is given in Appendix 3.

1.8　Analysing and Interpreting the Results

Analysis of the data, including setting up of the international database of results, was the responsibility of the IEA Data Processing Centre in Hamburg (DPC). The datasets were submitted in a standard format to the DPC, where they were carefully checked prior to analysis. Any queries regarding the data were referred to the NRCs in the participating countries for clarification. When the data were fully cleaned, the DPC computed the weights that were to be applied, according to an approved sampling design that had already been agreed.

Data analysis included confirmatory factor analysis, to confirm or re-specify the dimensional structure of the instruments. Item response theory (IRT) scaling methods were used for both the multiple-choice and categorical items. The scale scores for the cognitive test were set at 100, with a standard deviation of 20. For the survey questions, the scale scores were set at ten, with a standard deviation of two.

IRT scaling was used as it could provide a common scale that fitted all countries. It also allowed for items to be excluded for individual countries if they did not fit the model, without compromising the overall comparability of the scale. IRT scaling also enables estimates of missing values to be made, thus overcoming difficulties with incomplete data.

When analysis was complete, the DPC sent their own data to individual countries, together with the aggregated data from all 28 countries in the study. Each country was then able to carry out further analysis, if they so wished.

England's results and the international dataset were both subjected to a range of further analyses by the research team at NFER.[4] These included factor analyses of the student and teacher data to derive additional factors, some of which were specific to the students and staff in schools in England. Cross-tabulations of background variables from the student, teacher and school data also provided further insights.

Two multilevel analyses were carried out on the data, as follows:

♦ On the internationally derived scales for students' cognitive outcomes and attitudes, along with teacher and school attitude information and student, teacher and school background information.

♦ On the nationally derived scales for students' attitudes, along with teacher and school attitude information and student, teacher and school background information.

The additional analysis carried out on the results for England is a rich source of data which has scarcely been tapped. It is envisaged that further work will be done in the future to draw out other lessons from the study. The methods of statistical analysis are further described in a separate technical appendix. (This appendix is available from NFER on request)

1.9 Structure of the Report

The overall structure of this national report for England follows that of the study's international report (Torney-Purta *et al*., 2001). This will assist those interested in making connections between the two. The structure of the international report and, in turn, of this report, is itself guided by the study's instruments and its main focus of the study, namely the students. The bulk of this report is taken up with an examination of the *civic knowledge*, *concepts*, *attitudes*, *participation and engagement* of 14-year-olds in England, in that order.

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[4] It should be noted that the international analysis of the student data was based on the valid percentage (i.e. omitting non-respondents) of those students who answered each question. The national analysis, upon which this report is founded, was based on a total percentage of all those students who answered each question. This difference in approach explains the slight variation between the statistics in the international report for students in England and those in this national report.

This introductory chapter is followed, in Chapter 2, by a snapshot of the results of the students from England who participated in the study, set within the context of the overall international findings. Chapter 3 provides background information about the students, teachers and schools involved in the study in England. This information can be used to enrich the findings in the other chapters in this national report. Chapter 4 discusses the results of the students in England on the test of civic knowledge, both civic content knowledge and civic skills of interpretation. It is followed in the next four chapters by a consideration of students' responses to the survey.

Chapter 5 explores students' attitudes to civic concepts and civic attitudes, in relation to the first core international domain – *democracy and democratic institutions*. It concentrates, in particular, on the attitudes of students to the concepts of democracy, citizenship and government. In Chapter 6 students' attitudes to key civic institutions and groups in society are considered. They include trust in government and government-related institutions, attitudes to the country or nation, as well as to women's political and economic rights and thoughts of immigrants. These institutions and groups relate to all three core international domains of *democracy and democratic institutions, national identity and international relations* and *social cohesion and diversity*. Chapter 7 focuses on a discussion of students' attitudes to civic engagement and participation in political activities. It focuses too on student interaction in politics, their exposure to and use of the mass media and the extent to which they are involved in discussion and participate in political action. In Chapter 8 attention is turned to students' attitudes and experiences of citizenship education in schools and the wider community, with consideration of students' views of opportunities for civic engagement in schools, classrooms and community organisations.

Chapter 9 changes the focus from the students to their teachers. It explores the attitudes and approaches of teachers in England to citizenship education, as well as their confidence levels in teaching citizenship topics. The chapter draws attention to a number of instances where comparisons can be made between teacher and student responses to similar questions and items. Though the teacher data cannot be used directly to explain findings about student learning and experiences, they can be useful in providing a broader context within which those findings can be viewed.

The final two chapters seek to draw together the differing aspects and findings from the study, as explored in the preceding chapters. Chapter 10 highlights the importance of making connections between the dimensions, practices and contexts of

citizenship education. It begins by setting out a number of fundamental connections which are built into the design of the IEA Citizenship Education Study. It focuses on four particular connections: those built into the design of the Phase 2 instruments; those made in the study's international report (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001); those made at national level through the multilevel analysis carried out by the NFER research team; and those between the conduct of the study and the changing context of citizenship education in England. This provides a natural link to the final chapter, Chapter 11, which is entitled 'Conclusions and Recommendations'. This chapter, as the title suggests, draws together the main conclusions from the study, at both national and international levels. It then attempts to turn those conclusions into a number of recommendations concerning the conduct of policy, practice and research in citizenship education in England. It is hoped that these conclusions and recommendations will have a considerable impact on the progress and direction of the current citizenship education initiative in schools and communities. The report also includes an executive summary.

## 2.	ENGLAND'S RESULTS IN THE IEA CITIZENSHIP STUDY: A SUMMARY

### 2.1	Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the English study, detailing findings from the student questionnaire. These results are set within the context of the international findings from Phase 2 of the study (Torney-Purta *et al*., 2001).   This enables England's results to be viewed within the broader context of those from the other 27 participating countries.

This summary includes England's results on all the dimensions of citizenship addressed by both the student test, relating to *civic knowledge* (both civic content knowledge and civic skills), and the student survey, relating to *civic concepts and attitudes*, as well as *civic engagement and participation*. These results are considered in more detail in the chapters of this national report that follow. Chapter 4 explores the results from students in England on the test of civic knowledge. Meanwhile, Chapters 5 to 8 examine the findings in England from the student survey.

### 2.2	International Findings

The Phase 2 research instruments for students, as outlined in Chapter 1, were administered to a nationally representative sample of 14-year-olds in each of the 28 participating countries. This provided an overall sample of nearly 90,000 students across the study, including 3,043 14-year-olds from England. The same instruments were used across all 28 countries, except for minor changes in each country made so that the instruments fitted the social, cultural and political context. It is possible, therefore, to make meaningful comparisons between the results of students from England and those from the other participating countries.

### 2.3	Summary of the Comparative Results for England on the Test of Civic Knowledge

The results of the students from England on the test of civic knowledge, both civic content knowledge and civic skills, have been compared with the test performance of students from the other participating countries. Table 2.1 shows the results from all countries on the test of civic knowledge.

Table 2.1

Distributions of Civic Knowledge

Country	Mean Scale Score			Testing Date	Tested grade*	Mean Age**	Cognitive Civic Competence Scale Score
Poland	?	111	(1.7)	5/99 - 6/99	8	15.0	
Finland	?	109	(0.7)	4/99	8	14.8	
Cyprus	?	108	(0.5)	5/99	9	14.8	
Greece	?	108	(0.8)	3/99 - 6/99	9	14.7	
Hong Kong (SAR)[3]	?	107	(1.1)	6/99 - 7/99	9	15.3	
United States[1]	?	106	(1.2)	10/99	9	14.7	
Italy	?	105	(0.8)	4/99 - 5/99	9	15.0	
Slovak Republic	?	105	(0.7)	5/99 - 6/99	8	14.3	
Norway[4]	?	103	(0.5)	4/99 - 6/99	8	14.8	
Czech Republic	?	103	(0.8)	4/99 - 5/99	8	14.4	
Australia	+	102	(0.8)	8/99	9	14.6	
Hungary	+	102	(0.6)	3/99	8	14.4	
Slovenia	+	101	(0.5)	4/99	8	14.8	
Denmark[4]	+	100	(0.5)	4/99	8	14.8	
International sample	+	100	(0.2)	3/99 - 12/99	8/9	14.7	
Germany[2]	+	100	(0.5)	4/99 - 7/99	8	n.a.	
Russian Federation[3]	+	100	(1.3)	4/99 - 5/99	9	15.1	
England[1]	+	99	(0.6)	11/99	10	14.7	
Sweden[1]	+	99	(0.8)	10/99 - 12/99	8	14.3	
Switzerland	+	98	(0.8)	4/99 - 7/99	8/9	15.0	
Bulgaria	+	98	(1.3)	5/99 - 6/99	8	14.9	
Portugal[5]	👢	96	(0.7)	4/99	8	14.5	
Belgium (French)[4]	👢	95	(0.9)	3/99 - 4/99	8	14.1	
Estonia	👢	94	(0.5)	4/99	8	14.7	
Lithuania	👢	94	(0.7)	5/99	8	14.8	
Romania	👢	92	(0.9)	5/99	8	14.8	
Latvia	👢	92	(0.9)	4/99 - 5/99	8	14.5	
Chile	👢	88	(0.7)	10/99	8	14.3	
Colombia	👢	86	(0.9)	4/99 and 10/99	8	14.6	

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.

?	Country mean significantly higher than international mean.

+	No statistically significant difference between country mean and international mean.

👢	Country mean significantly lower than international mean.

Percentiles of Performance

5th 25th 75th 95th

Mean and Confidence Interval
(±2SE)

[1] Countries with testing date at beginning of school year.

[2] National Desired Population does not cover all International Desired Population.

[3] Countries did not meet age/grade specification.

[4] Countries' overall participation rate after replacement less than 85 percent.

[5] In Portugal grade 8 selected instead of grade 9 due to average age. Mean scale score for grade 9 was 106.

* In Switzerland grade 8 was tested mainly in German cantons, grade 9 mainly in French and Italian cantons. In Russia students in grade 9 have 8 or 9 years of schooling depending on the duration of the primary school they finished. In 1999 about 70% of Russian students tested had 8 years of schooling at the end of grade 9.

** Information on age was not available for Germany. International mean age based on 27 countries only.

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

As an aid to interpretation, the figure also includes the date of testing, the tested grade and the average age of students tested in each country. The average age of the students who took part in the study was 14.7 years old, the same as the average age of students who participated in the study in England. The international civic knowledge scale measured both students' knowledge of the content of citizenship education and their skills in interpreting civic-related materials. The civic skills items included cartoons, leaflets and descriptions of issues which tested students' ability to distinguish between facts and opinions. Some examples of the different kinds of test items are contained in Appendix 2. The figure includes a shaded line to indicate the international mean of the distribution, which is based on the equally weighted samples of all participating countries and set at 100.

The results on the international test on civic knowledge reveal that the overall differences between countries in their mean score scale were not large. The countries divide naturally into three groups. The first are those countries with average scores that are significantly higher than the international average, of which there are ten. The second are those countries with scores significantly below the international mean, of which there are eight. The third, and final group, are those countries on or about the international mean, of which there are ten.

England ranked within this latter group of countries. The score of 99 achieved by students in England on the 'civic knowledge' scale was within a band in which there was **no statistical difference** between the English students and the international average. A further nine countries had scores on or about the international average. These were: Hungary, Australia, Slovenia, Denmark, Germany, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland and Bulgaria.

Further insight into the students' civic knowledge is provided in Table 2.2. This, again, lists the individual country scores ranked for students' results on the civic knowledge scale. However, it also shows the individual country scores for two sub-scales derived from the civic knowledge scale, namely 'content knowledge' and 'interpretative skills'. This allows a comparison to be made of each country's average score on these two sub-scales. These two sub-scales, derived from the 'civic knowledge' score, are strongly correlated with each other, indicating that the two abilities refer to similar, but not identical student characteristics. It would, therefore, be expected that students who had high scores on the 'content knowledge' sub-scale would also have well-developed skills in interpreting the material and thus equally high scores on the 'interpretative skills' sub-scale. This, however, was not always the case.

Table 2.2

Content Knowledge Subscore and Interpretative Skills Subscore

Country	Mean Scale Scores			Chart (80 – 100 – 120)
	Content Knowledge	Interpretative Skills	Total Civic Knowledge	
Poland	? 112 (1.3)	? 106 (1.7)	? 111 (1.7)	
Finland	? 108 (0.7)	? 110 (0.6)	? 109 (0.7)	
Cyprus	? 108 (0.5)	? 108 (0.5)	? 108 (0.5)	
Greece	? 109 (0.7)	? 105 (0.7)	? 108 (0.8)	
Hong Kong (SAR)[3]	? 108 (1.0)	? 104 (1.0)	? 107 (1.1)	
United States[1]	+ 102 (1.1)	? 114 (1.0)	? 106 (1.2)	
Italy	? 105 (0.8)	? 105 (0.7)	? 105 (0.8)	
Slovak Republic	? 107 (0.7)	? 103 (0.7)	? 105 (0.7)	
Norway[4]	? 103 (0.5)	? 103 (0.4)	? 103 (0.5)	
Czech Republic	? 103 (0.8)	+ 102 (0.8)	? 103 (0.8)	
Australia	+ 99 (0.7)	? 107 (0.8)	+ 102 (0.8)	
Hungary	? 102 (0.6)	+ 101 (0.7)	+ 102 (0.6)	
Slovenia	? 102 (0.5)	+ 99 (0.4)	+ 101 (0.5)	
Denmark[4]	+ 100 (0.5)	+ 100 (0.5)	+ 100 (0.5)	
Germany[2]	+ 99 (0.5)	+ 101 (0.5)	+ 100 (0.5)	
Russian Federation	+ 102 (1.3)	▼ 96 (1.3)	+ 100 (1.3)	
England[1]	▼ 96 (0.6)	? 105 (0.7)	+ 99 (0.6)	
Sweden[1]	▼ 97 (0.8)	? 102 (0.7)	+ 99 (0.8)	
Switzerland	▼ 96 (0.8)	+ 102 (0.8)	+ 98 (0.8)	
Bulgaria	+ 99 (1.1)	▼ 95 (1.3)	+ 98 (1.3)	
Portugal[5]	▼ 97 (0.7)	▼ 95 (0.7)	▼ 96 (0.7)	
Belgium (French)[4]	▼ 94 (0.9)	▼ 96 (0.9)	▼ 95 (0.9)	
Estonia	▼ 94 (0.5)	▼ 95 (0.5)	▼ 94 (0.5)	
Lithuania	▼ 94 (0.7)	▼ 93 (0.7)	▼ 94 (0.7)	
Romania	▼ 93 (1.0)	▼ 90 (0.7)	▼ 92 (0.9)	
Latvia	▼ 92 (0.9)	▼ 92 (0.8)	▼ 92 (0.9)	
Chile	▼ 89 (0.6)	▼ 88 (0.8)	▼ 88 (0.7)	
Colombia	▼ 89 (0.8)	▼ 84 (1.2)	▼ 86 (0.9)	

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
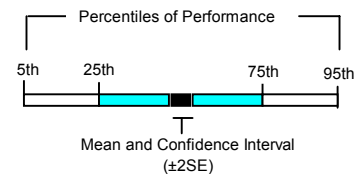
? Country mean significantly higher than international mean.

+ No statistically significant difference between country mean and international mean.

Country mean significantly lower than international mean.

⊢◇⊣ = Mean Subscore Civic Content (± 2 SE).

⊢●⊣ = Mean Subscore Civic Skills (± 2 SE).

■ = Mean Total Civic Knowledge Score.

[1] Countries with testing date at beginning of school year.

[2] National Desired Population does not cover all International Desired Population.

[3] Countries did not meet age/grade specification.

[4] Countries' overall participation rate after replacement less than 85 percent.

[5] In Portugal grade 8 selected instead of grade 9 due to average age. Mean scores for grade 9 were 108 on the Civic Content Scale, 103 on the Civic Skills Scale and 106 on the Total Civic Knowledge Scale.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study* , Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

What is interesting, when comparing the results on the two sub-scales, is that there are five countries where the scores on the 'interpretative skills' sub-scale are significantly higher than those on the 'content knowledge' sub-scale. In other words, students in these countries were more likely to answer correctly those items relating to interpretative skills than those relating to civic content knowledge. The five countries were: England, Australia, Sweden, Switzerland and the USA.

Taken together, students in England scored significantly higher than the international average on the sub-scale 'interpretative skills', but they scored significantly below the average on the sub-scale 'content knowledge'. Possible explanations for these differences in score, given that the sub-scales are so closely related, are discussed in Chapter 4.

2.4   Summary of Comparative Results for England on the Survey of Civic Concepts, Attitudes, Engagement and Participation

The international 'civic knowledge' scale and the two sub-scales of 'content knowledge' and 'interpretative skills', discussed above, were developed based on right and wrong answers given by students to the 38 items in Part One of the student instrument which comprised the test of civic knowledge. It is clear, however, from the study's theoretical framework – the Octagon model (as described in Chapter 1) – that students' acquisition of civic knowledge and skills does not take place in isolation. There are other factors and influences which impact on students, notably their attitudes and beliefs about civic concepts, such as democracy, citizenship and government, as well as about associated civic institutions and groups in society. These attitudes and beliefs cannot be measured merely by testing for right and wrong. Rather they can be gauged in relation to a number of statements on a range of aspects of citizenship. Part Three of the student instrument – the survey – was developed primarily to address student attitudes and beliefs.

Analysis of the survey responses across countries led to the derivation of 11 international attitude scales. These provided information about the students' attitudes and beliefs towards a number of civic concepts as well as to their civic engagement and participation. The international means for the attitude scale scores are each set at 10. These data are shown in Table 2.3. Column 4 of the table indicates which scores are significantly above or below the international average. The results of students from England on these 11 international attitude scales is explored in more detail, with further discussion and examples, in Chapters 5 – 8 of this national report.

Table 2.3   **International attitude scales**

Description	English Average	N	Significant?
Conventional citizenship[1]	9.24	2,879	Significant
Social-movement citizenship[2]	9.25	2,868	Significant
Economy-related government responsible	10.08	2,863	
Society-related government responsible	10.78	2,858	Significant
Trust in government-related institutions	9.99	2,843	
National identity	9.38	2,835	Significant
Women's political and economic rights	10.69	2,804	Significant
Immigrants' rights	9.75	2,752	Significant
School participation	9.92	2,735	
Political activities	9.66	2,651	Significant
Classroom climate for discussion	10.02	2,704	

[1] *Conventional citizenship* refers to conventional political activity such as voting in elections, joining a political party, discussing politics and following it in the media.

[2] *Social-movement citizenship* refers to activities related to non-partisan groups and movements in communities and schools, such as promoting human rights, protecting the environment, community involvement and taking part in peaceful protest.

As Table 2.3 shows, the students from England achieved scores which were not significantly different from the international average on the following international attitude scales:

♦   Economy-related government responsibility
♦   Trust in government-related institutions
♦   School participation
♦   Classroom climate for discussion.

The remainder of the scores were significantly above or below the international average. Those attitude scales in which the students from England scored **below** the international average were:

♦   Conventional citizenship
♦   Social-movement citizenship
♦   National identity
♦   Immigrants' rights
♦   Political activities.

In contrast, students in England scored **above** the average for the international students on measures of:

♦ Society-related government responsibility

♦ Women's political and economic rights.

2.5   Summary of Comparative Results for England on the Test of Civic Knowledge and Survey of Concepts, Attitudes, Engagement and Participation

Table 2.4 shows how the results for students in England, on both the test of civic knowledge and survey of concepts, attitudes, engagement and participation, compared with those in other participating countries. The table confirms that though there were some areas of the study in which the responses of students in England were similar to those across countries, in most areas students in different countries, including England, demonstrated different patterns of performance. Countries are divided into three groups on each scale or sub-scale in the test and survey. The first group is those countries significantly above the international mean; the second group is those countries not significantly different from the international mean; and the third group is those countries significantly below the international mean.

The different patterns of student performance across countries underline the need for detailed analysis of national datasets. This is vital in order to better understand the nature of student performance in each country and to begin to discuss the possible reasons for that performance. This national report is the start of the process of trying to better understand the levels of civic knowledge, understanding of civic concepts and attitudes to civic and political issues of 14-year-olds in England.

2.6   Conclusion

This chapter has provided a summary of England's results within the context of the main international findings of the study. It is helpful to bear this summary in mind when reading the other chapters in this national report. The next chapter, Chapter 3, details the background information provided by the students, teachers and headteachers who took part in the study in England. It is followed, in Chapter 4, with more in-depth analysis of the results of the students in England on the test of civic knowledge. The overall performance of students in England on the civic test and survey is discussed in more detail in Chapter 11, entitled 'Conclusions and Recommendations'.

Table 2.4

Civic Knowledge, Civic Engagement and Civic Attitudes Across Countries

Country	Civic Knowledge			Civic Engagement				Civic Attitudes and Other Concepts						
	Content Knowledge (subscale)	Interpretative Skills (subscale)	Total Civic Knowledge	Conventional Citizenship	Social Movement Citizenship	Political Activities	School Participation	Economy-related Government Responsibility	Society-related Government Responsibility	Immigrants' Rights	National Identity	Trust in Government-related Institutions	Women's Political and Economic Rights	Classroom Climate for Discussion
Australia		?		▲	▲	▲		▲				?	?	
Belgium (French)	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲		▲			▲
Bulgaria		▲		?				?		▲		?	▲	▲
Chile	▲	▲	▲	?	?	?	?		?	?	?		▲	?
Colombia	▲	▲	▲	?	?	?			▲	?	?			?
Cyprus	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?		?	?	?	?	?
Czech Republic	?		?	▲	▲	▲	▲				?	▲		▲
Denmark				▲	▲	▲	?	▲	▲	▲	▲	?	?	
England	▲	?		▲	▲	▲			?	▲	▲		?	
Estonia	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲				▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Finland	?	?	?	▲	▲	▲	▲	?	?		?		?	
Germany				▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲		?	?
Greece	?	?	?	?	?		?	▲	?	?	?	?		?
Hong Kong (SAR)	?	?	?		▲	?	▲	▲	▲	?	▲		▲	▲
Hungary	?					▲	▲	?	▲	▲			▲	▲
Italy	?	?	?	?	?	▲	▲	?	?	▲	▲			?
Latvia	▲	▲	▲		▲	?	▲		▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Lithuania	▲	▲	▲	?	?	▲		?	▲	▲		▲	▲	▲
Norway	?	?	?	▲	?	▲	?	▲		?		?	?	?
Poland	?	?	?	?		?	?	?	?	?	?			?
Portugal	▲	▲	▲	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	▲		▲
Romania	▲	▲	▲	?	?	?	?	?					▲	▲
Russian Federation		▲		▲			▲	?				▲	▲	
Slovak Republic	?	?	?	?	?	▲		?	?	▲	?	?	▲	
Slovenia	?			▲	▲		▲			▲		▲		▲
Sweden	▲	?		▲	▲	▲	?	?		?	▲		?	?
Switzerland	▲			▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	?	?	?
United States		?	?	?	?	?		▲		?		?	?	?

Legend:
? = Country mean significantly higher than international mean.
▲ = Country mean significantly lower than international mean.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study*, Standard Population of 14-years-olds tested in 1999.

3. BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDENTS, TEACHERS AND SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the background information collected as part of the IEA Citizenship Education Study in England. The collection of such information was a fundamental component of the Phase 2 instrument design. As was explained in Chapter 1, the 'Octagon' model, which provides the study's theoretical framework, focuses not only on young people, but also on the people and contexts which impact on them. It is helpful, therefore, when reviewing the study's findings, to know something about the lives of students and also about the background of the teachers who teach them and the types of schools that students attend.

Background information was provided by all those who participated in the study – students, teachers and headteachers. The chapter is structured around the information provided by these three groups. The first part focuses on student responses to Part Two of the student survey, which asked students about themselves, their home background, their families and their schools. The second part is drawn from personal and professional details supplied by teachers in the teacher questionnaire. These are explored in more detail in Chapter 9. The third and final part explores information about the context of the participating schools given by headteachers in the school questionnaire.

The background information supplied by students, teachers and schools is valuable in a number of respects. First, it provides a broader context within which findings in other chapters of this national report, particularly those about students, can be viewed. Secondly, it has also enabled more in-depth analyses to be carried out on the dataset at national and cross-national levels. The information has been used, in particular, in England to group national data for further analysis through multilevel modelling (see separate Technical Appendix for further details). Finally, it encourages the making of connections at a number of different levels in the study. These connections are explored in more detail in Chapters 10 and 11. The overall result is to make the study and its findings more relevant and accessible to those with an interest in citizenship education.

3.2 Background to the Students

It is helpful, when reviewing the findings from students in England, to know something about the background of students. Background variables can have a

considerable influence on students' acquisition of *civic knowledge*, development of *civic attitudes*, and opportunities and experiences of *civic engagement and participation*. For example, family environment can affect how young people learn, the type of school they attend and the way they behave in a school setting. Parental aspirations and achievements can have a strong influence on young people's educational expectations and on their formation of attitudes and beliefs. Students are also subjected to a range of influences, both in and out of school. These include their interaction with teachers through the formal curriculum in school, as well as the social groupings and cultural links they make, both in and outside school, with their peers and local communities. Part Two of the student survey was designed to provide information about these student background variables. Students were asked a series of questions about themselves, their home background, their educational expectations and the types and frequency of their engagement in a number of social activities.

3.2.1 Student variables

Part Two of the student survey was completed by 3,043 Year 10 students in England. There were almost equal numbers of boys (48 per cent) and girls (49 per cent) who participated in the study (the remaining three per cent did not answer the question on gender). The majority of students classified themselves as white (85 per cent). A minority of students (just under 300) were from a range of ethnic minority backgrounds (black Caribbean (two per cent), black African (one per cent), Indian (two per cent), Pakistani (two per cent), Bangladeshi (one per cent) and Chinese (one per cent)). The majority of students surveyed were born in the UK[5] (94 per cent). Of the five per cent (N = 129) who were not born in the UK, nearly half (45 per cent) were under six-years-old when they came to England and so would have been educated almost entirely within the English education system. However, more than one-fifth (23 per cent) of those born outside of the UK were aged 11 to 15 when they arrived. These students (N = 29) would have begun their education in England at secondary school level and would have been faced with the challenges of adjusting to a new education system and a new school at the same time.

Most of the students lived in households of four (40 per cent) or five (24 per cent) people, though the range was between two and 14 people. A majority of the students reported that a mother, stepmother or female guardian lived at home with them most of the time (90 per cent), but fewer (77 per cent) reported that a father, stepfather or

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[5] Questions in the survey instruments referred to the U.K, although only students from schools in England were tested.

male guardian lived at home. The majority of students said they always or almost always spoke English at home (92 per cent).

The first IEA Civic Education Study, carried out in 1971, showed that students' social background was an important predictor in their development of civic knowledge (Torney *et al.,* 1975). Students from less affluent homes and less educated families had lower scores on the test of civic knowledge than those from more affluent and educated families. It is difficult to find an indicator of social background that can be compared across countries, but one measure that has been used in previous IEA studies has provided a useful and consistent predictor of educational achievement (Beaton *et al.,* 1996). This is the number of books in the family home commonly referred to as 'home literacy resources'. This is a proxy for the emphasis given to education as determined by the amount of educational resources available to support an individual student. Part Two of the student survey, therefore, asked students about the number of books in their family home, their home literacy resources. Table 3.1 shows the results for students in England.

Table 3.1   Home literacy resources

About how many books are there in your home?	%
None (0 books)	1
Very few (1-10 books)	7
Enough to fill one shelf (11-50 books)	19
Enough to fill one bookcase (51-100 books)	23
Enough to fill two bookcases (101-200 books)	22
Enough to fill three or more bookcases (more than 200)	27
Uncodeable/no response	2
Total per cent	101
N = 3,043	

A single-response item.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not sum to 100.
2,982 respondents answered this question.

Nearly all of the students reported having books in their homes. Almost half the students (49 per cent) estimated that there were over 100 books in their homes, with over one-quarter (27 per cent) reporting that the figure was more than 200. Of the remainder, over two-thirds (42 per cent) said there were between 11 and 100 books in their homes and only eight per cent reported having '*none*' or '*very few books*' (under ten). The correlation between number of books in the family home (home literacy resources) and students' civic knowledge scores on the cognitive test is examined in relation to all participating countries, including England, in Chapter 4 and with

specific reference to England in Chapter 10. Since newspapers are sources of information which are particularly relevant to learning about civic and political issues, students were also asked if their home was in receipt of a daily newspaper. More than half of the students (62 per cent) said this was the case.

3.2.2 Education variables

The expectations that young people have about their educational achievements can influence their approach to education in general. It is possible that this may also apply to citizenship education. Student expectations may also be linked to the level of education achieved by their parents. The student survey, therefore, contained two questions which sought further information about these issues. The first question asked students about the number of further years of education that they expected to complete at the end of their current school year (i.e. Year 10). The second question asked students about the level their mother and father reached in the education system.

It should be noted, in respect to the first question, that the survey was carried out when the students were beginning Year 10, i.e. just under two years before the end of the period of compulsory education in England at 16. The findings for the students in England make interesting reading. Less than one-fifth of the students (18 per cent) thought that they would leave school within two years. Nearly one-third (32 per cent) expected to complete three or four further years of education (i.e. stay on into post-16 education and training either in school or college). Meanwhile, almost one-half of the students (46 per cent) said they would stay on for more than five years, taking them beyond 18 years of age and into higher education. This is consistent with the current trend in England which is for young people to continue their education beyond the end of compulsory education at 16.

Girls appeared more committed to staying on in education than boys. Fewer girls (17 per cent) than boys (22 per cent) intended to leave at the end of their secondary schooling, and more girls (50 per cent) than boys (45 per cent) were contemplating higher education. Students from minority ethnic groups were also more committed to staying on. Only l5 per cent intended to leave at the end of their secondary schooling, while 57 per cent anticipated going into higher education. In comparison, 20 per cent of white students overall said they would leave at the end of the period of compulsory education and only 46 per cent said they would stay on in further or higher education. The correlation between expected further years in education and students' civic knowledge scores on the cognitive test in England is explored in Chapter 10.

The responses to the second question, namely 'What level did your mother and father reach in their education?', ranged from 'did not finish primary school' through to 'completed a degree at a college or university'. However, it should be noted that almost one-quarter of students were unable to say how long their mother (22 per cent) or father (25 per cent) had spent in education.

In relation to their mother's education, more than one-quarter of students (28 per cent) reported that their mother had completed secondary education (i.e. to age 16), while almost one-quarter (22 per cent) said their mother had completed a degree at college or university. The corresponding proportion of fathers completing secondary education was lower (22 per cent), while the numbers of fathers reported to have completed a degree at college or university was marginally higher (23 per cent). The relationship between parents' level of education and students' civic knowledge scores on the cognitive test in England is explored in Chapter 10.

3.2.3 Social activity variables

One of the important influences on the attitudes and behaviour of young people is their peers and the peer group (or groups) to which they belong. Peers and peer groups may have an influence on the approach of students to dimensions of citizenship. The student survey, therefore, contained a number of questions which asked 14-year-olds about the time they spend engaged in social activities outside school. The results for students in England are shown in Tables 3.2 and 3.3.

Table 3.2 **Time spent by students directly after school and during the evening talking or 'hanging out' with friends on a normal school day**

Students spent time with their friends…	After school %	During the evening %
Almost every day (4 or more days a week)	48	36
Several days (1 – 3 days a week)	29	33
A few times each month	12	19
Never or almost never	8	10
Uncodeable/no response	3	3

N = 3,043

A single-response item.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not sum to 100.
2952 respondents answered part of this question.

The majority of students stated that they spent time with their friends, at least several days a week, both directly after school (77 per cent) and during the evening (69 per

cent). Nearly half the students (48 per cent) reported spending time with their friends directly after school almost every day and over one-third (36 per cent) saw their friends almost every evening. The relationship between spending time with friends during the evening and students' civic knowledge scores on the cognitive test in England is explored in Chapter 10.

Students also spent a lot of time watching television or videos before or after school. Over half the students (52 per cent) reported that they spent up to two hours on a normal school day watching television or videos, while nearly one-third said they watched three to five hours of television or videos a day (32 per cent). Only two per cent of the students reported that they spent no time at all watching television or videos (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3   Time spent watching television or videos

On a normal school day, how much time do you spend watching television or videos before or after school?	%
No time	2
less than 1 hour	13
1-2 hours	39
3-5 hours	32
More than 5 hours	11
Uncodeable/no response	3
Total per cent	100
N = 3,043	

A single-response item.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not sum to 100.
2,957 respondents answered this question.

3.3   Background to the Teachers

Teachers are a key group of people who have the capacity to have a considerable influence on the knowledge, skills, attitudes, experiences and behaviours of young people. The study, in recognition of this influence, included a teacher questionnaire. This was completed by three teachers, in each participating school, who taught students citizenship education or citizenship education related subjects. Part of this questionnaire asked teachers to provide background details about themselves, the subjects they taught, how long they had been teaching and the nature of their professional qualifications and training. The data from teachers in England, including how teachers were selected and their attitudes and approaches to citizenship education, is explored more fully in Chapter 9.

3.3.1 Teaching experience and subject background

A total of 348 teachers in England completed the teacher questionnaire. Of these, 79 per cent were linked to some of the tested Year 10 students, although only 17 per cent were the form tutors of the selected groups. There was an almost equal split between male (51 per cent) and female (49 per cent) teachers who responded. Just over two-fifths (42 per cent) were in the 40 to 49 age group. Of the remainder, around one-fifth were aged 30 to 39 (21 per cent), with similar proportions aged 50 to 59 (19 per cent) and under 30 years old (18 per cent).

Teachers were asked what citizenship-related subjects they taught at the time of data collection. The results reveal that citizenship education in England involves teachers from a variety of subject backgrounds, rather than from one dominant group. The main subject backgrounds of the teachers in England were PSHE (personal, social and health education) (46 per cent of respondents), history (40 per cent) and business studies/economics (22 per cent). However, a range of other subject backgrounds was also represented, including religious education (RE) (12 per cent of respondents), geography (eight per cent) and English (five per cent). Interestingly, only three per cent of respondents said they were teaching a subject explicitly titled 'Citizenship' in their school. This has implications for how schools will approach citizenship education as a new statutory subject from September 2002.

Teachers were also asked the number of years they had spent teaching citizenship education related subjects in their time as a teacher. The average number of years' teaching (16.4 years) exceeded the average number of years' teaching citizenship education (14 years). This was the case in all participating countries, though the gap in England was smaller than in many countries. This suggests that teachers entered the profession having trained in another subject, before becoming involved with citizenship education.

3.3.2 Qualifications, pre-service training and professional development

There were a number of questions that probed the educational qualifications obtained by the teachers and the nature and extent of their pre-service training to be a teacher. In terms of educational qualifications, just over two-thirds (67 per cent) of the respondents in England reported that their highest level of formal qualification was a Bachelor's degree, while a further 17 per cent had a Master's degree or Doctorate, and 13 per cent a teacher's certificate or equivalent. This is in line with teaching as a graduate profession in England. Teachers were also asked about the main areas or subjects that they had studied during their degree and/or teacher training qualification.

The most popular subject or area of study was history, with just under half the teachers (47 per cent) reporting this as their main area of study. This was followed by education, listed as a main area of study by just under one-third of teachers (28 per cent), economics and business studies (21 per cent), English (16 per cent), geography (13 per cent) and social sciences (13 per cent). Only a handful of teachers (three per cent) stated that citizenship education had been their main area of study in formal education.

In terms of teacher training, almost all the teachers reported that they had a formal teacher training qualification (97 per cent of respondents) and had been involved in pre-service teacher training (94 per cent). Of these, just over half the teachers (54 per cent) had had one year's pre-service teacher training and just under one-third (29 per cent) had had between three and five years' pre-service teacher training. This is in line with teachers having followed the two most common routes into teaching in England, via the one-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course and the three- or four-year Bachelor in Education (BEd) degree course.

Teachers were also asked about participation in in-service professional development or training specifically related to citizenship education. Just under half (47 per cent) of teachers in England reported that they had participated in such training, though nothing is known of the nature or quality of such experiences. This is positive at one level. However, viewed another way, it highlights the fact that the majority of teachers in England, who participated in the study, have had no professional development or training for teaching citizenship education. This is an issue that is explored further in Chapter 10.

3.4   Background to the Schools

Schools are a key location in which young people develop citizenship dimensions. Indeed a primary focus of the study is on what goes on in schools and classrooms in relation to citizenship education. In recognition of this focus, the study included a school questionnaire. This was completed by the headteacher in each participating school. Part of this questionnaire asked teachers to provide background information about themselves, the characteristics of the school and its approach to citizenship education. Further data from the school questionnaire is explored in Chapter 10.

3.4.1 School characteristics

A total of 128 schools in England were sampled and included in the study, thereby achieving the IEA's minimum targets for school participation. Schools agreed to participate on the condition that they arranged completion of the study instruments,

the student test survey and the teacher and school questionnaires. Further details of the sampling procedures used to select schools for participation in the study in England can be found in Appendix 3.

Of the 128 schools that participated in England, 109 (85 per cent) were co-educational and 19 (15 per cent) were single sex. Of these, 12 were girls' schools (nine per cent) and seven were boys' schools (six per cent). The majority were state schools (93 per cent), with a small number (six per cent) of private or independent schools. Of the state schools, 112 (88 per cent of the sample) classified themselves as comprehensive schools, five as grammar schools (four per cent) and three as secondary modern schools (three per cent). Completed school questionnaires were returned by headteachers from 118 of the 128 participating schools. Over two-thirds of the respondents (67 per cent) had been a headteacher for ten years or less.

Headteachers were asked about the characteristics of the students in their school, in relation to socio-economic background and academic ability, as well as about the procedure for admissions. The proportion of students entitled to receive free school meals is a statistic that is often used as a proxy for socio-economic background. Nearly half (46 per cent) of the 118 schools, for which questionnaires were returned, said that between ten and 25 per cent of students received free school meals. A further nine per cent of the schools reported that between 26 and 40 per cent of students were entitled to free school meals and ten per cent said that over 41 per cent of students had this entitlement. In just over one-third (34 per cent) of the schools, less than ten per cent of students were entitled to free school meals.

The range of student academic ability varied among schools, with almost half (48 per cent) of the 118 schools suggesting that there was a complete range of ability levels. Other schools reported an overall tendency towards high academic ability (14 per cent), middle academic ability (20 per cent) and low academic ability (15 per cent). School admissions policies were generally based on residence near the school (reported by 80 per cent of schools) and the siblings rule, students having older brothers or sisters at the same school (66 per cent of schools). Only ten per cent of schools reported taking students' academic performance into account as part of the admissions procedure.

Headteachers were also asked about the attitudes of students, parents and teachers to the school and the nature of the relationships between students and teachers in school. The majority of headteachers were very positive about these issues. Over three-

quarters of headteachers characterised as 'very positive' both teachers' commitment within their schools (82 per cent) and relations between teachers and students (78 per cent). Headteachers also held positive views regarding students' attitudes towards school and academic achievement. Less than one-tenth of headteachers (eight per cent) stated that students' attitudes to academic achievement were somewhat negative. Parental support for students' achievement was also felt to be positive.

The questionnaire also sought information about the impact of social issues and resources on their school. Headteachers were asked, in particular, to indicate the extent to which certain social issues, such as vandalism, drug misuse, truancy, bullying, racism or violence, arose at their school. Over four-fifths of headteachers reported that these social issues were a problem sometimes or often for their school. The biggest problems were bullying, followed by violence (including physical and verbal abuse) and truancy. The least likely to occur was religious intolerance, with over half the headteachers (56 per cent) stating that religious intolerance was never an issue in their school. However, it should be pointed out that most schools reported these problems occurring occasionally rather than continuously. For example, though truancy and bullying were mentioned by most schools, they were only reported as a frequent issue by ten per cent and six per cent of schools respectively.

Headteachers were also asked about the extent to which the school was affected by a lack of resources, such as teaching materials, buildings and library facilities. Lack of these resources had some or a considerable effect on around half of the schools. The most serious lack was of teaching materials (reported by 61 per cent of headteachers), followed by school buildings and grounds (54 per cent) and library and audio-visual resources (45 per cent). Just over two-fifths of schools also reported some impact from a lack of teachers trained specially for citizenship education related subjects. The issue of the training of teachers is considered in more detail in Chapter 9, drawing on the views of the teachers who participated in the study in England. Almost all headteachers (94 per cent) also reported that their school had Internet access for educational/teaching purposes, and those which did not were planning to get access in the near future. The relationship between citizenship education and information and communication technologies (ICT) is reviewed in Chapter 10.

3.4.2 Teachers and citizenship education

Headteachers were asked about the teachers in their school who covered citizenship education and the extent of the school's involvement with any programmes or projects related to citizenship education in the last five years. In relation to teachers in the

school, more than half (60 per cent) of headteachers said there were teachers in their school who specialised in teaching citizenship education related subjects. Though this is positive, in one respect, from the opposite perspective, it means that in nearly two-fifths of schools there were no such specialist citizenship education teachers. The majority of headteachers (84 per cent) also stated that there were form teachers or tutors who covered citizenship education related subjects.

Almost three-quarters of headteachers (74 per cent) said that their school had not participated in any special programme or projects related to citizenship education in the past five years, at either national, local education authority (LEA) or local levels. The type of programmes or projects mentioned by those schools (25 per cent) who had participated in such activities ranged from involvement in youth/community work projects and mock elections, trials and debates, to local council initiatives and links to Parliament and Members of Parliament (MPs). The extent of school and teacher preparation for citizenship education is an issue which is explored in more depth in Chapter 9.

3.5   Summary

Background information about the students, teachers and schools in England

- Background information was supplied by students, teachers and schools in England. This information provides a broader context within which to view the findings in other chapters of this national report. It has also enabled more in-depth analyses to be carried out at national and cross-national levels.

Background to the students

- There was an even split between boys and girls who participated in the study in England. The majority of students were white, born in the UK and lived at home with their mother and/or father.

- There are a number of student variables that can be used to predict the development of students' civic knowledge. They include home literacy resources, number of further years of education, parents' level of education and amount of time spent with friends in the evening. The relationships between these variables and students' civic knowledge scores on the cognitive test in England are explored in Chapter 10.

Background to the teachers

- There was an even split between male and female teachers. Teachers came from a variety of subject backgrounds. The majority had completed degrees and participated in pre-service teacher training. Only just under half the teachers had participated in any in-service professional development or training specifically related to citizenship education.

Background to the schools

♦ The majority of the schools that participated in the study in England were co-educational, state schools. Schools had a range of student academic ability. Relations between students, parents and teachers were generally seen as positive. Social issues and a lack of resources had an impact on schools.

♦ Many schools had teachers and form tutors who covered citizenship education. The majority of schools had not participated in any special programme or projects related to citizenship education in the past five years.

4.   STUDENTS' CIVIC KNOWLEDGE AND CIVIC SKILLS IN ENGLAND

4.1   Introduction

The results of the cohort of students in England on the test of civic knowledge, including both civic content knowledge and also skills in interpreting civic-related materials, were outlined briefly in Chapter 2. As was noted in Chapter 2, the results placed England in a band of countries whose overall test score was not significantly different from the international average. This chapter provides more in-depth analysis of the results of the cohort of students in England on the civic knowledge test. The analysis concentrates on England's scores in relation to other participating countries, as well as on the relationship between key background variables and civic knowledge. These background variables include gender and home literacy resources.   The interrelationship between civic knowledge and civic participation is explored further in Chapter 10, entitled 'Making Connections'. The chapter also highlights the topics and areas of civic content knowledge and civic skills where students in England scored above or below the international average. Taken together, the chapter provides greater understanding of what 14-year-olds know and understand about the nature and workings of democracy, in particular, as well as about the other two core international domains. It also gives a sense of how well prepared young people are to participate in civil and political society. This knowledge and understanding is particularly relevant in England given the introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory subject in schools from September 2002.

4.2   The Civic Knowledge Test

One of the key questions facing modern democratic societies is how well are young people prepared to exercise their rights and responsibilities as citizens. This question relates, in part, to the amount of civic knowledge and the range of civic skills that young people need in order to take a full and active part in civil and political society as informed citizens. The IEA Citizenship Education Study attempted to measure the level of students' civic knowledge and civic skills through a civic knowledge test. As was explained in Chapter 1, the test was not tied to particular country contexts. Instead, it comprised 38 items that addressed broad concepts of citizenship, government and democracy, which are crucial to the organisation and conduct of democratic societies. The civic knowledge test was made up of two different types of items, those that addressed civic content knowledge and those that addressed civic skills. These two sets of items became sub-scales of the total civic knowledge scale. The relationship between the total civic knowledge scale and the two sub-scales is shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 **Relationship of the civic content and skills sub-scales to the total civic knowledge scale**
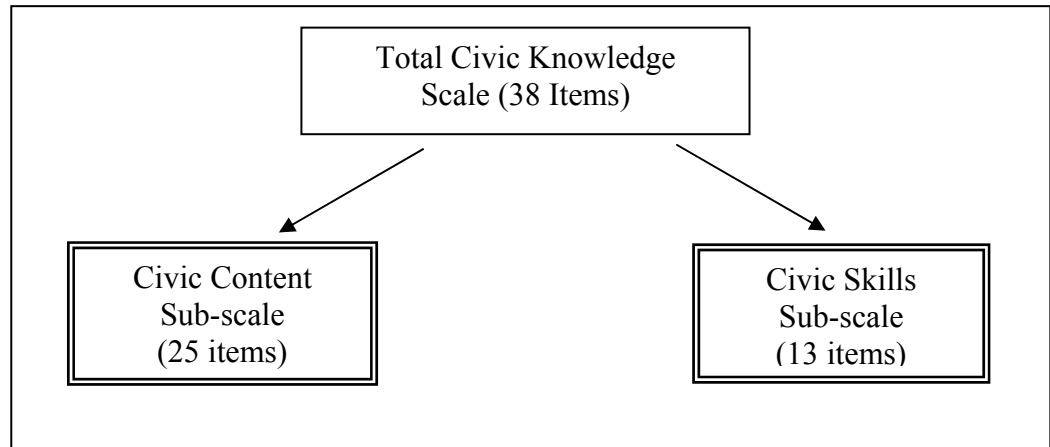
The civic content knowledge sub-scale (25 items) included items that addressed students' knowledge of key civic principles and practices, for example, knowledge about what is meant by a democracy. The civic skills sub-scale (13 items) included items that required students to demonstrate skills of interpretation, for example, the skills needed to understand an election leaflet or a political cartoon. Examples of the different types of items included in the civic knowledge test are provided in Appendix 2.

4.3 Students' Civic Knowledge in England in Relation to Students in Other Countries

The results for students from all participating countries, including those from England, on the total civic knowledge scale are shown in Table 4.1. The table also includes information on the year groups and testing dates, as well as the average age of students in each participating country. There appear to be large differences in performance between the countries when the results are presented in this way. However, it should be pointed out that, in practice, the scores of 25 out of the 28 participating countries differ by less than half of a standard deviation from the international mean. This range is comparable to other IEA studies in literacy and mathematics and science.

The score of 99 achieved by students in England on the 'civic knowledge' scale was within a band in which there was **no statistical difference** between the English students and the international average. A fuller explanation of England's result in comparison to other participating countries is provided in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.

Table 4.1

Distributions of Civic Knowledge

Country	Mean Scale Score			Testing Date	Tested grade*	Mean Age**	Cognitive Civic Competence Scale Score
Poland	?	111	(1.7)	5/99 - 6/99	8	15.0	
Finland	?	109	(0.7)	4/99	8	14.8	
Cyprus	?	108	(0.5)	5/99	9	14.8	
Greece	?	108	(0.8)	3/99 - 6/99	9	14.7	
Hong Kong (SAR)³	?	107	(1.1)	6/99 - 7/99	9	15.3	
United States¹	?	106	(1.2)	10/99	9	14.7	
Italy	?	105	(0.8)	4/99 - 5/99	9	15.0	
Slovak Republic	?	105	(0.7)	5/99 - 6/99	8	14.3	
Norway⁴	?	103	(0.5)	4/99 - 6/99	8	14.8	
Czech Republic	?	103	(0.8)	4/99 - 5/99	8	14.4	
Australia	+	102	(0.8)	8/99	9	14.6	
Hungary	+	102	(0.6)	3/99	8	14.4	
Slovenia	+	101	(0.5)	4/99	8	14.8	
Denmark⁴	+	100	(0.5)	4/99	8	14.8	
International sample	+	100	(0.2)	3/99 - 12/99	8/9	14.7	
Germany²	+	100	(0.5)	4/99 - 7/99	8	n.a.	
Russian Federation³	+	100	(1.3)	4/99 - 5/99	9	15.1	
England¹	+	99	(0.6)	11/99	10	14.7	
Sweden¹	+	99	(0.8)	10/99 - 12/99	8	14.3	
Switzerland	+	98	(0.8)	4/99 - 7/99	8/9	15.0	
Bulgaria	+	98	(1.3)	5/99 - 6/99	8	14.9	
Portugal⁵	☚	96	(0.7)	4/99	8	14.5	
Belgium (French)⁴	☚	95	(0.9)	3/99 - 4/99	8	14.1	
Estonia	☚	94	(0.5)	4/99	8	14.7	
Lithuania	☚	94	(0.7)	5/99	8	14.8	
Romania	☚	92	(0.9)	5/99	8	14.8	
Latvia	☚	92	(0.9)	4/99 - 5/99	8	14.5	
Chile	☚	88	(0.7)	10/99	8	14.3	
Colombia	☚	86	(0.9)	4/99 and 10/99	8	14.6	

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.

? Country mean significantly higher than international mean.

+ No statistically significant difference between country mean and international mean.

☚ Country mean significantly lower than international mean.

Percentiles of Performance
5th 25th 75th 95th
Mean and Confidence Interval (±2SE)

¹ Countries with testing date at beginning of school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all International Desired Population.

³ Countries did not meet age/grade specification.

⁴ Countries' overall participation rate after replacement less than 85 percent.

⁵ In Portugal grade 8 selected instead of grade 9 due to average age. Mean scale score for grade 9 was 106.

* In Switzerland grade 8 was tested mainly in German cantons, grade 9 mainly in French and Italian cantons. In Russia students in grade 9 have 8 or 9 years of schooling depending on the duration of the primary school they finished. In 1999 about 70% of Russian students tested had 8 years of schooling at the end of grade 9.

** Information on age was not available for Germany. International mean age based on 27 countries only.

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

4.3.1 Students' civic content knowledge and civic skills in England in relation to students in other countries

The civic knowledge test was made up of two different types of items. There were 25 Type 1 items, designed to test students' civic knowledge content, and 13 Type 2 items, designed to assess their skills in interpreting civic-related materials. This enabled two sub-scales to be derived from the total civic knowledge scale, namely civic content knowledge and civic skills. Table 4.2 lists the individual country scores ranked for students' results on the total civic knowledge scale. However, it also shows the individual country scores for the two sub-scales derived from the main civic knowledge scale. This allows a comparison to be made of each country's average score on these two sub-scales.

The two subscales – civic content knowledge and civic skills – are strongly correlated with each other, indicating that the two abilities refer to similar, but not identical, student characteristics. It would, therefore, be expected that students who had high scores on the civic content knowledge sub-scale would also have well-developed skills in interpreting the material and thus equally high scores on the civic skills sub-scale.

In most countries, there was little difference between the averages for the two sub-scales. Indeed, in 14 out of the 28 countries, the scores on the sub-scales were about the same. In England students achieved a score of 96 on the civic content knowledge sub-scale, which was below the international average. However, England was one of five countries where the scores on the civic skills sub-scale were significantly higher than those on the civic content knowledge sub-scale. In other words, students in these countries were more likely to answer correctly those items relating to civic skills than those relating to civic content knowledge. The five countries were: England, Australia, Sweden, Switzerland and the USA. Students in England achieved a score of 105 on the civic skills sub-scale, which was above the international average. This suggests that students in England are better able to use their skills of analysis and interpretation to process information related to civil and political life than those in many other countries who participated in the study. This potential pattern is one that requires further investigation in future research studies in this area.

Table 4.2

Content Knowledge Subscore and Interpretative Skills Subscore

Country	Mean Scale Scores						
	Content Knowledge		Interpretative Skills		Total Civic Knowledge		80 100 120
Poland	?	112 (1.3)	?	106 (1.7)	?	111 (1.7)	
Finland	?	108 (0.7)	?	110 (0.6)	?	109 (0.7)	
Cyprus	?	108 (0.5)	?	108 (0.5)	?	108 (0.5)	
Greece	?	109 (0.7)	?	105 (0.7)	?	108 (0.8)	
Hong Kong (SAR)[3]	?	108 (1.0)	?	104 (1.0)	?	107 (1.1)	
United States[1]	+	102 (1.1)	?	114 (1.0)	?	106 (1.2)	
Italy	?	105 (0.8)	?	105 (0.7)	?	105 (0.8)	
Slovak Republic	?	107 (0.7)	?	103 (0.7)	?	105 (0.7)	
Norway[4]	?	103 (0.5)	?	103 (0.4)	?	103 (0.5)	
Czech Republic	?	103 (0.8)	+	102 (0.8)	?	103 (0.8)	
Australia	+	99 (0.7)	?	107 (0.8)	+	102 (0.8)	
Hungary	?	102 (0.6)	+	101 (0.7)	+	102 (0.6)	
Slovenia	?	102 (0.5)	+	99 (0.4)	+	101 (0.5)	
Denmark[4]	+	100 (0.5)	+	100 (0.5)	+	100 (0.5)	
Germany[2]	+	99 (0.5)	+	101 (0.5)	+	100 (0.5)	
Russian Federation	+	102 (1.3)	⬇	96 (1.3)	+	100 (1.3)	
England[1]	⬇	96 (0.6)	?	105 (0.7)	+	99 (0.6)	
Sweden[1]	⬇	97 (0.8)	?	102 (0.7)	+	99 (0.8)	
Switzerland	⬇	96 (0.8)	+	102 (0.8)	+	98 (0.8)	
Bulgaria	+	99 (1.1)	⬇	95 (1.3)	+	98 (1.3)	
Portugal[5]	⬇	97 (0.7)	⬇	95 (0.7)	⬇	96 (0.7)	
Belgium (French)[4]	⬇	94 (0.9)	⬇	96 (0.9)	⬇	95 (0.9)	
Estonia	⬇	94 (0.5)	⬇	95 (0.5)	⬇	94 (0.5)	
Lithuania	⬇	94 (0.7)	⬇	93 (0.7)	⬇	94 (0.7)	
Romania	⬇	93 (1.0)	⬇	90 (0.7)	⬇	92 (0.9)	
Latvia	⬇	92 (0.9)	⬇	92 (0.8)	⬇	92 (0.9)	
Chile	⬇	89 (0.6)	⬇	88 (0.8)	⬇	88 (0.7)	
Colombia	⬇	89 (0.8)	⬇	84 (1.2)	⬇	86 (0.9)	

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
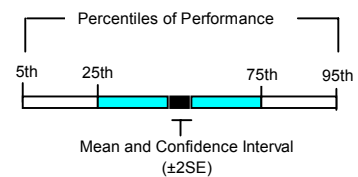
?	Country mean significantly higher than international mean.
+	No statistically significant difference between country mean and international mean.
⬇	Country mean significantly lower than international mean.

⬦ = Mean Subscore Civic Content (± 2 SE).
● = Mean Subscore Civic Skills (± 2 SE).
■ = Mean Total Civic Knowledge Score.

[1] Countries with testing date at beginning of school year.

[2] National Desired Population does not cover all International Desired Population.

[3] Countries did not meet age/grade specification.

[4] Countries' overall participation rate after replacement less than 85 percent.

[5] In Portugal grade 8 selected instead of grade 9 due to average age. Mean scores for grade 9 were 108 on the Civic Content Scale, 103 on the Civic Skills Scale and 106 on the Total Civic Knowledge Scale.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study* , Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

4.4   Students' Civic Knowledge and Key Background Variables

The first IEA Civic Education Study, carried out in 1971, found that a number of key background variables were correlated with students' civic knowledge scores (Torney *et al.*, 1975). Chief among these variables were gender differences and students' social background. In the first study, boys scored higher on civic knowledge than girls, a phenomenon that increased with age, while students from less educated and less affluent families had lower civic knowledge scores than those with more educated and more affluent families. The study sought to find out the extent to which students' civic knowledge is affected by such background variables. These variables are considered in more detail in Chapter 10, 'Making Connections', in relation to a model in the study's international report (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001) which links civic knowledge and civic participation, and to the further multilevel analysis carried out on England's dataset by the research team at NFER.

4.4.1   Gender differences and civic knowledge

The results for boys and girls on the civic knowledge test were compared to see if there were any significant differences between their performances. Table 4.3 shows the results of this comparison.

It was found that there were no significant differences in 27 out of the 28 participating countries. The exception was Slovenia, where girls performed considerably better than boys. In England, boys had an average score of 100 on the total civic knowledge scale, while girls scored 99. Though no significant differences were found in the majority of countries, it is interesting to note the international mean for girls on the test was 100.4 and that for boys 99.7. This is reflected in the individual country scores which highlight the fact that in 15 countries girls had higher average civic knowledge scores than boys compared to seven countries where the boys scored on average higher than the girls. These results suggest that, internationally, girls have now made up the gap in civic knowledge with boys identified in the first IEA Civic Education Study. (It should be remembered that England did not participate in this first study in 1971.) Indeed the study suggests that, in most countries, the acquisition of civic content knowledge and the development of civic skills are largely unaffected by gender.

Table 4.3

Gender Differences in Civic Knowledge

Country	Mean Scale Score Females	Mean Scale Score Males	Difference Absolute Value	Gender Difference
Denmark[4]	99 (0.7)	102 (0.7)	3 (1.0)	Males Score Higher / Females Score Higher
Switzerland	97 (0.8)	100 (0.9)	2 (1.2)	
Chile	88 (0.8)	89 (0.8)	2 (1.1)	
Czech Republic	102 (0.8)	104 (1.0)	2 (1.3)	
Portugal[5]	96 (0.8)	97 (0.9)	1 (1.2)	
Germany[2]	99 (0.6)	101 (0.7)	1 (0.9)	
Norway[4]	103 (0.6)	103 (0.7)	1 (0.9)	
Russian Federation[3]	99 (1.2)	100 (1.7)	0 (2.1)	
Slovak Republic	105 (0.8)	105 (0.9)	0 (1.1)	
England[1]	99 (0.8)	100 (1.0)	0 (1.3)	
Cyprus	108 (0.7)	108 (0.6)	0 (0.9)	
Colombia	87 (1.3)	86 (1.1)	0 (1.7)	
Romania	92 (1.0)	91 (0.9)	0 (1.4)	
Hungary	102 (0.7)	101 (0.8)	1 (1.0)	
Hong Kong (SAR)[3]	108 (1.1)	106 (1.4)	1 (1.8)	
Sweden[1]	100 (0.8)	99 (1.1)	1 (1.3)	
Estonia	95 (0.6)	93 (0.7)	1 (0.9)	
Finland	110 (0.9)	108 (0.8)	2 (1.2)	
United States[1]	107 (1.2)	106 (1.3)	2 (1.8)	
Greece	109 (0.8)	107 (0.9)	2 (1.2)	
Italy	106 (0.9)	104 (1.1)	2 (1.4)	
Bulgaria	99 (1.5)	97 (1.2)	2 (2.0)	
Lithuania	95 (0.8)	92 (0.8)	2 (1.1)	
Australia	103 (0.9)	101 (1.1)	2 (1.4)	
Poland	112 (2.2)	109 (1.5)	3 (2.6)	
Slovenia	102 (0.6)	99 (0.6)	4 (0.8)	
Latvia	93 (0.9)	90 (0.9)	4 (1.3)	
Belgium (French)[4]	97 (1.1)	93 (1.3)	5 (1.7)	

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

International Means

Female	Male	Difference
100.4	99.7	0.7

(Averages of all country means)

■ Gender difference statistically significant at .05 level.

□ Gender difference not statistically significant.

[1] Countries with testing date at beginning of school year.

[2] National Desired Population does not cover all International Desired Population.

[3] Countries did not meet age/grade specification.

[4] Countries' overall participation rate after replacement less than 85 percent.

[5] In Portugal grade 8 selected instead of grade 9 due to average age.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study,* Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

4.4.2 Social background and civic knowledge

Social background has consistently been shown to be an important predictor of students' civic knowledge (Torney *et al.*, 1975). Students from more affluent and better-educated families (as measured by home literacy resources, see Section 3.2.1) appear to have greater opportunities to develop civic knowledge compared to those from poorer or less well-educated families. Table 4.4 shows the relationship between students' reports on home literacy resources and the scores on the civic knowledge scale.

The study confirmed the correlation between home literacy resources and students' civic knowledge scores. In the majority of countries, including England, the more books a student reported in the home, then the higher their civic knowledge score. The only exception to this was Hong Kong (SAR), where students scored above the international average, despite reporting that they had few books at home. In England, those students reporting larger numbers of books in their homes ('about two bookcases' and 'three or more bookcases') scored above the international average on the civic knowledge scale, and their scores were also significantly higher than other students in England.

The study's International Steering Group also computed a measure of the proportion of variance in the civic knowledge score that can be attributed to the home literacy resources variable. This measure is shown in the final column in Table 4.4. In all countries, except Hong Kong (SAR), the home literacy resources variable accounts for more than five per cent of the variance in the test scores and in a number of countries, including England, it accounts for 12 per cent or more. As can be seen from the table, in the large majority of countries, students from homes that provide more literacy sources consistently perform better on the test of civic knowledge.

Table 4.4

Civic Knowledge and Students' Reports on Home Literacy Resources

Country	None or very few (0-10 Books)		About One Shelf (11-50 Books)		About One Bookcase (51-100 Books)		About Two Bookcases (101-200 Books)		Three or More Bookcases (More than 200 Books)		Eta Squared
	Percent of Students	Mean Scale Score	Percent of Students	Mean Scale Score	Percent of Students	Mean Scale Score	Percent of Students	Mean Scale Score	Percent of Students	Mean Scale Score	
Australia	4 (0.4)	88 (1.4)	14 (0.8)	95 (1.2)	20 (0.9)	100 (1.0)	23 (1.0)	104 (1.1)	39 (1.3)	106 (1.0)	0.05
Belgium (French)	10 (1.1)	83 (1.1)	18 (1.1)	90 (1.2)	22 (0.9)	93 (1.1)	18 (0.9)	97 (1.0)	32 (1.5)	102 (1.6)	0.11
Bulgaria	14 (1.8)	86 (1.5)	15 (1.4)	92 (1.4)	20 (1.6)	96 (1.3)	19 (0.8)	100 (1.7)	32 (1.8)	105 (1.9)	0.11
Chile	32 (1.6)	80 (0.6)	33 (1.0)	89 (0.7)	19 (0.7)	94 (0.8)	8 (0.6)	97 (0.9)	8 (0.5)	96 (1.1)	0.13
Colombia	29 (2.5)	81 (1.1)	33 (1.2)	87 (0.9)	21 (1.4)	90 (1.3)	10 (0.9)	92 (1.3)	7 (0.7)	90 (1.5)	0.06
Cyprus	8 (0.5)	97 (1.2)	27 (0.8)	105 (0.7)	31 (0.9)	109 (0.8)	18 (0.6)	112 (0.9)	15 (0.8)	113 (1.1)	0.06
Czech Republic	2 (0.3)	93 (2.5)	12 (0.8)	93 (0.9)	29 (1.1)	99 (0.9)	31 (1.3)	105 (0.8)	27 (1.3)	110 (1.2)	0.07
Denmark	6 (0.5)	89 (1.3)	17 (0.8)	95 (1.0)	23 (0.8)	98 (0.8)	21 (0.7)	103 (0.9)	32 (0.9)	106 (0.7)	0.06
England	8 (0.7)	86 (0.9)	19 (0.8)	92 (0.7)	23 (0.9)	97 (0.9)	22 (0.9)	102 (0.8)	27 (1.3)	109 (0.9)	0.15
Estonia	1 (0.2)	83 (2.2)	7 (0.5)	89 (1.2)	17 (0.8)	89 (0.6)	27 (0.9)	93 (0.6)	49 (1.2)	98 (0.8)	0.05
Finland	5 (0.5)	96 (1.5)	24 (0.9)	105 (0.8)	30 (0.9)	109 (0.8)	22 (0.8)	112 (0.8)	20 (1.1)	116 (1.4)	0.05
Germany	6 (0.5)	86 (1.3)	21 (0.7)	93 (0.7)	24 (0.8)	97 (0.6)	19 (0.7)	103 (0.7)	30 (1.0)	108 (0.9)	0.14
Greece	8 (0.7)	95 (1.4)	34 (1.0)	104 (0.8)	27 (0.8)	109 (0.9)	15 (0.8)	113 (1.4)	15 (0.8)	116 (1.2)	0.07
Hong Kong (SAR)	31 (1.0)	103 (1.2)	35 (0.9)	111 (1.2)	16 (0.6)	107 (1.4)	8 (0.4)	109 (1.7)	9 (0.5)	104 (1.6)	0.02
Hungary	5 (0.6)	86 (1.2)	12 (0.8)	91 (0.7)	21 (1.0)	97 (0.8)	24 (0.9)	103 (0.7)	38 (1.4)	108 (0.8)	0.14
Italy	15 (0.8)	95 (0.9)	30 (1.1)	103 (0.8)	24 (0.7)	107 (0.9)	16 (0.8)	111 (1.1)	14 (0.9)	113 (1.5)	0.08
Latvia	2 (0.4)	82 (1.7)	10 (0.8)	86 (1.2)	20 (0.9)	88 (1.0)	26 (1.1)	91 (1.0)	40 (1.6)	96 (1.1)	0.05
Lithuania	8 (0.7)	85 (1.6)	23 (1.0)	90 (1.0)	26 (0.9)	93 (0.7)	18 (0.7)	96 (0.9)	24 (1.1)	100 (1.0)	0.07
Norway	3 (0.4)	88 (1.5)	15 (0.8)	96 (0.9)	21 (0.9)	100 (0.7)	26 (0.8)	104 (0.7)	35 (1.3)	109 (0.7)	0.07
Poland	6 (0.5)	94 (1.3)	20 (1.2)	103 (1.6)	24 (1.3)	109 (2.1)	19 (1.1)	113 (1.8)	31 (2.2)	119 (1.9)	0.11
Portugal	22 (1.3)	90 (0.6)	36 (1.2)	94 (0.6)	20 (0.8)	98 (1.0)	11 (0.8)	103 (1.1)	11 (1.1)	106 (2.1)	0.09
Romania	24 (1.9)	87 (1.7)	28 (1.2)	90 (0.9)	21 (1.0)	91 (0.9)	12 (0.9)	96 (1.1)	14 (1.1)	98 (1.5)	0.05
Russian Federation	6 (1.0)	84 (3.2)	17 (1.4)	94 (1.6)	26 (1.0)	98 (1.6)	21 (1.0)	102 (1.6)	30 (1.4)	106 (1.7)	0.08
Slovak Republic	4 (0.5)	90 (1.6)	21 (1.0)	100 (1.0)	30 (1.1)	104 (0.7)	24 (1.0)	108 (1.0)	21 (1.3)	113 (1.1)	0.09
Slovenia	7 (0.8)	89 (0.8)	29 (1.0)	96 (0.6)	30 (0.9)	101 (0.7)	17 (0.9)	105 (1.0)	17 (0.8)	107 (1.0)	0.08
Sweden	5 (0.5)	84 (1.3)	16 (0.9)	93 (1.2)	24 (1.2)	98 (1.1)	23 (1.2)	99 (0.9)	32 (1.9)	106 (1.1)	0.09
Switzerland	6 (0.7)	86 (1.0)	24 (1.3)	93 (0.9)	25 (0.9)	98 (0.9)	21 (0.8)	102 (1.0)	23 (1.2)	105 (1.3)	0.10
United States	9 (0.9)	91 (1.3)	22 (1.2)	99 (0.9)	22 (0.8)	105 (1.3)	20 (1.0)	112 (1.5)	28 (1.4)	115 (1.7)	0.12
International Sample	10 (0.2)	89 (0.3)	22 (0.2)	96 (0.2)	23 (0.2)	100 (0.2)	19 (0.2)	103 (0.2)	25 (0.2)	106 (0.3)	0.07

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study*, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

4.5   The Civic Knowledge of Students in England

As has already been discussed above, the data from the civic knowledge test enabled a comparison to be made between the performance of the students in England who took the test and their counterparts in other participating countries. The data also allowed a comparison on each of the 38 test items between the percentage of students in England who achieved the correct answer and the percentage of the international cohort who did likewise.

In the selection of items for the civic knowledge test, the study's ISG, in collaboration with the NRCs, went to great lengths to ensure that the items were truly comparable across countries. Results on the individual items where students from England scored above or below the international average provide a baseline of the strengths and weaknesses of the civic knowledge (civic content knowledge and civic skills) of students in England. This may be particularly helpful to teachers, policy-makers, researchers and others given the introduction of citizenship education formally into schools.

The overall percentage of correct answers given by the entire international cohort on the total civic knowledge test was 64 per cent. Thus the majority of students in participating countries demonstrated a certain civic knowledge base in relation to questions about democracy, citizenship and government. However, there was a considerable number of students in some countries whose civic knowledge was considerably lower than this basic level. There was also a number of individual items, concerning basic tasks in civil and political society, which were answered correctly by only a relatively small number of students. These tasks included deciding between candidates or parties based on their election leaflets, understanding newspaper articles and recognising the ideology of political or civic organisations.

Students in England scored 64 per cent or above (i.e. above the international average) on 22 (58 per cent) of the 38 items. In 13 (34 per cent) of these cases, they were also above the international score for that item. In particular, the students demonstrated their ability to understand and interpret items, to discriminate between fact and opinion and to understand issues concerning democratic rights.

As was mentioned earlier in this chapter, students in England performed much better on the civic skills sub-scale compared to that on civic content knowledge. Examination of their results show that they had higher scores for all but three of the items in the civic skills sub-scale. On these three questions the scores differed from

the scores of the international sample by only between two and five per cent. A large proportion of the items in this sub-scale were in the form of cartoons, leaflets and articles, each illustrating political opinion and requiring students to interpret meaning. Other questions provided students with a list of statements and asked them to discern which were fact and which opinion, using both knowledge and interpretative skills. Other topics or areas in which students in England scored above the international average included items concerning equal opportunities, the identification of reasons for having numerous political associations to represent different political opinion and an understanding of who owns multinational businesses.

It is not easy to attribute reasons for the strong showing of students in England on these items, particularly in the civic skills sub-scale. The development of citizenship dimensions by young people is a complex process which, as the study's Octagon model underlines, is influenced by a range of contexts and people. However, one considerable influence may be the context of the school and what goes on in classrooms. For example, the teaching and learning approaches in humanities subjects over the past 20 years have changed from a knowledge-based, factual approach to a more open, enquiry-based approach and this may have helped students in England. It may have meant that students in England were more familiar with the types of civic skill questions in the test than their counterparts in other countries. Meanwhile, there has been a considerable statutory emphasis in society, and also in schools, on the promotion of equal opportunities. This critical change may explain the ease with which students in England answered the items concerning equal opportunities.

By contrast, the students in England scored below 64 per cent (and thus below the international average) on 16 (42 per cent) of the 38 items. In only three of these cases were their scores also above the international score for that item. In particular, students struggled to answer items relating to political representation and elections, the principles underlying democracy and the constitution, the economy, the role of the media and the role of trade unions.

In some cases, these weaknesses may again be attributable to broader societal and narrower school influences. For example, the topic of the role of trade unions is not addressed prominently in either society or schools in England. There are few major trade union disputes in England compared to the past 30 years or so and the issue of trade unions rarely makes headlines in the media. This lack of prominence in society is reflected in the curriculum. The topic, if it is addressed in schools, is confined

largely to history lessons and to consideration of the past activities of trade unions. Therefore, it is no surprise that if this topic is not addressed in either society or schools (i.e. students have not had opportunities to learn about it), then students in England do not perform well on items concerning the role of trade unions. In other cases, topics may not have as much relevance in the UK as in other countries. For example, the UK does not have a written constitution, the issue of constitutions is rarely discussed in society or schools, and therefore students struggled to answer an item about the constitution.

However, looking at the overall performance of students in England on the civic knowledge test, it would appear that students experienced greatest difficulties in answering items which were related to democracy and government. For instance, although they live in a democratic country, they do not appear to understand fully what the term 'democracy' means. They are also unsure about their roles as citizens, of who makes decisions in government and of the purpose of elections. This lack of knowledge of 14-year-olds in England about the processes and practices of democratic society, and about government and elections in particular, is of concern. It suggests that students have had limited opportunities to learn about, experience and understand these aspects of civil and political society, either in school or in the communities in which they live.

It is interesting to compare the strengths and weaknesses in the civic knowledge of students in England with the views of their teachers about the citizenship education topics that are most important to teachers, that they feel confident to teach and that students have most opportunities to learn about. The views of teachers on these matters are discussed in Chapter 9. It is also interesting to compare the student results on the civic knowledge test and the views of teachers about the new curriculum order for Citizenship at key stage 3 (students age 11 to 14) and key stage 4 (students age 14 to 16). The Citizenship Order (QCA, 1999) sets out the knowledge, skills and understanding that students should develop in order to become informed, active and participative citizens. The knowledge and understanding component of the Order includes a list of topics or aspects which overlap with the civic knowledge topics included in the civic knowledge test. The reasons why students in England performed better or worse on some topics or areas of civic knowledge than their international counterparts is an issue that requires further detailed investigation by researchers and policy-makers.

Further analysis, using multilevel modelling, was undertaken by the NFER research team on the student outcomes in England on the civic knowledge test. This further analysis is discussed in more detail in Chapter 10, entitled 'Making Connections'. The multilevel modelling revealed a number of interesting relationships between students' civic knowledge scores and key background variables in England. These confirmed the similar relationships found in the study's international report (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001).

The results of multilevel modelling reveal the characteristics of those students in England who scored highly on the total civic knowledge scale. These students tended to be born in the UK, had 200 or more books in their homes (i.e. had considerable home literacy resources) and intended to stay on in school or college longer than their peers. Their fathers (but not necessarily their mothers) were better educated. These students also attended larger schools which had better overall performance at GCSE and access to the Internet. They tended to get involved in more in-school activities than their peers (e.g. school-based clubs and societies). Meanwhile, students who performed less well on the civic knowledge test tended to come from large families and/or spent more time going out with friends in the evening. Students in schools with higher levels of racial or religious intolerance also tended to have lower scores. The results confirm the correlation between students' social background and their civic knowledge scores, but also suggest the impact of school-based factors on the development of civic knowledge.

Multilevel modelling also provided insight on the two sub-scales of the civic knowledge scale, namely civic content knowledge and civic skills. It revealed that students in both independent schools and in schools where teachers thought citizenship should be integrated into all subjects had higher scores on the civic content sub-scale. Meanwhile girls, and students in schools with higher levels of racial or religious intolerance, had lower scores on this measure. On the civic skills sub-scale girls in England achieved a higher average score than boys and a higher average score than the international group. One interesting finding from the model, which needs further research and explanation, is that students in homes that had a daily newspaper had lower scores on the civic skills scale, while those who spent more time watching TV or videos had higher scores.

4.6   Summary

Civic knowledge test

♦   The civic knowledge test comprised 38 items which attempted to measure the level of students civic content knowledge and civic skills.

Students' civic knowledge in England in relation to international findings

♦   Students in England scored 99 on the civic knowledge scale. This places them within a band of ten countries in which there was no statistical difference between their scores and the international average.

Students' civic content knowledge and civic skills in England in relation to international findings

♦   Students in England achieved a score of 96 on the test of civic content knowledge, which was below the international average. However, England was one of five countries where the scores on the civic skills sub-scale were considerably higher than those on the civic content sub-scale. Students in England achieved a score of 105 on the test of civic skills, which was above the international average.

Civic knowledge and key background variables

♦   There were no significant differences in 27 out of the 28 countries, including England, on the civic knowledge scores of boys and girls. The acquisition of civic knowledge is largely unaffected by gender in most countries.

♦   There is a close correlation between students' social background (measured through the proxy of home literacy resources) and their civic knowledge scores. Students from more affluent backgrounds, and with greater educational resources and expectations, have considerably higher civic knowledge scores than those from less affluent and less well-educated backgrounds.

Civic knowledge of students in England

♦   Students in England performed much better on items relating to the civic skills sub-scale than on those relating to the civic content knowledge sub-scale. Students have well-developed interpretative and analytical skills in dealing with civic-related materials and are knowledgeable on issues concerning equal opportunities.   Students experienced greatest difficulties in answering items relating to the processes and practices of democracy, government and elections.

5.   STUDENTS' ATTITUDES IN ENGLAND IN RELATION TO CIVIC CONCEPTS AND CIVIC ATTITUDES

5.1   Introduction

The national report, up to this point, has focused on the background to Phase 2 of the IEA Citizenship Education Study and an examination of the achievements of students in England on the cognitive test of civic knowledge and skills. The four chapters that follow turn the focus, from civic knowledge and skills, to an examination of the attitudes of students' in England to a number of key *civic concepts*, as well as to opportunities for *civic engagement and participation*. These attitudes are gauged in relation to institutions and groups in society linked to the three 'core international domains' of the study – *democracy and democratic institutions, national identity and international relationships* and *social cohesion and identity*. The attitudes of students to civic concepts, engagement and participation are as important as their civic knowledge and skills.   The development of attitudes related to citizenship is inextricably linked with the acquisition of civic knowledge and skills.

The results for England's cohort of students on the attitude scales, internationally reported, were summarised in Chapter 2. The aim in this chapter, and in Chapters 6 – 8 that follow, is to explore further these results.   This chapter begins with a restatement of the overall results of students in England on the 11 attitude scales reported internationally. This sets the scene for what follows, namely a more in-depth consideration of the results on each attitude scale internationally reported, along with the results on several other items and attitude scales not reported internationally. The chapter concentrates, in particular, on the attitudes and beliefs of students in England to the concepts of **democracy**, **citizenship** and **government**. These three concepts are the lifeblood of effective citizenship education and are directly related to the core international domain of *democracy and democratic institutions*. Chapter 6 focuses on students' levels of trust in government-related institutions, the mass media and other key institutions in society, which are also directly related to the core of *democracy and democratic institutions*. This chapter also explores students' attitudes to national identity, women's political and economic rights and the rights of immigrants, which have direct links to the core international domains of *national identity and international relationships* and *social cohesion and diversity*. Chapter 7 examines students' attitudes to civic engagement and current and future political activities. Chapter 8 explores students' views of opportunities for civic engagement and active participation in classrooms, schools and in community-based organisations. Taken together, these chapters provide a comprehensive description of the findings in England from the survey items in Part Three of the student instrument.

5.2 England's Results on the 11 International Attitude Scales

Analysis of the survey items, undertaken by the international steering group in agreement with NRCs, led to the derivation of 11 internationally agreed attitude scales. These 11 scales provide information about students' understanding of *civic concepts*, their *civic attitudes* and the extent of their *civic engagement and participation*. The international averages for the attitude scale scores were each set at 10. Table 5.1 shows the results of the analysis for students in England, with the last column indicating which scores were significantly above or below the international average.

Table 5.1   Summary of international attitude scales in England

Description	English Average	N	Significant?
Conventional citizenship[1]	9.24	2,879	Yes
Social-movement citizenship[2]	9.25	2,868	Yes
Society-related government responsibility	10.78	2,858	Yes
Economy-related government responsibility	10.08	2,863	
Trust in government-related institutions	9.99	2,843	
National identity	9.38	2,835	Yes
Women's political and economic rights	10.69	2,804	Yes
Immigrants' rights	9.75	2,752	Yes
Political activities	9.66	2,651	Yes
School participation	9.92	2735	
Classroom climate for discussion	10.02	2704	

Note: For each scale, the international average was set at 10.
N = number of students in England where responses were included in this scale.

[1]   *Conventional citizenship* refers to conventional political activity such as voting in elections, joining a political party, discussing politics and following it in the media.
[2]   *Social movement citizenship* refers to activities related to non-partisan groups and movements in communities and schools, such as promoting human rights, protecting the environment, community involvement and taking part in peaceful protest.

Students in England achieved scores that did not differ significantly from the international average on measures of:

- Economy-related government responsibility
- Trust in government-related institutions
- School participation

♦ Classroom climate for discussion.

The remainder of the scores were significantly above or below the international average. Those items in which students in England scored significantly below the international average were:

♦ Conventional citizenship

♦ Social-movement citizenship

♦ National identity

♦ Immigrants' rights

♦ Political activities.

In contrast, the students in England scored above the international average on measures of:

♦ Society-related government responsibility

♦ Women's political and economic rights.

Each of these 11 attitude scales, internationally reported, is reviewed in turn in the remainder of this chapter and in the three chapters that follow.

5.3 Civic Concepts – Students' Concepts of Democracy, Citizenship and Government

The concepts of democracy, citizenship and government are central to citizenship education, and help to explain why one of the three 'core international domains' of the study is *democracy and democratic institutions*. One of the main aims of citizenship education is to help students to understand what these concepts mean in practice, and to prepare them to participate actively in civil and political life as adults. This aim is paramount in a democratic society such as England. However, in order to achieve this aim, it is vital to understand the attitudes of students in England to these concepts in relation to key institutions, groups and practices in society. In particular, what does democracy mean to young people? What do they think are the attributes of good citizenship for adults? What do they believe are the responsibilities of government? The study sought to measure the opinions of a representative sample of 14-year-olds in England on such matters. These opinions were then compared with students of a similar age in other participating countries.

5.4   Concept of Democracy

Students were asked about their understanding of the strengths of and threats to the concept and practices of democracy. They were asked specifically to rank a series of items as being, in their opinion, either good or bad for democracy. Strengths of democracy included factors such as fair elections and the right to free speech, and threats included factors such as corruption and undue influence by politicians.

There were 11 items where students in England had a strong consensus that these actions or ideas were either good or bad for democracy. A number of these items were those also strongly identified by 14-year-olds in the other countries participating in the study.

5.4.1 Good for democracy

Table 5.2 shows the six items, relating to actions or ideas, that gained the strongest consensus among students in England as being good, or very good, for democracy.

Table 5.2   Good for democracy

Is it good for democracy when…?	Very bad for democracy	Generally bad for democracy	Generally good for democracy	Very good for democracy	Don't know	NR
everyone has the right to express their opinion freely	2	6	36	45	6	5
citizens have a free choice when electing Members of Parliament (MPs)	4	8	22	50	11	5
a minimum income is assured for everyone	6	10	30	40	9	6
political parties have rules that support women to become MPs	4	8	30	40	13	5
many different organisations exist	6	13	36	28	13	5
political parties have different opinions on important issues	6	16	35	25	12	6

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,907 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Over three-quarters (81 per cent) of students in England reported that it is good for democracy when everyone has the right to express opinions freely. A sizeable majority also thought that having a free choice when electing Members of Parliament (MPs) (72 per cent), securing a minimum wage for everyone (70 per cent) and having rules that support women becoming MPs (70 per cent) were all good for democracy. The existence of many different organisations for people to join (64 per cent) and

political parties having differing opinions on issues (60 per cent) were also viewed by students as good for democracy.

5.4.2 Bad for democracy

Table 5.3 shows the five items, relating to actions or ideas, that gained the strongest consensus among students in England as being either bad or very bad for democracy.

Table 5.3   Bad for democracy

Is it bad for democracy when…?	Very bad for democracy	Generally bad for democracy	Generally good for democracy	Very good for democracy	Don't know	NR
political leaders in power give jobs in the government to members of their family	47	24	8	4	12	5
one company owns all the newspapers	40	26	11	6	12	6
all the television stations present the same opinion about politics	31	29	14	7	13	6
wealthy business people have more influence on government than others	36	27	12	6	14	6
immigrants are expected to give up the language and customs of their country of origin	34	25	11	5	20	5

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,907 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Over two-thirds (71 per cent) of students in England reported that it was bad for democracy when political leaders give jobs to members of their family. A considerable majority also felt that, in terms of the media, one company having a monopoly over the control of newspapers (66 per cent) and television stations presenting the same political opinions (60 per cent) was also bad for democracy. The majority of young people also stated that allowing wealthy business people to unduly influence government (63 per cent) and expecting immigrants to give up the language and customs of their country of origin (59 per cent) were bad for democracy.

There were a number of items where there was no clear consensus among students in England as to whether the action or idea was good or bad for democracy. These items included ideas such as where there is a separation between church and state, where newspapers are free of all government control and where government leaders are trusted without question.

The findings among students in England are in line with young people in other participating countries. The majority of young people, by the age of 14, have a clear grasp of the importance of some of the basic features of democracy. They understand the features that strengthen democracy, such as free elections and support for women entering politics, and those features that weaken it, such as wealthy people having an undue influence on government and politicians giving jobs to members of their family. The evidence suggests that there is further scope educationally for developing young people's understanding of democracy.

5.5   Concept of Citizenship

The concept of citizenship can have a very broad meaning, encompassing aspects such as legal rights, civil responsibilities, identities, entitlements and opportunities for engagement and participation, to name but a few. The study focused specifically on what young people understand by the concept of the 'good adult citizen'. Students were given a list of items concerning attitudes, actions and activities and asked to decide, in their opinion, how important each one was for explaining what a good adult citizen is or does. These items covered citizens' rights as well as responsibilities. The results were measured using two identified international attitude scales, the importance of *conventional citizenship* (six items) and the importance of *social movement citizenship* (four items):

♦ *Conventional citizenship* refers to actions and activities related to conventional political activity, such as voting in elections, joining a political party, discussing politics and following it in the media.

♦ *Social-movement citizenship* refers to attitudes and activities related to non-partisan groups and movements in communities and schools, such as promoting human rights, protecting the environment, community involvement and taking part in peaceful protest.

Interestingly, the same list of items was also given to teachers involved in the study to gauge their opinions as to what students should learn about in order to become good adult citizens. The teacher responses are discussed in Chapter 9, along with a comparison of the opinions of teachers and students concerning the concept of citizenship.

The international findings reveal that, overall, there was less consensus among 14-year-olds across countries about the facets of good adult citizenship than about what they think is good or bad for democracy. The majority of 14-year-olds in all countries believe that obeying the law is the most important facet of the good adult citizen.

Ninety-one per cent of students in England felt that this was quite important or very important to being a good adult citizen. A large majority of students in England also agreed that working hard (85 per cent) and being patriotic and loyal (68 per cent) were important attitudes for being a good adult citizen.

5.5.1 Conventional citizenship

The importance of conventional citizenship was measured using a six-item international attitude scale. The items ranged from following political issues in the media to knowing about the country's history of voting in elections. Table 5.4 shows the percentage of students in England who reported whether each item on the conventional citizenship attitude scale was quite important or very important for being a good adult citizen.

Table 5.4   Conventional citizenship

How important is it that a good adult citizen…?	Not at all Important	Not Important	Quite Important	Very important	Don't know	NR
votes in every election	4	19	49	21	3	5
shows respect for government representatives	6	19	45	17	7	6
follows political issues in newspapers, on the radio or on TV	11	31	37	8	7	6
knows about the country's history	17	34	32	8	3	5
engages in political discussions	10	38	29	7	10	6
joins a political party	23	48	14	4	6	6

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,894 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Voting in every election (70 per cent) was seen as the most important conventional action in being a good adult citizen. This contrasts with the declining numbers of adults who vote in elections in the UK. It suggests that attitudes to voting at age 14 may change appreciably when young people progress to adulthood. The right to vote from age 18 does not necessarily translate into the responsibility or disposition to vote.

A majority of students in England also reported that showing respect for government representatives (62 per cent) was important for being a good adult citizen. However, support for many types of conventional political activity appears to be weak among students in England. Less than half the students believe that following political issues in the media (45 per cent) and knowing about the country's history (40 per cent) are important for being an adult citizen. Meanwhile, young people in England believe

that engaging in political discussion (36 per cent) and joining a political party (18 per cent) are of little importance to being an adult citizen.

The mean for students in England on the importance of conventional citizenship scale was significantly below the international mean. This demonstrates that for students in England the actions and attitudes of conventional citizenship, with the exception of voting, were viewed as low in importance for adult citizenship. Interestingly, when the multilevel analysis was fitted to the importance of conventional citizenship scale, it showed that those students with higher scores on the test of civic skills tended to have lower scores on this attitude scale, while those students engaged in more in-school activities tended to have higher scores.

5.5.2 Social-movement citizenship

The importance of social-movement citizenship was measured using a four-item international attitude scale. The items ranged from participating in activities for the benefit of the local community to participating in activities that promote human rights. Table 5.5 shows the percentage of students in England who reported whether each item on the social-movement citizenship attitude scale was quite important or very important for being a good adult citizen.

Table 5.5   Social-movement citizenship

How important is it that a good adult citizen…	Not at all Important	Not Important	Quite Important	Very important	Don't know	NR
participates in activities to benefit people in the community	3	16	51	18	7	6
takes part in activities to protect the environment	4	17	45	23	5	6
takes part in activities promoting human rights	5	20	42	22	6	5
considers participating in a peaceful protest against a law believed to be unjust	9	24	34	12	17	5

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,894 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Combining the two scores reveals that participating in activities for the benefit of people in the community (69 per cent) was viewed as the most important social-movement action in being a good adult citizen. A majority of students also reported that taking part in activities to protect the environment (68 per cent) and promote human rights (64 per cent) were also important for being a good adult citizen. Less

than half the students considered participating in a peaceful protest against a law believed to be unjust (46 per cent) to be important for good adult citizenship.

The mean for students in England on the social movement citizenship scale was significantly below the international average. This highlights the fact that for students in England social movement citizenship actions and attitudes were viewed as of relatively little importance for good adult citizenship. Fitting the multilevel analysis to the social movement citizenship scale showed that girls were more likely than boys to report social movement activities as important. It also showed that students involved in more out-of-school activities tended to have higher scores on this scale, as did those students who had higher scores on the civic knowledge scale.

The international analysis of these scales reported that there were no significant differences between the scores of girls and boys in England on either the conventional citizenship or the social movement citizenship scales. This contradicts the multilevel analysis, which showed the scores of girls to be generally higher than boys in England on the social movement citizenship scale.

Combining the two international attitude scales concerning the concept of citizenship raises an interesting phenomenon across countries. It shows that in all participating countries, including England, young people were more likely to include social movement activities above conventional political activities in their concept of a good adult citizen. These 14-year-olds believe, with the exception of voting, that it is much more important for adults as citizens to be involved with community, environment and human rights organisations than to join political parties and participate in political discussions.

Rather worryingly, students in England regard both conventional and social movement activities as largely unimportant for good adult citizens. This mirrors the attitudes of young people in a number of northern European and Nordic countries who participated in the study, including Belgium (French), Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden and Finland. This lack of importance attributed to both conventional and social movement citizenship is a European phenomenon which requires further investigation within and across these countries.

5.6   Concept of Government

The concept of government is much more real to young people, based on their everyday life experiences in society, than the related concepts of democracy and citizenship. It is a concept that requires an understanding of the relationship between

the rights and responsibilities of individuals and those of government. Developing such understanding is an important part of citizenship education. The study attempted to find out students' opinions about the responsibilities of government. This raises interesting questions as to where young people set the limits between the responsibilities of government and the rights and responsibilities of individuals, groups and non-government organisations in modern society. Students were provided with a list of items and asked to decide to what extent each one was the responsibility of government. The results were measured using two distinct international attitude scales, namely *society-related government responsibility* and *economy-related government responsibility*.

5.6.1 Society-related government responsibility

The responsibility of government in relation to *society-related* issues was measured using a seven item international attitude scale. The items included fundamental societal issues such as providing health care and education and ensuring political opportunities for women. Table 5.6 shows the percentage of 14-year-olds in England who thought that each item was probably or definitely the responsibility of government. Over three-quarters of students in England reported that the government probably or definitely should be responsible for all of these issues.

Table 5.6   Society-related government responsibility

It is the responsibility of government…	Definitely not	Probably not	Probably	Definitely	Don't know	NR
to provide basic health care for everyone	1	3	10	79	2	6
to provide a decent standard of living for old people	1	3	22	66	3	6
to provide free basic education for all	1	4	12	74	3	6
to ensure equal political opportunities for men and women	1	5	18	67	4	6
to guarantee peace and stability within the country	2	6	23	59	4	6
to control pollution of the environment	3	11	29	47	4	6
to promote honesty and moral behaviour among people in the country	3	10	31	44	7	6

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,881 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Providing basic health care for everyone (89 per cent) was viewed as the most important society-related government responsibility. This was followed closely by providing a decent standard of living for old people (88 per cent), providing free basic education for all (86 per cent) and ensuring equal political opportunities for men and women (85 per cent). The majority of students also thought that government had a responsibility to guarantee peace and stability in the country (82 per cent), to control pollution of the environment (76 per cent) and to promote honesty and moral behaviour among people (75 per cent).

The mean for students in England on the society-related government responsibility scale was significantly above the international average. This highlights the importance that young people in England place on government having responsibility for fundamental society-related issues. Indeed, they see this responsibility as a central role of government in modern society. When the multilevel analysis was fitted to the society-related government responsibility scale, it showed that girls tended to have higher scores on this scale than boys, as did those students from homes with more books and higher educational expectations. Students with higher scores on the tests of civic knowledge and civic skills also tended to have higher scores on this scale.

5.6.2 Economy-related government responsibility

The responsibility of government in relation to *economy-related* issues was measured using a five-item international attitude scale. The items included guaranteeing jobs and keeping prices under control. Table 5.7 shows the percentage of 14-year-olds in England who thought that each item was probably or definitely the responsibility of government. Over half the students in England felt that the government should be responsible for all these issues.

Table 5.7   Economy-related responsibility

It is the responsibility of government…	Definitely not	Probably not	Probably	Definitely	Don't know	NR
to keep prices under control	1	7	29	56	3	6
to provide a decent standard of living for the unemployed	4	13	40	34	5	6
to provide industries with the support they need to grow	2	16	48	23	6	6
to guarantee a job for everyone who wants one	6	16	32	36	4	5
to reduce differences in income and wealth among people	5	17	35	26	11	6

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,881 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Keeping prices under control (85 per cent) was seen as the most important economy-related responsibility of government. Over two-thirds of young people thought that government had a responsibility in relation to the economy to provide a decent standard of living for the unemployed (74 per cent), to provide industries with the support they need to grow (71 per cent) and to guarantee a job for everyone who wants one (68 per cent). The majority of students also felt that government had a responsibility to reduce differences in income and wealth between people (61 per cent). The mean for students in England on the economy-related government responsibility scale was close to the international average. When the multilevel analysis was fitted, it showed that girls tended to have higher scores on this scale than boys.

The international analysis of these scales reported that there were significant differences between the scores of girls and boys in England, with girls attributing more society-related and economy-related responsibility to government than boys. This gender difference on these two international attitude scales is confirmed by the multilevel analysis for England.

Combining the two responsibility scales highlights the belief of 14-year-olds in the majority of participating countries, including England, that the responsibility of government is more for societal than economic issues. This is particularly the case in those participating countries, such as England, with a higher gross national product (GDP) and longer tradition of democratic government. The study's international report points out that this is in line with research findings about adult views of the concept of government (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001). It confirms the fact that young people of this age are already members of a political culture, and, as such, are subject to the influence of adults, peers and the mass media, as well as educational experiences. What is significant about students in England, compared to their counterparts in many other countries, is their high level of endorsement of the responsibility of government for society-related issues. This is especially true for girls.

5.7 Conclusion

Taken together, the attitudes and beliefs of young people in the study, including those in England, to the concepts of democracy, citizenship and government reveal a number of interesting trends. Fourteen-year-olds are aware of the ideals of democracy and agree on some of the basic roles and responsibilities of adults as good citizens. However, in terms of their own attitudes, young people are gravitating away

from conventional political participation towards organisations who address broader societal and community-based issues. These organisations are potentially more appealing to students than conventional organisations such as political parties. They are less hierarchical in their structures, easier for young people to join and address directly concerns that arise in students' daily lives.

The international report concludes that there is some evidence that these trends, identified in the study, fit with the notion of the growth of a 'new civic culture' (Dalton, 2000; Clark and Hoffman-Martinot, 1998). This 'new' culture is characterised by less hierarchy and more individual decision-making. It may explain why the generation of young people represented by the study's 14-year-olds, including those in England, is moving to actions linked to more informal social movement groups rather than those linked to more formal conventional political parties and groups. It could also explain why young people are showing much less interest in the formal political process, that associated with government and political parties, as well as in discussing political issues.

5.8   Summary

Civic concepts – students' concepts of democracy, citizenship and government

Democracy
♦ Fourteen-year-olds across countries, including those in England, recognise the importance of some basic features of democracy. Students in England believe that freedom of speech, free elections and support for women entering politics strengthen democracy. They believe democracy is weakened when politicians give jobs in government to family members, when wealthy people have undue influence on government and when mass media opinions are uniform.

Citizenship
♦ There was less consensus among young people across countries about the facets of good adult citizenship than about the concept of democracy. Fourteen-year-olds believe that obeying the law is the most important facet of the good adult citizen. Voting in elections is also seen as important. However, support for many types of conventional political activity appears to be weak. Though voting is seen as important in many countries, including England, young people believe that joining a political party and discussing political issues are of little importance for good adult citizenship. Community activities and involvement with non-partisan groups, such as environmental and human rights groups, have much more appeal to young people and are seen as part of an adult citizen's role. However, rather worryingly, in England, students rated both *conventional citizenship* and *social-*

movement citizenship as low in importance for good adult citizenship compared to the international mean for these measures.

Government

♦ Fourteen-year-olds are already members of a political culture. They possess concepts of the social and economic responsibilities of government that largely correspond with those of adults. They are more likely to believe that the government should take society-related responsibilities, such as providing free basic education or preserving order, than take responsibility for activities associated with the economy, such as reducing income inequalities or controlling prices. Significantly, the concept that government has society-related responsibilities is strongly endorsed by students in England.

♦ Fourteen-year-old boys and girls possess similar concepts of democracy and government responsibility. However, girls in England attribute more society-related and economic responsibilities to government than boys.

Conclusion

♦ Taken together, there is some evidence that the attitudes and beliefs of young people to the concepts of democracy, citizenship and government fit with the notion of the growth of a 'new civic culture'. This 'new' culture is characterised by less hierarchy and more individual decision-making. The generation of young people represented by the study's 14-year-olds, including those in England, is gravitating increasingly to actions linked to more informal social movement groups, rather than to those linked to more formal conventional political parties and groupings. Young people also show much less interest in political parties, as well as in discussing political issues. This possible shift in 'civic culture' is reflected in a distrust of political parties and, to a lesser extent, government.

6. STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS KEY CIVIC INSTITUTIONS AND GROUPS IN SOCIETY

6.1 Introduction

The acquisition of knowledge of the rights and responsibilities of citizenship, and of the main political and civic institutions of society, is a vital component of citizenship education. However, knowledge by itself is not enough for democratic societies to function effectively. There is also a need to foster agreement and adherence to common attitudes and beliefs concerning the main institutions and groups in society. Therefore, it is important that citizenship education also addresses not only the acquisition of civic knowledge, but also students' development of civic attitudes. As a consequence, the IEA Citizenship Education Study attempted to gauge the civic attitudes of young people through Part Three of the student survey, to complement the measurement of their civic knowledge and skills in Part One.

As was explained in the introduction to Chapter 5, these attitudes were measured in relation to the three core international domains of the study:

♦ Domain 1: Democracy and democratic institutions
♦ Domain 2: National identity and international relations
♦ Domain 3: Social cohesion and diversity.

In order to function, democratic societies require people to have, at least, a basic knowledge and understanding of the concepts and practices of democracy, citizenship and government. However, it is also important that citizens hold certain common attitudes. Chief among these is trust in the core public institutions at the heart of democratic society, such as government, police, courts, schools and the media.

This chapter examines the attitudes of young people in England to civic institutions and groups related to each core international domain. Attitudes for Domain 1, *democracy and democratic institutions*, were measured in relation to students' levels of trust in government, government-related and other institutions in society. This chapter then reviews the attitudes of young people in England in relation to the second and third core international domains. It focuses, in particular, on students' attitudes to the country or nation (the UK in this instance) and its national symbols, as well as the UK's relationship to other countries. This addresses the second domain of *national identity and international relations*. The chapter goes on to explore the level of student support for the political and economic rights of women and for certain rights

and opportunities for immigrants. This relates to the third domain of *social cohesion and identity*. The chapter concludes with an overall evaluation of the attitudes of students in England to the institutions and groups related to all three domains.

6.2 Trust in Government-related Institutions, the Mass Media and Other Institutions

The Phase 1 national case studies highlighted a concern in a number of countries about the levels of trust among young people in government-related institutions and in the media (Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999). In more established democracies, such as England, this was linked to apparent increasing levels of mistrust and cynicism, among young people, about these institutions. The study sought to follow up the concerns raised in Phase 1 and measure the levels of trust students had in key public institutions in society. Fourteen-year-olds were given a list of institutions and asked how much of the time they trusted each institution. The list included: government-related institutions, such as Parliament and local councils; the mass media, comprising television, radio and the press; and other institutions, such as schools and the United Nations (UN). The survey, in England, also asked students about their levels of trust in a number of other institutions relevant to the UK context, including the European Union (EU), the church and the armed forces.

6.2.1 Trust in government-related institutions

The results for these institutions were measured using an identified international scale, *trust in government-related institutions* (six items). Table 6.1 shows the percentage of students in England who reported whether they trusted each institution on a scale from 'never' to 'always'.

Table 6.1   Trust in government-related institutions

How much of the time do you trust…?	Never	Only some of the time	Most of the time	Always	Don't know	NR
the police	8	16	41	27	3	6
courts	6	23	44	13	8	6
Parliament	10	28	34	9	13	6
the local council of your town or city	9	32	36	6	11	6
the government in Westminster	10	28	27	3	26	6
political parties	17	38	24	4	11	6
N = 3,043						

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,875 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Overall, the levels of trust shown by young people in England were moderately high. Interestingly, the police were the most trusted government-related institution among

young people, with 68 per cent of students saying they trusted the police most of the time or always.   The next most trusted institution was the courts (57 per cent). Students had slightly more trust in Parliament (43 per cent) than in their local council (42 per cent).   However, less than one-third of young people trusted either government in Westminster (30 per cent) or political parties (28 per cent).   On balance, most students in England show neither absolute trust in, nor complete distrust of, these institutions.

Despite the moderate levels of trust, the results for students in England, on the trust in government-related institutions scale, did not differ significantly from the international average. This highlights the fact that students in England have similar levels of trust in government-related institutions as 14-year-olds in other participating countries. Or to put it another way, given the percentages, students in England have similar levels of mistrust in these institutions as their counterparts in other countries. For example, in the case of political parties, a majority of young people in England, (55 per cent) never trusted political parties or only some of the time.   When the multilevel analysis was fitted to this scale, it highlighted that those students from ethnic minority groups tended to have lower scores on this attitude scale, while those students involved in more out-of-school activities tended to have higher scores.

Students' trust of the government in Westminster was slightly below the international average for trust of national government, though it should be taken into account that over one-quarter of students answered 'don't know' in relation to this item.   The international report drew attention to the fact that the levels of mistrust of government-related institutions shown by those 14-year-olds living in established democracies, such as England, is similar to the levels shown by adults in those countries (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001).   There is no way of knowing whether these levels of mistrust shown by young people at this age will increase their determination to participate more forcefully in democracy and government in the future, or merely serve to further alienate them from such engagement and participation.

6.2.2   Trust in the mass media

The media is a growing influence in modern democratic societies in the transmission of information or news about democratic processes and institutions, and in the formation of opinions among young people and adults.   The study included three items that asked young people about their trust in the news media, in relation to news on television, on the radio and in newspapers.   Table 6.2 shows the percentage of students in England who reported whether they trusted each media source on a scale from 'never' to 'always'.

Table 6.2   Trust in the mass media

How much of the time do you trust…?	Never	Only some of the time	Most of the time	Always	Don't know	NR
news on television	4	27	41	20	3	6
news on radio	4	31	41	15	3	6
news in the press	14	52	21	5	4	6

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,875 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Interestingly, the results for England show that two of the news sources are highly trusted by young people, in stark contrast to the remaining one. News on television was seen as the most trusted media news source, with 61 per cent of 14-year-olds saying they trusted this news source 'most of the time' or 'always'. The majority of students (56 per cent) also showed high levels of trust in news on the radio. This is in stark contrast to the levels of trust of news in the press or newspapers. Only roughly one-quarter of young people in England (26 per cent) stated that they trusted news in the press 'most of the time' or 'always'. To turn this on its head, two-thirds of the students (66 per cent) reported that they never trusted news in newspapers, or only some of the time. This high level of mistrust of press news is a startling statistic and one that requires further analysis and explanation.

The pattern of trust of media sources in England is similar to that in other participating countries, with television news the most trusted source, followed by news on the radio and then news in the press (newspapers). However, there are considerable variations in the levels of trust for each news source and between participating countries, as shown in Table 6.3.[6]

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[6]   It should be noted that the international analysis of the student data was based on the valid percentage (i.e. omitting non-respondents) of those students who answered each question. The national analysis, upon which this report is founded, was based on a total percentage of all those students who answered each question. This difference in approach explains the slight variation between the statistics in the international report for students in England and those in this national report.

Table 6.3

Trust in Media and National Government

| Country | Percent of Students who trust always or most of the time in... |
	News on television	News on the radio	News in the press	The National Government
Australia	▼ 50 (1.0)	▼ 49 (1.0)	50 (1.0)	? 59 (1.1)
Belgium (French)	58 (1.7)	▼ 53 (1.7)	54 (1.8)	45 (1.6)
Bulgaria	58 (1.6)	55 (1.4)	▼ 44 (1.4)	▼ 30 (1.3)
Chile	64 (0.9)	▼ 56 (0.8)	54 (1.0)	▼ 37 (1.4)
Colombia	60 (1.4)	57 (1.4)	? 58 (1.4)	44 (1.8)
Cyprus	? 66 (0.9)	? 63 (0.9)	? 60 (0.8)	? 63 (0.9)
Czech Republic	▼ 56 (1.1)	▼ 55 (1.0)	51 (1.2)	▼ 40 (1.4)
Denmark	? 82 (0.7)	? 83 (0.7)	? 71 (1.1)	? 85 (0.7)
England	? 66 (1.1)	61 (1.0)	▼ 28 (0.9)	▼ 44 (1.3)
Estonia	62 (1.0)	62 (0.9)	53 (1.0)	▼ 40 (1.4)
Finland	? 75 (1.1)	? 68 (1.2)	? 61 (1.0)	? 55 (1.2)
Germany	▼ 54 (0.8)	56 (1.2)	53 (0.9)	▼ 44 (1.2)
Greece	▼ 42 (1.0)	▼ 45 (0.9)	53 (0.9)	49 (1.1)
Hong Kong (SAR)	▼ 59 (0.8)	57 (0.7)	▼ 34 (1.1)	49 (1.0)
Hungary	? 68 (1.0)	? 65 (1.0)	? 56 (1.1)	? 56 (1.3)
Italy	▼ 39 (1.1)	▼ 33 (1.0)	▼ 45 (0.9)	50 (1.2)
Latvia	66 (1.2)	62 (1.4)	50 (1.3)	▼ 34 (1.4)
Lithuania	? 75 (0.9)	? 73 (1.1)	? 63 (1.0)	▼ 41 (1.4)
Norway	? 71 (1.0)	? 68 (0.9)	? 60 (1.0)	? 72 (1.0)
Poland	? 68 (1.2)	? 66 (1.1)	? 57 (1.2)	▼ 39 (1.3)
Portugal	? 73 (0.8)	? 67 (0.9)	? 64 (0.9)	▼ 35 (1.2)
Romania	? 66 (1.1)	61 (1.3)	▼ 45 (1.3)	▼ 35 (1.6)
Russian Federation	61 (1.4)	▼ 54 (1.3)	▼ 44 (1.1)	▼ 29 (1.3)
Slovak Republic	▼ 58 (1.1)	58 (1.1)	53 (1.1)	51 (1.6)
Slovenia	▼ 52 (1.1)	▼ 51 (0.9)	▼ 38 (1.0)	▼ 16 (0.8)
Sweden	? 70 (1.5)	? 68 (1.2)	? 56 (1.2)	? 53 (1.4)
Switzerland	▼ 53 (1.1)	▼ 54 (1.4)	51 (1.1)	? 76 (1.3)
United States	▼ 53 (1.5)	▼ 48 (1.2)	? 60 (1.3)	? 65 (1.4)
International Sample	62 (0.2)	59 (0.2)	52 (0.2)	48 (0.2)

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.

? Country mean significantly higher than international mean.

▼ Country mean significantly lower than international mean.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study*, Standard Population of 14-years-olds tested in 1999.

The percentage of students in England who trust news on television is significantly above the international mean, while the percentage who trust news in the press is significantly below the international mean. Indeed, young people in England show the lowest levels of trust of newspapers of students in any of the 28 countries who participated in the study. This finding requires further investigation.

6.2.3 Trust in other institutions

The study also asked young people about their levels of trust of a number of other institutions in modern society. These were a combination of general institutions, such as schools, and those of more specific relevance to the UK context, such as the EU and the people who live in the UK. Table 6.4 shows the percentage of students in England who reported whether they trusted each institution on a scale from 'never' to 'always'.

Table 6.4   Trust in other institutions

How much of the time do you trust...?	Never	Only some of the time	Most of the time	Always	Don't know	NR
schools	6	16	45	25	3	6
the armed forces	8	20	38	17	8	10
United Nations (UN)	7	16	33	21	17	6
the people who live in the UK	5	30	36	13	11	6
Environmental organisations	8	31	34	7	9	11
the scientific community	10	25	29	8	17	11
the church	21	23	22	14	10	11
the European Union (EU)	11	25	28	6	19	11

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,875 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Overall, the levels of trust shown by young people in England in these institutions were moderately high. This is in line with the levels of trust of government-related and media institutions. Schools were the most trusted institution in modern society among young people, with 70 per cent of students saying they trusted them most of the time or always. This is a very positive finding in relation to citizenship education. This level of trust provides a strong foundation upon which to develop effective citizenship education in schools in England, based around the three interrelated aspects of social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy.

A majority of 14-year-olds in England also trusted the armed forces (55 per cent) and the United Nations (UN) (54 per cent), with just under half (49 per cent) trusting people who live in the UK. Students had slightly higher levels of trust in environmental organisations (41 per cent) than in the scientific community (37 per cent) and the church (36 per cent). Only just over one-third of young people (34 per cent) showed positive levels of trust in the European Union (EU). Interestingly, it was even so higher than their levels of trust of political parties and of the government in Westminster.

6.3 National Identity

National identity was raised in the Phase 1 national case-study reports as an issue worthy of further investigation. The first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971 had focused on patriotic rituals practised in schools, such as saluting the flag and singing the national anthem (Torney *et al.*, 1975). However, such rituals are almost non-existent in today's school systems. Of much more relevance are attitudes towards the country or nation. Therefore, the study sought to measure the attitudes and opinions of young people to their countries. Students were presented with a list of statements about the UK[7] and asked about the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement.

Factor analysis of the questions about national identity revealed two factors, one about protecting the country from outside influence (four items) and the second about positive attitudes towards one's nation (four items). The second factor was identified as an international attitude scale entitled *national identity*. This measure related to items about the importance of national symbols and emotional feelings about the country. The results obtained from students in England on both factors are reported here, though only the *national identity* scale was included in the international report (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001).

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[7]   It was made clear in the wording of the statements to students that 'our country' was being interpreted as the UK. A further footnote in the questionnaire explained to students that the term UK included England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The UK was chosen to represent 'our country or nation' because of the emphasis in some of the questions. A number of items asked students about national symbols. These symbols are generally thought of in a UK-wide rather than a purely English context. For example, when thinking of the 'national flag', it is the Union Jack that springs readily to mind rather than the Cross of St George. The study's International Report (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001) also uses UK statistics to represent England in tables of key characteristics of participating countries. This is because separate statistics are not available for England on the indices used.

6.3.1 Attitudes towards one's nation

Table 6.5 sets out the results obtained from the students in England on the four items that comprised the 'positive attitudes toward one's nation', or *national identity* international scale.

Table 6.5   Attitudes towards one's nation

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	NR
The UK should be proud of what it has achieved	2	5	52	28	7	6
I would prefer to live permanently in another country	29	33	11	8	13	6
The flag of the UK [the Union Jack] is important to me	7	20	38	21	9	6
I have great love for the UK	6	17	39	20	12	7

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,863 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Four-fifths (80 per cent) of 14-year-olds in England were proud of the UK's achievements and over half (59 per cent) subscribed to feelings of love for their country and attachment to the national flag. Meanwhile, almost two-thirds (62 per cent) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the negatively phrased statement: '*I would prefer to live permanently in another country.*' Two further questions, not included in the national identity scale, also provide information on attitudes of young people towards their country. Just over two-thirds (67 per cent) of young people disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement: '*there is little to be proud of in the history of the United Kingdom*', while just under half (48 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed about the importance of the national anthem to them. On the other hand, one-third of 14-year-olds did not feel pride in the history of the UK and half of them did not consider the national anthem important.

The mean for students in England on the national identity scale was significantly below the international average score. England was one of ten countries in this position, alongside Germany, Italy, Sweden, Latvia and others. Young people in England were less likely than students from other nations to consider the national flag important, or to admit to a love for their country or pride in its achievements. They were also less likely to disagree with a statement suggesting they might prefer to stay permanently in another country. However, it should be noted that scores were such that students in the lowest-scoring countries on this scale still did not exhibit truly negative attitudes towards their country. Rather, they were less positive in their

attitudes to the nation than students in other countries. There were no significant differences between scores for males and females in 18 of the countries. England was one of nine countries where boys had more positive attitudes (i.e. higher average score) to their nation than girls.

When further analysis was undertaken of the study outcomes in England, using multilevel modelling, it confirmed that girls in England had on average lower scores than boys on this scale. It also highlighted differences in responses between particular groups of students. For instance, students who were born in the UK and speak English at home had higher scores on this scale, while those students from minority ethnic groups tended to have lower scores than white students. Young people involved in more out-of-school activities also tended to have higher scores.

6.3.2 International relations

There were four items which measured the attitudes of students to the interaction between the UK and other countries, and, in particular, the extent to which other countries should influence the UK. There was no composite international scale for these items. Therefore, it was not possible to compare the responses of students in England to their contemporaries in other countries. Table 6.6 shows the responses of students in England to these four items.

Young people in England supported the need to defend the independence of the UK but this was balanced by a willingness to embrace the views, cultures and peoples of other countries. Almost three-quarters (73 per cent) of 14-year-olds agreed or strongly agreed that we should always be alert to stop threats from other countries to the UK's political independence. Fifty-eight per cent also agreed that we should prevent other countries from trying to influence political decisions in the UK. About half (51 per cent) stated that to help protect jobs in the UK, we should buy products made in the UK. Almost half (44 per cent) of students agreed that we should stop outsiders from influencing the UK's traditions and culture. In short, the majority of 14-year-olds in England are concerned to protect the UK's political independence and to resist changes to the UK's traditions and culture.

Table 6.6   International relations

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	NR
We should always be alert and stop threats from other countries to the UK political independence	1	8	44	29	13	6
We should prevent other countries from trying to influence political decisions in the UK.	3	19	40	18	13	6
To help protect jobs in the UK we should buy products made in the United Kingdom	5	27	42	9	11	6
We should stop outsiders from influencing the UK traditions and culture	12	25	25	19	14	6

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,863 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

6.4   Social Cohesion and Diversity

Social cohesion and diversity was identified in the Phase 1 national case-study reports as an area requiring further investigation (Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999). Many of the national case studies raised issues concerning the treatment and status of minority groups, immigrants and women in modern democratic societies. These arose from discussions about discrimination, disenfranchisement, inequalities and intolerance within and across countries. There were also questions as to how best to educate young people about such issues through citizenship education. These questions and issues were followed up in the study through attempts to ascertain the attitudes and opinions of young people to certain groups in society. Questions were included in Part Three of the student survey which sought to gauge the level of student support for women's political and economic rights, as well as their attitudes to immigrants' rights.

6.4.1 Support for women's political and economic rights

One of the features of the first Civic Education Study in 1971 was a focus on the attitudes of students to opportunities and rights for women (Torney *et al*., 1975). The current study built on and continued this focus. Students were presented with a list of statements concerning opportunities for women which asked about the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. Three of the items were drawn from the earlier 1971 study and a number of new ones were devised which addressed not only women's political rights, but also their economic rights in the public domain. Factor analysis led to the identification of an international attitude scale (six items)

entitled support for women's political and economic rights. Table 6.7 shows results for students from England on this scale.

Table 6.7   Support for women's political and economic rights

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	NR
Men and women should get equal pay when they are doing the same jobs	2	3	21	62	4	8
Women should have the same rights as men in every way	2	5	24	57	4	8
Women should run for public office (as Members of Parliament) and take part in the government just as men do	3	5	40	38	6	7
When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women	51	25	7	5	6	8
Men are better qualified to be political leaders than women	46	27	7	4	8	8
Women should stay out of politics	59	20	4	3	6	8

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,826 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

It should be noted, in looking at the table, that three of the items were phrased positively and three negatively. Over four-fifths of students in England agreed or strongly agreed that men and women should get equal pay for equal work (83 per cent). Over three-quarters of 14-year-olds also agreed that women should run for office and take part in government (78 per cent). Approximately one-tenth of young people in the English survey agreed that when jobs are scarce men, rather than women, should get a job (12 per cent), that men are better qualified to be political leaders than women (11 per cent) and that women should stay out of politics (seven per cent). It is more instructive, in terms of levels of student support for women's political and economic rights, to view the results of the last three items in negative terms. Viewed in this way, the last three statements show that approximately three-quarters of 14-year-olds in England disagreed or strongly disagreed that women should stay out of politics (79 per cent), that when jobs are scarce men should have more right to a job than women (76 per cent) and that men are better qualified to be political leaders than women (73 per cent).

England was one of four countries, along with Australia, Denmark and Norway, with a mean score on this scale significantly above the international average. This reveals high levels of support among young people in England for women's political and

economic rights, in comparison to students in other participating countries. Interestingly, the international report highlighted that support for women's political and economic rights was higher in those countries where many women are involved in national government and politics than in countries with few women in such positions (Torney-Purta *et al.,* 2001).

The international report also revealed significant gender differences in support of women's political and economic rights. Indeed, as can be seen in Table 6.8, in every participating country, including England, girls' scores were significantly higher than those of boys. This is the most striking gender difference in the whole survey. England was one of the countries where the difference between girls' and boys' scores was especially large. However, it should be noted that, overall, support for women's political and economic rights was high among students. Young people in England, viewed in relative terms, were especially supportive of women's political and economic rights. The scores of boys and girls in England were bettered by only two countries, Norway and Denmark, respectively. This confirms that boys in England were more supportive of women's political and economic rights than their counterparts in most other participating countries. The same applies to girls in England compared with girls in other countries.

Further analysis of the national and international data on this scale, using multilevel modelling, confirmed the gender difference in England, with girls having on average higher scores than boys. It also revealed that students who speak English at home had higher scores on this scale, as did those from homes with more books and higher educational expectations. Young people with higher civic knowledge and skills scores also tended to have higher scores on this scale, whereas those who spent more time out with friends in the evening tended to have lower scores.

6.4.2 Attitudes towards immigrants' rights

The Phase 1 national case studies recognised that discrimination against immigrants, ethnic minorities and foreign-born individuals is a widespread problem for social cohesion and diversity (Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999). This concern was addressed explicitly in Part Three of the student survey. Students were given a list of statements about the rights and opportunities of immigrants[8] and asked about the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. Factor analysis revealed a five-item international attitude scale entitled positive attitudes towards immigrants' rights. Table 6.9 shows the attitudes of 14-year-olds in England on this scale.

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[8]   There was no definition of 'immigrants' in the questionnaire, therefore students' responses were based on their own interpretations of what the term meant to them.

Table 6.8

Gender Differences in Support for Women's Political Rights

Country	Mean Score Females	Mean Score Males	8 10 12
Australia	11.5 (0.05)	9.7 (0.07)	
Belgium (French)	11.0 (0.09)	9.3 (0.13)	
Bulgaria	9.4 (0.13)	8.6 (0.08)	
Chile	10.3 (0.07)	9.3 (0.05)	
Colombia	10.5 (0.06)	9.7 (0.08)	
Cyprus	11.2 (0.05)	9.5 (0.06)	
Czech Republic	10.4 (0.07)	9.4 (0.05)	
Denmark	11.8 (0.04)	10.1 (0.07)	
England	11.6 (0.06)	9.8 (0.08)	
Estonia	9.9 (0.04)	8.9 (0.04)	
Finland	11.4 (0.05)	9.5 (0.06)	
Germany	11.3 (0.05)	9.7 (0.07)	
Greece	10.9 (0.06)	9.0 (0.07)	
Hong Kong (SAR)	10.0 (0.06)	9.2 (0.06)	
Hungary	10.4 (0.05)	9.1 (0.05)	
Italy	10.6 (0.08)	9.2 (0.06)	
Latvia	9.5 (0.07)	8.5 (0.06)	
Lithuania	10.0 (0.05)	8.9 (0.04)	
Norway	11.8 (0.05)	9.9 (0.06)	
Poland	10.9 (0.13)	9.2 (0.09)	
Portugal	10.4 (0.06)	9.8 (0.06)	
Romania	9.5 (0.07)	8.7 (0.06)	
Russian Federation	9.5 (0.05)	8.9 (0.07)	
Slovak Republic	9.9 (0.05)	9.1 (0.06)	
Slovenia	10.7 (0.06)	9.1 (0.05)	
Sweden	11.0 (0.07)	9.7 (0.09)	
Switzerland	11.3 (0.08)	9.7 (0.07)	
United States	11.4 (0.07)	9.6 (0.11)	

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.

▲ Gender difference statistically significant at .05 level.

⊢●⊣ = Mean for Males (± 2 SE).
⊢◇⊣ = Mean for Females (± 2 SE).

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study,* Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

Table 6.9   Attitudes toward immigrants' rights

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	NR
Immigrants' children should have the same opportunities for education that other children in the UK have	6	10	41	30	6	8
Immigrants should have the opportunity to [keep up] their own customs and lifestyle	7	11	45	20	9	8
Immigrants should have the opportunity to continue speaking their own language	10	12	43	19	9	8
Immigrants should have all the same rights that everyone else in a country has	7	14	38	24	9	8
Immigrants who live in a country for several years should have the opportunity to vote in elections	7	13	42	19	12	8

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,811 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

A majority of students in England agreed or strongly agreed with all the items on this scale. Over two-thirds (71 per cent) of 14-year-olds in England agreed that immigrants' children should have the same opportunities for education as other children in the UK. Slightly fewer young people (65 per cent), but still close to two-thirds, agreed that immigrants should have the opportunity to keep up their own customs and lifestyle. The majority also upheld the rights of immigrants to speak their own language (62 per cent), to have the same rights as everyone else (62 per cent) and to vote in elections after living in a country for several years (61 per cent). However, around one-third of all 14-year-olds disagreed with immigrants having such rights. This is a worrying finding, especially given anti-discrimination and pro-equal opportunities legislation.

The average score for students in England on the positive attitudes towards immigrants' rights scale was significantly below the international mean score. England was one of ten countries, all European, including Germany, Italy, Denmark and Switzerland, with lower scores. However, it should be noted that, overall, student attitudes towards immigrants' rights were generally positive in all the countries. Those students in the lowest-scoring countries did not show very negative attitudes towards immigrants. Rather, they were less positive in their attitudes to immigrants' rights than their counterparts in other countries. There were also significant gender

differences on this scale. Girls in 23 of the countries, including England, had higher scores than boys and, therefore, exhibited more positive attitudes towards immigrants.

Further analysis of this scale using multilevel modelling confirmed that girls in England had on average higher scores than boys. It also revealed that all ethnic minority students tended to have higher scores than white students. Young people from homes with more books and higher educational expectations also tended to have higher scores. However, while those students who went out in the evening tended to have higher scores on this scale, young people who spent more time with friends after school tended to have lower scores.

6.5   Conclusion

This chapter has examined the attitudes and beliefs of young people towards a number of key institutions and groups in modern democratic society. The results overall confirm a generally positive attitude among the majority of 14-year-olds in England to these institutions and groups, with moderate levels of trust towards government-related and other institutions, and sizeable support for the nation, women's political and economic rights and the rights of immigrants. These results need to be viewed alongside the findings from Chapter 5 concerning students' attitudes to the core concepts of democracy, citizenship and government. Taken together, the findings from these two chapters suggest that, despite much comment and debate, 14-year-olds in most participating countries do not feel fundamentally alienated in modern democratic society. They have not, as yet, taken wholeheartedly against the common attitudes and beliefs concerning the main institutions and groups, which enable democratic societies to function effectively.

However, there are some worrying signs in England concerning the potential connections between civic knowledge and attitudes and civic engagement and participation. Although many young people show support, in principle, for the main civic and political institutions, it is a different matter in practice. Fourteen-year-olds in England show signs of a lack of interest in actually interacting with many of these institutions, particularly those, such as political parties and the government at Westminster, associated with conventional political activity. It raises a question about opportunities for the engagement and participation of 14- to 18-year-olds in political and civil society as they move through to adulthood. How far will their civic knowledge and attitudes translate into effective civic engagement and participation? Only time will tell.

This chapter also raises concerns about the attitudes of a minority of young people in every country. Although young people overall have mostly positive attitudes towards the institutions and groups addressed in the survey, there are a minority of students in every country, including England, who exhibit especially negative attitudes. This is of particular concern when they apparently hold beliefs and attitudes which are discriminating and contrary to the law.

6.6   Summary

Trust

Trust in government-related institutions
♦   Fourteen-year-olds across countries, including those in England, are moderately trusting of their government institutions. Courts and the police are most trusted followed by national and local governments. In contrast, political parties are trusted very little. Students' trust of the national government in Westminster is slightly below the international mean. This lack of trust in conventional political institutions may be a growing feature of a shift towards a 'new civic culture'.

Trust in the mass media
♦   Students across countries express varying levels of trust in mass media sources. Overall, news presented on television is most trusted, followed by news on the radio and news in the press. In England, there is much greater trust among students of television news compared to trust of newspapers. The percentage of students in England who trust television news is above the international mean and the percentage who trust newspapers is considerably below the international mean. Indeed, students in England show the lowest level of trust of newspapers in any of the 28 countries involved in the study.

Trust in other institutions
♦   Fourteen-year-olds in England are moderately trusting of other institutions in modern society. Schools are the most trusted institution in society among students. This is followed by trust in the armed forces and the UN. The lowest level of trust is in the EU, but this is still higher than students' trust of political parties and of the government in Westminster.

National identity

Attitudes to one's nation
♦   Most young people have highly positive attitudes towards their country, its symbols and national identity. The large majority of students would not want to live permanently in another country. In most participating countries, the average young person has a sense of patriotism and of trust or attachment to the country as a political community or to government institutions (or to both). In England students have relatively less positive attitudes towards their country or nation (the

United Kingdom) compared to those in other countries, although boys have more positive attitudes about national identity than girls.

International relations

♦ The majority of 14-year-olds in England support the need to defend the independence of the UK, and to resist changes to the UK's traditions and culture. The majority trusted the United Nations but were wary of the European Union. However, while they sometimes read in newspapers about what is happening in other countries, they rarely discuss such news with their peers, parents or teachers.

Social cohesion and diversity

Support for women's political and economic rights

♦ Fourteen-year-olds in the study, including those in England, are largely supportive of women's political and economic rights. Students in England have one of the highest scores among participating countries on support for women's political and economic rights. Support for women's political rights tends to be stronger in countries that have many women in the national government than in those where there are few women in these positions. Girls are much more likely to be supportive of women's rights than boys in all countries. This is the most substantial gender difference found in the study. England is one of the countries where the gender difference is especially large. However, it is important to note that overall support is high for this measure. Boys in England are more supportive of women's political and economic rights than boys in most other participating countries. The same applies for girls in England compared to those in other countries.

Attitudes to immigrants' rights

♦ Fourteen-year-olds in the study are generally positive about immigrants and especially believe they should have equal educational opportunities. The majority of young people also support the right of immigrants to vote and to retain their language and culture. In virtually all countries, girls have more positive attitudes to immigrants than boys. Students in England have relatively less positive attitudes towards immigrants than in some other countries. However, it should be noted that the mean scores even in the lowest scoring countries on this scale do not indicate negative attitudes among the majority of respondents.

Conclusion

♦ Overall, the majority of 14-year-olds in England have a generally positive attitude towards the key institutions and groups examined in the study. They exhibit moderate levels of trust towards government-related and other institutions, and demonstrate sizeable support for the nation, women's political and economic rights and the rights of immigrants.

♦ The findings about *civic concepts* in Chapter 5 and *civic attitudes* in this chapter suggest that 14-year-olds in most participating countries do not feel fundamentally alienated in modern democratic society. However, there are worrying signs in England concerning potential connections between *civic attitudes* and *civic*

engagement. Fourteen-year-olds in England display a lack of interest in engaging with the main institutions associated with political activities, such as political parties.

♦ Overall, young people have mostly positive attitudes towards key civic institutions and groups in society. However, there is a minority of students in every country, including England, with especially negative attitudes which must be a matter of some concern.

7. STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO CIVIC ENGAGEMENT AND PARTICIPATION IN POLITICAL ACTIVITIES

7.1 Introduction

One of the main goals of citizenship education is to prepare students for active and responsible participation in the political process. Responsible participation is founded on developing an interest in politics, making use of news about civic and political issues, and discussing these issues with others. This chapter explores the level of interest students in England have in politics, as well as their exposure to and use of news media about political issues and events. It also examines the frequency of student participation in discussions about national and international politics in England. The chapter concludes with an investigation of students' current participation in political actions and expected participation as adults.

7.2 Political Interest and Exposure to Civic and Political News

Many of the countries in Phase 1 of the study referred to the central importance, in citizenship education, of getting young people to take an interest in politics and the political process. Nurturing this interest from an early age is vital if young people are to participate in the political process as adults. There is clearly a link between political interest and civic engagement and participation. The Phase 1 countries also made reference to the growing influence of media sources in shaping the civic and political opinions, as well as the potential actions of young people.

The majority of 14-year-olds are regular consumers of media news sources. The revolution in information and communications technologies (ICT) has heightened awareness of the power of the news media in the creation of knowledge, understanding and attitudes to the political process. With many young people at the cutting edge of this revolution, news media can be an influence as powerful as, if not more powerful than, schools in the formation of students' political knowledge and attitudes. However, Phase 1 of the study also revealed variation across countries in the extent to which 14-year-olds are explicitly encouraged critically to read or analyse newspapers or view news programmes as part of citizenship education (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999).

The study therefore, sought to measure, first, students' level of interest in politics, and secondly, the nature of their exposure to and interaction with political news in the media. Level of political interest was measured by one item. Students were asked to respond to the question: '*I am interested in politics…*', on a four-point scale ranging

from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Table 7.1 shows the response of students in England to this item.

Table 7.1   Interest in politics

Are you interested in politics?	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	NR
I am interested in politics	38	24	16	5	9	9

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,799 respondents answered this question.

The table shows that less than one-quarter of students in England (21 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: '*I am interested in politics…*', or put another way, nearly two-thirds of students in England (62 per cent) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. This figure is low, when compared to student levels of interest in politics in most other countries. It confirms, what is highlighted in other parts of the study, namely that young people in England lack interest in the institutions and practices of the conventional political system.

Table 7.2 sets the response of students in England within the context of responses from young people in the other 27 participating countries.[9] It highlights the fact that the level of interest of 14-year-olds in politics in most countries is moderate. However, the level of interest is low (one-quarter of students or less) in three countries: England, Finland and Sweden. It also reveals that in the majority of countries, including England, girls (21 per cent in England) are less interested in politics than boys (28 per cent).

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[9]   It should be noted that the international analysis of the student data was based on the valid percentage (i.e. omitting non-respondents) of those students who answered each question. The national analysis, upon which this report is founded, was based on a total percentage of all those students who answered each question. This difference in approach explains the slight variation between the statistics in the international report for students in England and those in this national report.

Table 7.2

Students' Reports on Their Interest in Politics

Country	Percent of Students Who 'Agree' or 'Strongly Agree' With the Statement 'I am Interested in Politics'		
	Total	**Females**	**Males**
Australia	? 31 (1.2)	28 (1.4)	35 (1.7)
Belgium (French)	38 (1.4)	35 (1.8)	41 (2.3)
Bulgaria	40 (1.4)	36 (1.6)	44 (2.2)
Chile	46 (1.4)	46 (1.9)	46 (1.6)
Colombia	63 (1.4)	63 (1.9)	64 (1.7)
Cyprus	? 66 (0.9)	60 (1.5)	73 (1.4)
Czech Republic	? 28 (1.0)	20 (1.4)	36 (1.5)
Denmark	? 30 (1.0)	26 (1.7)	34 (1.2)
England	? 25 (1.0)	21 (1.5)	28 (1.4)
Estonia	? 34 (1.1)	30 (1.3)	39 (1.4)
Finland	? 21 (1.1)	17 (1.5)	26 (1.5)
Germany	? 42 (1.1)	36 (2.1)	50 (1.6)
Greece	? 38 (0.9)	32 (1.2)	45 (1.5)
Hong Kong (SAR)	? 37 (1.2)	29 (1.4)	45 (1.6)
Hungary	? 39 (1.2)	35 (1.4)	43 (1.8)
Italy	? 44 (1.0)	38 (1.4)	50 (1.3)
Latvia	? 41 (1.1)	38 (1.6)	45 (1.5)
Lithuania	40 (1.0)	37 (1.6)	42 (1.4)
Norway	? 31 (1.1)	25 (1.3)	37 (1.6)
Poland	43 (1.9)	40 (2.7)	46 (3.1)
Portugal	35 (1.2)	32 (1.6)	38 (1.4)
Romania	45 (1.5)	41 (1.7)	49 (1.9)
Russian Federation	? 54 (1.6)	50 (2.0)	59 (2.1)
Slovak Republic	? 54 (1.1)	48 (1.7)	62 (1.8)
Slovenia	? 35 (1.1)	29 (1.3)	40 (1.4)
Sweden	23 (1.5)	20 (1.8)	25 (2.0)
Switzerland	? 33 (1.1)	25 (1.5)	42 (1.6)
United States	39 (1.4)	37 (1.7)	41 (2.2)
International Sample	39 (0.2)	35 (0.3)	44 (0.3)

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Percentages based on valid responses.

▲ Gender difference statistically
significant at .05 level.

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

The nature of students' exposure to and use of news media on political issues was measured by four items. These asked young people to gauge the frequency with which they listen to news broadcasts on television and radio and read articles about what is happening in their own and in other countries in newspapers. The survey in England also included an extra international optional item about the frequency with which students use the Internet to obtain news. This item is very topical given the emphasis, in England, on the Internet as a powerful tool for the development of effective citizenship education in schools.

Table 7.3 shows the percentage of students in England who responded to each item.

Table 7.3   Exposure to and use of the media

How often do you …?	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Don't know	NR
watch news broadcasts on television	5	15	34	34	3	9
read stories in the newspaper about what is happening in other countries?	8	17	37	26	3	9
read stories in the newspaper about what is happening in the UK	9	18	34	28	3	9
listen to news broadcasts on the radio?	15	25	29	19	3	9
use the internet to get information about politics or other countries	48	20	13	6	3	11

N = 3,43

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,68 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

The percentages are generally high across the items confirming that most 14-year-olds in England are regular consumers of the mass media. News broadcasts on television were the most prominent source of political information for young people in England. Sixty-eight per cent of students reported that they sometimes or often watched news broadcasts on television. Newspapers ranked second in prominence of use, followed by radio news broadcasts. The percentage of students using newspapers to find out what is happening nationally and internationally was virtually identical. Almost two-thirds of students reported using newspapers to read stories about what is happening in the UK (62 per cent) and also to read stories about what is happening internationally (63 per cent). Students made less use of radio as a source of political news (48 per cent) than television or newspapers.

Despite the spread of the Internet, there is still a considerable way to go if it is to fulfil its potential as a powerful tool for citizenship education. Less than one-fifth of students in England (19 per cent) reported that they used the Internet sometimes or often for information about politics or other countries. However, there is no way of knowing whether this was because students lacked access to the Internet or preferred to use more traditional news sources. Chapter 9 considers the views of teachers concerning levels of student access to computers and the Internet in citizenship education lessons.

The general trends for exposure to political news in England were similar to those in other participating countries. Though the percentage of young people in England who sometimes or often watched television news broadcasts (68 per cent) was high, compared to other news sources, it was low in comparison to the results in other countries. England was one of the countries with the least extensive viewing of television news broadcasts by students. In most countries, including England, there were no gender differences for acquisition of political information from television and newspapers. However, there were clear gender differences in exposure to news broadcasts on the radio. In many countries, including England, more girls than boys listen to radio news broadcasts.

7.3 Participation in Discussions about National and International Politics

One of the key skills that underpins the development of informed citizens is the ability to take part in discussions about topical political and civic issues. Discussions about politics can have an influence on levels of civic knowledge as well as the extent of future participation. Much depends on the frequency and quality of such discussions. The study attempted to find out the frequency with which 14-year-olds in each country had discussions about national and international politics. Young people were asked about their involvement in discussions about politics in the UK with their peers, their family and their teachers. They were asked the same question in relation to international politics. Tables 7.4 and 7.5 show the responses of students in England to both questions.

Table 7.4   Discussions about national politics

How often do you have discussions about what is happening in politics in the UK?	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Don't know	NR
With parents or other adult family members	23	29	25	11	3	9
With teachers	35	30	18	3	4	9
With people of your own age	47	25	12	4	3	9

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,768 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Table 7.5   Discussions about international politics

How often do you have discussions about what is happening in international politics?	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Don't know	NR
With parents or other adult family members	32	27	20	9	4	9
With teachers	39	27	17	3	4	9
With people of your own age	54	21	10	3	4	9

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,768 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

The responses indicate that students in England were more likely to discuss national and international politics with family members rather than with teachers or people of their own age. Thirty-six per cent of students reported discussing national politics and 29 per cent discussing international politics sometimes or often with family members. Frequent participation in discussions about politics with teachers was more limited, with only 21 per cent of students reporting discussion of national politics and 20 per cent discussion of international events. There was very little discussion of national (16 per cent) and international (13 per cent) politics by students with people of their own age.

Overall, these results indicate that 14-year-olds in England are involved in little or no discussion of politics, both national or international, at home, at school or with their peers. Put another way, almost three-quarters of the students say that they never or rarely discuss national or international politics with people of their own age. Roughly two-thirds of students never or rarely discuss national or international politics with teachers and over half never or rarely discuss politics with family members. Any

discussion that did take place was likely to be in the home with family members and to be about national rather than international politics.

These findings are a cause for concern given the potential link between political discussion and levels of civic knowledge and future participation. They suggest that students in England have little grounding in or experience of political discussion and are offered few opportunities for such discussion in their daily lives, even in schools. This lack of opportunity may be linked to low levels of interest and trust in the institutions and practices of conventional politics shown by young people in England elsewhere in the study.

7.4   Expected Participation in Political Activities

All the Phase 1 national case studies, including those for England, stressed that the central objective of citizenship education is to help young people become active adult citizens who participate in a range of political activities (Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999; Kerr, 1999a). This emphasis led to the focus on *democracy and democratic institutions* as the first of the three core international domains of the study. The political activities mentioned in Phase 1 ranged from voting and taking part in actions in communities, to attempting to influence political decision-making at all levels of society. These activities are a mixture of what the study defines, under the concept of citizenship, as *conventional citizenship* and *social-movement citizenship* activities.

7.4.1 Conventional participation

Intended participation in conventional citizenship activities was measured on an international attitude scale of five items. Subsequently, the scale was refined to comprise three of the five items from this set, write letters to a newspaper about social or political concerns; join a political party; and be a candidate in local government elections. The items *intention to vote in national elections* and *intention to get information about candidates before voting in an election* are reported as single items. Table 7.6 shows the percentage of students in England who responded to each item.

Table 7.6   Conventional participation in political activities

When I am an adult, I expect that I will …	Certainly not do this	Probably not do this	Probably do this	Certainly do this	Don't know	NR
vote in every election	7	10	40	28	6	10
get information about candidates before voting in an election	7	18	35	24	59	10
write letters to a newspaper about social or political concerns	30	40	10	3	8	10
join a political party	34	36	8	2	9	10
be a candidate in local government elections	38	35	6	2	9	10

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,758 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

The preferred future intended political activity for 14-year-olds in England is voting in national or general elections. Over two-thirds of students (68 per cent) stated that they would probably or certainly vote in general elections in the future. There were no significant differences between boys and girls. Though this figure is extremely positive, it should be remembered that the intention to vote, or not to vote, measured at age 14, is not necessarily a firm predictor of future voting behaviour. Attitudes to voting can change appreciably as young people progress from age 14 to 18, when they are legally entitled to vote. The finding is in line with student perceptions that the most important conventional action in being a good adult citizen is voting in every election (see Chapter 5). The majority of students (59 per cent) also reported that they would seek information about candidates before voting in an election.

However, it is clear that, intention to vote aside, the majority of students in England do not intend to participate in any conventional political activities in the future. Less than ten per cent of young people expected to be a candidate in local government elections (eight per cent), while only ten per cent were likely to join a political party and 13 per cent to write letters to a newspaper about social or political concerns. Put another way, over two-thirds of young people in England stated that they probably or certainly would not be engaging in such activities.[10] These findings reflect students' attitudes and beliefs on the concept of citizenship, as revealed in Chapter 5, that participation in conventional political activities is of little relevance to being a good adult citizen.

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[10]   However, the development of electronic communications (e.g. online discussions and newsgroups) may be changing the form of political involvement and this was not asked about in the survey.

The general finding for students in England concerning conventional political participation is in line with that across all countries. Voting aside, only a minority of young people intend to participate in conventional political activities. Another way of looking at it is that approximately four-fifths of 14-year-olds in all countries, including England, do not intend to participate in conventional political activities such as joining a political party. The mean for students in England on the conventional participation scale was significantly below the international average, confirming the low importance given to such activities by 14-year-olds in England. When the multilevel analysis was applied to the conventional participation scale, it highlighted that those students with higher educational expectations and those engaged in more in-school and out-of-school activities had higher scores on this attitude scale. Students with higher scores on the test of civic knowledge, but lower civic skills scores, also had higher scores on this scale.

7.4.2 Social-movement participation

Participation in social-movement citizenship activities was gauged through seven items. These items attempted to measure students' participation in different types of social movement activities. Two items – *collecting signatures for a petition* and *participating in a non-violent demonstration* – concerned participation in peaceful activities. Two further items – *collecting money for a social cause* and *volunteer time to help people in the community* – covered active involvement in the life of communities. The three remaining items – *spray-paint protest slogans on walls, block traffic as a form of protest* and *occupy public buildings as a form of protest* – addressed participation in illegal actions. Table 7.7 highlights the response of students in England to each of these items.

The most likely social-movement citizenship activity in which students in England will participate in the next few years is collecting money for a social cause or charity. Forty-five per cent of students stated that they would probably or certainly do this. This is in line with the results in another part of the survey where students were asked about their actual participation in civic-related organisations, including working with a charity collecting money for a social cause (see Chapter 8). Collecting money for a social cause or charity was closely followed by participation in volunteering time to help people in the community (41 per cent). This suggests that if 14-year-olds in England are to be involved in any sort of social-movement citizenship activities in the next few years, it is those linked to active involvement in the life of communities.

Table 7.7   Social-movement participation

I expect that in the next few years I will …	Certainly not do this	Probably not do this	Probably do this	Certainly do this	Don't know	Total %
collect money for a social cause	7	27	37	8	10	10
volunteer time to help people in the community	10	29	34	7	10	10
collect signatures for a petition	10	33	29	6	12	10
participate in a peaceful protest march or rally	19	38	16	5	7	10
spray-paint protest slogans on walls	44	27	7	5	7	10
block traffic as a form of protest	46	27	6	4	7	10
occupy public buildings as a form of protest	45	27	6	3	9	10

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,758 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Fewer than one-third of students reported that they were likely to participate in peaceful activities, including collecting signatures for a petition (35 per cent) and participating in a non-violent demonstration (21 per cent). Even fewer students believe that they will participate in illegal actions. Only a minority stated that they were likely to spray-paint protest slogans on walls (12 per cent), block traffic as a form of protest (ten per cent), or occupy public buildings as a form of protest (nine per cent). Put another way, over two-thirds of young people in England said that they probably or certainly would not participate in such illegal activities in the next few years.

The findings across countries vary according to the type of social-movement citizenship activity in question. Table 7.8 shows how students in England compare to 14-year-olds in other countries on measures of participation in activities related to both the lives of communities and peaceful protest.[11]

The general findings for England on 14-year-olds' attitudes to activities linked to participation in the lives of communities were similar to those in most other countries. More young people are willing to collect money for a social cause or charity than to

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[11]   It should be noted that the international analysis of the student data was based on the valid percentage (i.e. omitting non-respondents) of those students who answered each question. The national analysis, upon which this report is founded, was based on a total percentage of all those students who answered each question. This difference in approach explains the slight variation between the statistics in the international report for students in England and those in this national report.

undertake any other social-movement related activity. In a majority of countries, girls were much more likely than boys to be involved in collecting money. This was the case in England, with 68 per cent of girls reporting likely participation in such activity compared to 46 per cent of boys. The percentages in England for student involvement in collecting signatures for a petition were similar to the majority of countries. England was one of nine countries where more girls (54 per cent in England) stated they were likely to do this than boys (36 per cent).

Young people's expectation of participating in non-violent demonstrations was low in England compared to other countries. England was one of three countries, along with the Czech Republic and Finland, where less than one-third of students claimed they were likely to be involved in such action. There were no gender differences on this item. The percentage of students in England with the potential to be involved in illegal actions was also low in comparison to most other countries. However, as in the majority of countries, there were significant gender differences. Boys in England were much more ready than girls to say that they would spray-paint protest slogans (19 per cent of boys compared to nine per cent of girls), block traffic (15 and eight per cent respectively) and occupy buildings (13 and six per cent respectively). These are claims made about possible action by a small but perhaps not insignificant minority.

Table 7.8

Students' Reports on Expected Political Activities as an Adult

	Percent of Students who expect probably or definitely to...														
	vote in national elections				collect money for a social cause				collect signatures for a petition				participate in a non-voilent protest march		
Country		Total	Females	Males		Total	Females	Males		Total	Females	Males		Total	Females	Males
Australia	?	85 (1.0)	89 (1.0)	82 (1.4)	?	62 (1.3)	72 (1.5)	51 (1.9)	?	53 (1.2)	59 (1.8)	47 (1.8)		41 (1.2)	41 (1.6)	40 (1.6)
Belgium (French)	?	69 (2.0)	76 (2.2)	62 (2.8)	?	47 (1.8)	56 (1.7)	40 (2.5)	?	62 (1.4)	71 (1.4)	53 (2.3)		57 (1.4)	58 (1.4)	55 (1.7)
Bulgaria		58 (1.9)	62 (2.4)	55 (2.0)		51 (1.6)	55 (2.1)	48 (1.9)		34 (1.7)	32 (2.1)	37 (2.0)		38 (1.7)	35 (1.8)	42 (2.8)
Chile		74 (1.0)	75 (1.1)	74 (1.3)	?	85 (0.9)	89 (1.8)	81 (1.0)		77 (0.8)	78 (1.3)	75 (1.0)	?	47 (0.8)	42 (1.6)	51 (1.2)
Colombia		87 (1.3)	89 (1.4)	84 (1.7)	?	79 (1.3)	83 (1.4)	73 (1.5)		75 (1.2)	77 (1.1)	72 (1.7)		66 (1.2)	67 (1.6)	65 (1.7)
Cyprus		95 (0.5)	97 (0.5)	94 (0.8)	?	82 (0.7)	87 (0.9)	77 (1.2)		64 (1.0)	65 (1.2)	63 (1.5)		86 (1.0)	87 (0.8)	85 (1.1)
Czech Republic		65 (1.7)	63 (1.9)	66 (2.0)	?	28 (1.0)	33 (1.4)	24 (1.3)	?	29 (1.0)	33 (1.7)	24 (1.4)		28 (1.0)	26 (1.6)	31 (1.6)
Denmark	?	91 (0.7)	93 (0.7)	89 (1.1)	?	51 (1.3)	65 (1.8)	38 (1.5)		43 (1.2)	46 (1.8)	39 (1.4)		46 (1.2)	47 (1.6)	45 (1.5)
England		80 (1.0)	82 (1.2)	78 (1.7)	?	57 (1.2)	68 (1.4)	46 (1.6)	?	45 (1.0)	54 (1.4)	36 (1.4)		28 (1.0)	28 (1.2)	27 (1.4)
Estonia	?	68 (1.1)	72 (1.3)	64 (1.7)	?	41 (1.2)	46 (1.6)	36 (1.5)		33 (1.2)	35 (1.8)	31 (1.4)		37 (1.2)	34 (1.3)	39 (1.6)
Finland	?	87 (0.7)	89 (1.1)	84 (0.9)	?	45 (1.3)	57 (2.0)	32 (1.5)	?	27 (1.0)	31 (1.5)	22 (1.4)		21 (1.0)	23 (1.6)	19 (1.2)
Germany		67 (1.1)	65 (1.5)	71 (1.3)	?	54 (1.2)	62 (1.4)	45 (1.6)	?	41 (1.3)	47 (1.7)	35 (1.4)		38 (1.3)	38 (1.6)	37 (1.0)
Greece	?	86 (0.9)	91 (1.0)	82 (1.4)	?	79 (0.9)	87 (1.2)	71 (1.4)	?	46 (1.2)	40 (1.6)	51 (1.6)		78 (1.2)	78 (1.3)	78 (1.0)
Hong Kong (SAR)		80 (1.0)	83 (1.3)	78 (1.2)	?	78 (0.9)	84 (1.1)	73 (1.1)		59 (0.8)	59 (1.3)	59 (0.9)	?	46 (0.8)	41 (1.1)	52 (1.3)
Hungary	?	91 (0.7)	93 (0.7)	89 (1.0)		46 (1.2)	49 (1.5)	43 (1.5)	?	45 (1.1)	51 (1.4)	39 (1.5)		37 (1.1)	35 (1.5)	39 (1.7)
Italy	?	80 (1.1)	84 (1.3)	77 (1.6)	?	65 (1.2)	73 (1.2)	56 (1.4)		47 (1.0)	50 (1.5)	45 (1.4)	?	70 (1.0)	74 (1.0)	66 (1.6)
Latvia	?	71 (1.3)	78 (1.4)	64 (1.9)	?	57 (1.6)	62 (1.8)	52 (2.1)		44 (1.5)	46 (2.2)	42 (1.7)		39 (1.5)	38 (1.7)	40 (1.9)
Lithuania	?	80 (1.1)	83 (1.3)	76 (1.6)	?	49 (1.1)	53 (1.3)	43 (1.6)		34 (1.1)	35 (1.4)	34 (1.7)		35 (1.1)	33 (1.4)	37 (1.6)
Norway		87 (0.7)	89 (1.0)	85 (1.1)	?	68 (1.1)	78 (1.4)	58 (1.5)		32 (1.2)	33 (1.5)	31 (1.5)		39 (1.2)	40 (1.7)	38 (1.7)
Poland	?	88 (1.2)	92 (0.8)	83 (1.8)	?	57 (1.7)	68 (1.7)	45 (2.4)		48 (1.1)	51 (1.3)	44 (2.0)		43 (1.1)	41 (1.8)	45 (1.9)
Portugal		88 (0.8)	87 (1.0)	88 (1.0)	?	74 (1.0)	79 (1.2)	70 (1.5)		54 (1.3)	57 (1.8)	51 (1.7)		42 (1.3)	38 (1.8)	45 (1.6)
Romania		82 (1.1)	84 (1.5)	81 (1.6)		73 (1.2)	75 (1.6)	71 (1.6)		46 (1.7)	44 (1.9)	48 (2.1)	?	41 (1.7)	32 (1.8)	48 (1.5)
Russian Federation	?	82 (1.0)	85 (1.4)	78 (1.5)		56 (1.4)	58 (1.6)	55 (2.0)		34 (1.0)	32 (2.1)	36 (2.2)	?	46 (1.0)	41 (1.7)	52 (2.1)
Slovak Republic	?	93 (0.6)	95 (0.7)	91 (0.9)	?	40 (1.3)	45 (1.7)	35 (1.8)		32 (1.2)	35 (1.8)	30 (1.7)	?	39 (1.2)	35 (1.9)	43 (1.6)
Slovenia	?	84 (1.0)	87 (1.2)	80 (1.3)	?	68 (1.0)	77 (1.2)	60 (1.4)		36 (1.2)	34 (1.5)	38 (1.7)		35 (1.2)	32 (1.4)	38 (1.5)
Sweden	?	75 (1.4)	79 (1.9)	71 (1.4)	?	42 (1.3)	53 (2.1)	30 (1.9)		31 (1.8)	32 (2.2)	29 (2.1)		36 (1.8)	35 (2.0)	36 (2.5)
Switzerland		55 (1.3)	52 (1.8)	58 (1.8)	?	55 (1.2)	64 (1.6)	46 (1.3)	?	42 (1.1)	47 (1.5)	37 (1.4)		40 (1.1)	40 (1.3)	40 (1.5)
United States	?	85 (1.0)	89 (0.9)	80 (1.6)	?	59 (1.5)	69 (1.8)	49 (2.2)	?	50 (1.5)	56 (2.2)	44 (1.8)		39 (1.5)	42 (1.6)	36 (1.8)
International Sample		80 (0.2)	82 (0.3)	77 (0.3)		59 (0.2)	66 (0.3)	52 (0.3)		45 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	43 (0.3)		44 (0.2)	43 (0.3)	45 (0.3)

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Percentages based on valid responses.

▲ Gender difference statistically significant at .05 level.

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

7.5   Summary

Civic engagement and participation in political activities

Political interest and exposure to civic and political news

♦ At age 14, young people are only moderately interested in politics in most countries. Only one-quarter of the students in England agreed or strongly agreed with the statement in the survey: '*I am interested in politics.*' In the majority of countries, including England, girls were less interested in politics than boys.

♦ Most 14-year-olds are regular consumers of the mass media. However, the extent to which they are explicitly encouraged critically to read or analyse newspapers or view news programmes as part of citizenship education varies across countries. In almost all countries, including England, news broadcasts on television were the most prominent sources of political information for young people. Newspapers ranked second, followed by radio news broadcasts. England was one of the countries with the least extensive consumption of television news broadcasts by students. In many countries, including England, more girls than boys listened to radio news broadcasts.

Participation in discussions about national and international politics

♦ Students in England were most likely to participate in discussions about politics with family members, rather than teachers or people of their own age. However, overall the majority of students in England were involved in little or no discussion of political issues at home, at school or with their peers. Young people in England have few opportunities to experience political discussions. This lack of opportunities may have a detrimental effect on students' knowledge, attitudes and engagement with the political process.

Expected participation in political activities

♦ Voting in national elections is by far the most preferred intended conventional political activity of 14-year-olds. A majority of students in the study expressed a readiness to vote as adults. In England over two-thirds of students said they would vote in general elections. However, it should be remembered that the intention to vote, or not to vote, assessed at age 14, is not necessarily a predictor of future voting behaviour. Collecting money for a social cause (charity work) ranked as the second most likely political activity in which young people would participate. This was preferred by more girls than boys in most countries, including England.

♦ A majority, approximately four-fifths of 14-year-olds in all countries, including England, do not intend to participate in *conventional political activities*, such as joining a political party, writing letters to newspapers about social and political concerns and being a candidate for a local or municipal office. England was one of the countries below the international mean on the conventional participation scale.

♦ The most likely *social-movement activities* in which students in all countries, including England, will participate are collecting money for a social cause or charity and volunteering to help people in the community. Girls were more likely than boys to participate in such activities.

- Participation in non-violent protests and illegal protest activities varies across countries. In England the percentage of students likely to engage in these activities was low compared to most other countries, with only one-third claiming that they might participate in non-violent demonstrations. Only a minority of students in all countries – mainly boys – claimed that they were likely to engage in illegal protest activities such as spray-painting slogans on walls, blocking traffic and occupying buildings.

8. STUDENTS' VIEWS OF OPPORTUNITIES FOR CIVIC ENGAGEMENT IN CLASSROOMS, SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITY ORGANISATIONS

8.1 Introduction

Schools and community organisations are environments that are part of the everyday lives and experiences of young people. They have the potential to have a considerable influence on the development of civic knowledge and skills among young people, as well as on attitudes to civic participation and engagement. This is particularly the case with schools. The nature of the interactions that students have with the formal and informal processes of schooling can have a direct influence on the outcomes of citizenship education.

The Phase 1 national case studies raised a number of questions concerning the nature and extent of these interactions (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999). These included:

- ♦ To what extent do schools and community organisations enable young people to develop practices of citizenship and to increase their confidence and ability to be active participants in school and community life?

- ♦ What is the impact of personal interaction between students and teachers and between young people, and with those in the wider community, on learning to be a citizen?

- ♦ How far do schools provide models of democratic processes, which encourage students to discuss, and explore their attitudes to, and opinions on, topical and contemporary issues which interest them.

- ♦ How well do schools help prepare students for civic participation?

- ♦ Is there a gap between what schools intend to teach in citizenship education and what students believe they are learning?

The survey attempted to provide answers to these and other questions by measuring the extent to which students perceive schools and community organisations as places where they can develop citizenship practices, as well as confidence in their ability to be effective participants in a broader community. This chapter explores the views of students about their opportunities for civic engagement and participation in schools, classrooms and community organisations. It examines four aspects in particular:

- ♦ the level of students' confidence in the effectiveness of participation at school;

- ♦ what young people think they are learning in school;

- ♦ the degree of openness of the classroom climate for discussion;

- ♦ the types of civic-related organisations to which students belong.

8.2   Confidence in the Effectiveness of School Participation

The notion of *efficacy* – the sense that people can make a difference – is central in studies of political socialisation. It is often measured in relation to *political efficacy*: the extent to which citizens can make a difference in government decision-making. The first IEA study in 1971 (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1975) included a number of items which sought to measure young people's political efficacy. However, schools and community organisations are also places where young people can experience efficacy, and become aware of the extent to which they can make a difference in school and community decision-making.

The study sought to investigate *efficacy* in relation to both government and schools. A number of items concerning political efficacy, drawn from the first IEA study, were included alongside others which sought to measure students' views of, and confidence in, their ability to make a difference to decision-making in school. The items ranged from views about the election of student representatives, to students working together to solve problems at school. Students were asked specifically about the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the items. The results were measured using an identified international scale, *school participation* (four items). Table 8.1 shows the results for students in England on this scale.

Table 8.1   Confidence in school participation

Participation in school life	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	NR
Students acting together can have more influence on what happens in this school than students acting alone	3	6	39	33	9	9
Lots of positive changes happen in this school when students work together	3	10	49	22	7	9
Organising groups of students to state their opinions could help solve problems in this school	3	8	50	21	9	9
Electing student representatives to suggest changes in how the school is run makes schools better	4	9	45	25	9	9

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,785 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Just under three-quarters (72 per cent) of students in England agreed or strongly agreed that students acting together could have an influence on what happens in school rather than students acting alone. A considerable majority also agreed or

strongly agreed that lots of positive changes happen in school when students work together (71 per cent), that organising groups of students to state their opinions could help solve school problems (71 per cent) and that electing student representatives to suggest change makes school better (70 per cent). This suggests that a significant majority of students in England have had some positive experience of students working together at school, either formally or informally, to solve issues or problems and improve the school. This mirrors the findings for students in other participating countries. The scores for 14-year-olds in England on the school participation scale were close to the international average.

When the multilevel analysis was fitted to the school participation scale, it highlighted that girls in England had, on average, higher scores on this scale than boys. This was also the case in 15 other countries that participated in the study, suggesting that girls have more confidence in the effectiveness of school participation than boys. The multilevel analysis also revealed that ethnic minority students tended to have higher scores on this scale than other students, as did those young people involved in more activities, both in and out of school. Those students with higher scores on the civic skills scale also tended to have higher scores on this scale.

There were two efficacy items which it was not possible to scale internationally. These items asked students about their readiness to participate, as individuals, in discussions about school issues and problems. Interestingly, the findings were less positive than for the other school efficacy items. Just under half of young people (46 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: '*I am interested in participating in discussions about school issues*', while just over half (52 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: '*when school problems are discussed I usually have something to say.*' This suggests that the majority of students believe, in principle, that working together to solve school issues or problems can be very effective. However, when they are given the opportunity, in practice, to discuss such issues, students are not as keen to participate. This may reflect a lack of confidence on the part of students.

The study has identified, through the school participation scale, a new measure of efficacy, that of **school efficacy** – of student confidence in being able to participate and make a difference in decision-making at school. This measure may be as important a factor on future engagement and participation as the more common measure of **political efficacy**. Schools are environments that are part of the everyday experiences of young people. They provide opportunities to engage with and

participate in 'real' rather than 'anticipated' issues and problems. Interestingly, the international findings suggest a link between school participation and intended adult participation. Those countries that scored highest on the scale of school participation also scored highest on the scales concerning conventional citizenship and social-movement citizenship, as well as on the international scale of intention to participate in political activities as adults. However, it should be remembered that willingness to participate at age 14 does not automatically translate into participation once young people become adults.

8.3   Students' Views of their Learning

IEA studies have traditionally used measures of 'opportunity to learn'. These have usually been completed by teachers, rating the extent to which students have had opportunities to learn about the material upon which the student tests are based. It was felt that the nature of citizenship education made this approach unworkable. However, it was still considered important to find out what students believed they had learned in school in relation to citizenship education. This was reinforced by the results of focus group interviews with students during the Phase 1 national case studies (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999). These revealed that there were gaps in many countries between what schools intended to teach and what students perceived they had learned in this area. It was important to try to gauge the nature and extent of such gaps, and, therefore, to ascertain both the learning opportunities teachers believed they provided (see Chapter 9) and students' perceptions of what they had learned in school in relation to citizenship education.

Based on the suggestions of the NRCs, a scale of seven items was developed to investigate students' views of their own learning. The items ranged from views on whether they perceived they had learned to work together in groups, to cooperate with other students and to contribute to solving community problems, to views on whether they had learned to protect the environment, to be patriotic, and to understand the importance of voting in national and local elections. Students were asked about the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that they had been given the opportunity to learn about each item. These items were all analysed separately.

Table 8.2 shows the results for England for these items. The results for young people in England are similar to those from other participating countries. The majority of students in England believe they have learned in school to work together in groups and cooperate with other students (82 per cent) and to understand people who have different points of view (77 per cent). This underlines the powerful role that schools

play in helping students to understand people, to work together and to develop tolerance.

Table 8.2   Opportunity to learn

Have learned in school…	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	NR
to work together in groups and cooperate with other students	1	4	50	32	4	9
to understand people who have different ideas or points of view	4	5	55	22	5	9
how to act to protect the environment	4	15	49	15	8	9
to be concerned about what happens in other countries	5	16	46	15	9	9
to contribute to solving problems in the community	4	21	44	13	10	9
to be a patriotic and loyal citizen of my country	9	26	31	11	13	9
about the importance of voting in national and local elections	14	31	24	7	15	9

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,774 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

More than three-fifths of students in England agreed or strongly agreed that they had learned how to protect the environment (64 per cent) and to be concerned about what happens in other countries (61 per cent). More than half (57 per cent) of students also agreed or strongly agreed that they had learned how to contribute to solving problems in the community. Fewer students agreed that they had been taught to be loyal and patriotic citizens of their country, with only 42 per cent either agreeing or strongly agreeing with this item compared to 64 per cent of the international sample.

The item that drew the lowest response rate was that concerning the importance of voting in national and local elections. Less than one-third (31 per cent) of students in England agreed or strongly agreed that they had learned about this topic in school. This low rating was similar to the results in the majority of participating countries. This perception among students, that schools do not place much emphasis on teaching about the importance of voting in local and national elections, needs to be seen in the context of findings in other parts of the study.

Chapter 7 highlighted the fact that the most preferred future intended political activity for 14-year-olds in England is voting in national or general elections. Over two-thirds of students (68 per cent) stated that they would probably or certainly vote in general

elections in the future. The next chapter, Chapter 9, addresses teachers' intentions in relation to the topic of elections. It reveals that half the teachers surveyed (50 per cent) reported that they taught about the importance of voting in local and general elections. These two findings reveal a considerable mismatch between teacher intentions and student perceptions about this topic. While half the teachers think they teach about the importance of voting in national and local elections, less than one-third of students perceive that they have learned about the topic. The critical finding here is that half (50 per cent) of the teachers surveyed do not cover the issue of elections in the curriculum.

Taken together, these findings raise concerns about the potential relationship between students' levels of understanding and their future intended engagement and participation in the political system. The majority of students believe, in principle, that it is important adult citizens exercise their right to vote in national and general elections. However, in practice, they have few opportunities in school to understand the process of voting and, in particular, to learn about the kinds of conflict that lead to differing political positions and the debate and discussion that surround election campaigns. The concern is the impact of this lack of understanding. To what extent will this lack of understanding of the electoral process contribute to a lack of commitment among students to vote in the future, or indeed participate in any political activity? Although over two-thirds of 14-year-olds in England, who took part in the study, said they would vote in the future, this might not necessarily be a predictor of actual future behaviour. There may be a considerable gap between 'intended' and 'actual' behaviour.

8.4   Classroom Climate for Discussion

Previous research has revealed the importance for citizenship education of the extent to which students are given opportunities in their classrooms to investigate issues and explore their opinions alongside those of other students. The 1971 Civic Education Study (Torney *et al.*, 1975) found that students' beliefs that they were encouraged to speak openly in class was a powerful predictor of knowledge of, and support for, democratic values, and also for their participation in political activities both in and out of school. The Phase 1 case studies revealed a consensus among teachers that schools and classrooms could provide an environment for modelling the democratic process and giving young people opportunities actively to participate in this process through discussion and debate (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999). Teachers saw schools and classrooms as important settings for shaping attitudes and equipping young people with the confidence and skills to be active participants in the wider community.

Twelve items were developed to measure classroom climate. Six items addressed the extent of openness of classrooms for discussion, and six dealt with teaching and learning activities, such as frequency of use of textbooks and lectures. *Classroom climate for discussion*, that is the extent to which the classroom is an environment in which students are encouraged to discuss freely their own views and opinions, was analysed using a six-item international attitude scale. The items ranged from views on the extent to which students felt able to make up their own minds about issues and felt free to express opinions which are different from the majority. Items also covered the extent of teachers' respect for students' opinions and encouragement to challenge other people's views. Students were asked about the frequency of opportunity for such an open classroom climate for discussion, with responses ranging from 'never' to 'often'. The results for students in England on this scale are shown in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3   Open classroom climate for discussion

In my school	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Don't know	NR
Students are encouraged to make up their own minds about issues	3	10	30	42	5	10
Students feel free to express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from most of the other students	5	16	35	27	7	11
Teachers respect our opinions and encourage us to express them during class	8	14	31	31	5	10
Teachers present several sides of an issue when explaining in class	6	14	35	26	9	11
Students feel free to disagree openly with their teachers about political and social issues during class	10	18	30	24	9	10
Teachers encourage us to discuss political or social issues about which people have different opinions	14	26	29	10	11	11

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,740 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

The findings indicate that students in England do not consider their classrooms to be places which are very open for discussion. Less than half of the students reported that *any* of the opportunities for open discussion occurred 'often'. Only two-fifths (42 per cent) reported that students were 'often' encouraged to make up their minds about

issues, and just under one-third (31 per cent) perceived that teachers 'often' respected students' opinions and encouraged them to express them during class.

Fewer students reported they 'often' felt free to express opinions that were different from those held by most of the other students (27 per cent) or to disagree openly with their teachers in class (24 per cent). Only ten per cent said that their teachers 'often' encouraged them to discuss political issues about which people had different opinions, with just over one-quarter (24 per cent) saying this rarely happened. Taken together, the findings indicate that the emphasis in many classrooms is on reaching agreement on issues rather than on airing and discussing differences of opinion.

The mean score for students in England on the *classroom climate for discussion* scale was the same as the international mean score. Students in the majority of participating countries reported that an open classroom climate for discussion in citizenship education was uncommon. Interestingly, the countries which scored significantly below the international mean on this scale were those where considerable changes in civic or citizenship education have been experienced over the past ten years. These countries include those in central and eastern Europe, such as Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary and Lithuania, as well as Hong Kong (SAR) and Portugal. In these countries, the changes have brought a focus on the new content of citizenship education and the challenges of training teachers for that new content. This appears to have been at the expense of promoting an open classroom climate for discussion.

There are some important lessons for England to learn here, given the context of the change in citizenship education currently under way in schools. This is in response to the recent policy initiative, which has seen the introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory subject for 11- to 16-year-olds from September 2002. It raises, in particular, the need for training in England to focus not just on the new content, but also on the active processes of discussion, debate, participation and engagement which lie behind Citizenship as a new subject. Only through a balanced approach, which stresses knowledge and understanding alongside skills, will teachers be enabled to meet the challenges of developing effective citizenship education in schools in England.

Further analysis, using multilevel modelling, highlighted that girls scored higher than boys on this scale, i.e. that a higher proportion of girls than boys perceived that their classrooms are more open for discussion. This was the case in the majority of participating countries. The further analysis also showed that those students in

England with higher civic knowledge and skills scores tended to have higher scores on this scale, as did those who engaged in more out-of-school activities.

The other six items developed to measure classroom climate, those dealing specifically with teaching and learning activities, were not analysed using an international scale. However, the results of these items for students in England make interesting reading when viewed alongside the results of the international scale for *classroom climate for discussion*. The results for students in England are shown in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4   Teaching and learning activities

In my school …	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Don't know	NR
students work on material from the textbook	2	6	37	38	6	11
teachers place great importance on learning facts or dates when presenting history or political events	6	14	33	26	11	11
teachers require students to memorise dates or definitions	5	18	37	22	8	11
teachers lecture and the students take notes	9	23	35	16	6	11
memorising dates and facts is the best way to get a good mark from teachers in these classes	10	22	34	13	11	11
students bring up current political events for discussion in class	22	32	20	6	8	11

N = 3,043

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 2,740 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Three-quarters of students reported that the most frequent teaching and learning activity was working on material from the textbook. Almost two-fifths of students (38 per cent) reported that this happened 'often'. Teachers also placed a premium on students learning and memorising facts, dates and definitions, with almost two-thirds (59 per cent) of students stating that this happened during lessons and 47 per cent said it was the best way of securing good marks from the teacher. More than half the students (51 per cent) also said that lessons sometimes or often consisted of teachers lecturing and students taking notes. More than half (54 per cent) also reported that they rarely or never brought up current political events for discussion, suggesting that this type of approach was not common. The findings on teaching and learning activities support those on classroom climate for discussion. They suggest that

students have limited opportunities in classrooms for discussion of political and social issues. Instead, the norm is for a didactic rather than an open approach, with an emphasis on teacher talk, the use of textbooks and the memorising of information. Where discussion does take place the aim is to seek consensus rather than to acknowledge and explore different points of view.

8.5   Participation in Civic-Related Organisations

Schools and community organisations are environments that offer students opportunities to work together with other young people and adults in a range of civic-related organisations. Such opportunities provide first-hand experiences of real participation and engagement for students in settings that matter to them, notably in school. These experiences can have positive effects on the development of civic knowledge and skills among young people, as well as on their attitudes to current and future civic participation and engagement.

The Phase 1 national case studies highlighted the important role of school and community organisations in providing such opportunities and experiences for young people (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999). The survey, therefore, sought to investigate the range of opportunities provided for student participation in such organisations, both in and out of school, and the extent of student take-up of such opportunities. A list of 15 voluntary organisations to which students might belong, in and outside school, was drawn up with the assistance of the National Research Coordinators. The organisations ranged from sports teams and school councils to environmental clubs, voluntary activities in the community and human rights organisations. Students were asked whether they had participated in any of the organisations or activities. The items were analysed separately. The results for students in England are shown in Table 8.5.

The organisation or activity in which students in England reported the highest participation rate was a sports organisation or team. About half the students in England reported participating in such an organisation or team, both in school (52 per cent) and out of school (49 per cent). Two-fifths of young people said that they were involved with scouts, guides or cadets out of school (40 per cent). Over one-third of students also reported participation in collecting money for a charity, both in (39 per cent) and out of school (35 per cent). However, student participation rates in other civic-related organisations in England, both in and out of school, were low.

Table 8.5   Student participation in civic-related organisations

Have you participated in any of the following activities or organisations in school and/or out of school?	In-school %	Out of school %
A sports organisation or team	52	49
Collecting money for a charity	39	35
An art, music or drama organisation	28	22
Preparing a school magazine or newspaper	23	4
A school and/or class council, or a mock parliament	18	2
A computer club	16	6
A school or student exchange programme to another country	11	3
Voluntary activities in the community	9	19
An environmental organisation	7	7
An organisation such as Scouts, Guides or Cadets	4	40
A human rights organisation	3	3
An organisation sponsored by a religious group	3	11
A youth organisation affiliated with a political party	2	5
A cultural association based on ethnicity	2	4
A United Nations or UNESCO Club	1	2
Uncodeable/no response	18	18
N = 3,043	3,043	3,043

A series of single-response items.
More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100.
2,985 respondents answered at least one part of this question.

Fewer than one-fifth of 14-year-olds said they participated in a school, class or student council or a mock parliament in school (18 per cent). Less than a fifth of 14-year-olds in England reported participating in voluntary activities in the community out of school (19 per cent), with the figure dropping to below one-tenth in school (nine per cent). Participation in civic-related organisations linked to conventional and social-movement citizenship was particularly low. Only a small number of students report participating in a youth organisation affiliated to a political party (two per cent in and five per cent out of school). The numbers of students involved with social-movement related citizenship organisations, such as environmental organisations (seven per cent both in and out of school) and human rights organisations (three per cent both in and out of school), was equally small.

The results for students in England are in line with those in a number of participating countries. Young people were most frequently participating in organisations or activities that involved money for a charity or social cause. England scored above the international mean (39 per cent) on this item. The second organisation in which students frequently participated was a school, class or student council. England scored below the international mean (18 per cent) on this item. Fourteen-year-olds in

about one-third of countries, including England, reported low rates of participation in civic-related organisations, such as voluntary groups in the community, as well as environmental and human rights organisations. However, the results concerning participation in school, class or student councils should be viewed with some caution. Such councils function through the election of a small number of students who act as the 'representatives' of the wider body of students in the school or class. The 14-year-olds, in response to this item, may have taken a narrow definition of the term 'participation', and considered it to be limited only to those students who were elected members of such councils. This may explain the low rate of perceived participation in such activities reported by students in England. The opportunity to participate in school and/or class councils is discussed again in Chapter 9, in relation to the views of teachers about such councils.

8.6   Summary

Confidence in the effectiveness of school participation

♦   Fourteen-year-olds generally believe that groups of students working together in school can enhance the school and help to solve problems that may arise. The large majority of students across countries, including those in England, have had some positive experience with students getting together at school, in either formal or informal groups, to solve problems and improve the school. Young people daily experience the school as a social and political system. Solving problems that arise there in interaction with others can foster a sense of membership of and participation in this community. However, though students in England support working together with their peers to solve school problems in principle, they lack confidence when given opportunities to discuss such problems in practice.

♦   Confidence that participation at school can make a difference is valuable in itself and may influence the willingness of young people to participate in political activities as adults. Schools are environments that are part of the everyday lives and experiences of young people. They throw up problems that matter to students and provide opportunities for young people to take part in 'real' rather than 'anticipated' actions. This sense of *school efficacy* – the extent to which young people can influence decision-making in school – was identified in the study and may be as important a factor in future political behaviour as the broader sense of *political efficacy* – the extent to which citizens can make a difference in government decision-making – that has frequently been measured in research on citizenship education.

Students' views of their learning

♦   Schools are places where students across countries believe that they learn to understand people and to cooperate in groups. These are vitally important learning goals. However, 14-year-olds perceive that schools do not place much emphasis on teaching about the importance of voting in local and national elections. Students also have few opportunities to learn about the kinds of conflict

that lead to differing political positions and to the debate and discussion that surrounds election campaigns. This raises the concern that if schools do not explicitly promote this basic level of electoral understanding and participation, then this may affect the future commitment of students to participate in the political system.

Open classroom climate for discussion

- Students in the majority of countries report that an open classroom climate for discussion is uncommon. Only about one-quarter of the students say that they are often encouraged to voice their opinions during discussions in their classrooms. However, in most, including England, girls more than boys perceive that their classrooms are open for discussion.

- Students in England have limited opportunities in classrooms for discussion of topical political and social issues. The norm is for a didactic approach, with an emphasis on teacher talk, the use of textbooks and the memorising of facts, dates and definitions.

- Interestingly, those countries that have experienced considerable changes in civic or citizenship education in the past ten years appear to have a less open classroom climate for discussion. Attention in those countries has been focused on training teachers on content, rather than developing their ability to foster an open classroom climate. It is important that this trend is acknowledged in the context of England given the changes under way because of the introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory subject in schools.

Participation in civic-related organisations

- Fourteen-year-olds in about one-third of countries, including England, report low rates of participation in civic-related organisations, such as voluntary groups and environmental and human rights organisations. The most frequently undertaken activity in England, and in the majority of countries, is collecting money for charities. Less than one-quarter of students in England report involvement in voluntary activities to help the community, and less than one-fifth say they are actively involved in school, class or student councils. The numbers of students in England who participate in organisations which promote conventional and social-movement citizenship is low.

9. TEACHERS AND CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS

9.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters have examined students' civic knowledge and skills, as well as their attitudes to civic concepts and experiences of civic engagement and participation. This is a reflection of the main focus of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, which is on young people. However, students do not learn and experience in isolation. There are many factors and people, both in and outside school, who have an influence on the civic knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs that 14-year-olds develop. One key group of people are teachers. They have the potential to have a considerable influence on young people. The IEA study, in recognition of this influence, incorporated a teacher questionnaire in its instrument design. This was completed by a number of teachers in each school that participated in the study. Although the teacher data cannot be used directly to explain student learning and experiences, they can help to reveal more about how citizenship education is conceived and approached in classrooms and schools. Teacher insights can be useful in interpreting the student findings in other chapters. They provide a broader context within which those findings can be viewed.

This chapter focuses on the data collected from teachers in England. It explores their attitudes and approaches to citizenship education, including those concerning teaching and learning, civic content, whole-school and curriculum planning and student assessment. The chapter also investigates teachers' views about the importance of citizenship education, and about what students should learn in this area, as well as their confidence levels in teaching citizenship topics. The chapter draws attention to a number of instances where comparisons can be made between teacher and student responses to similar survey questions. Taken together, the responses of teachers and students offer a fuller insight into current practices and approaches to citizenship education in classrooms and schools in England and elsewhere.

9.2 The Teachers in England

The teachers in England were selected in accordance with the approach set out by the study's International Steering Committee. This approach was applied in all participating countries so as to ensure a comparable sample of teachers was achieved across countries. A subject-allocation grid was drawn up which listed the topics relating to each of the 36 items in Part One of the student instrument – the cognitive test of civic knowledge and skills. The NRC in each country was asked to identify which subject was primarily responsible for teaching each item. The results were

tallied and the three subjects that registered the highest number of items covered were deemed those from which the three teachers (i.e. one per subject) would be drawn in that country to complete the teacher questionnaire. The three subjects that registered the highest number of items covered in England were history, personal, social and health education (PSHE) and business studies/economics, in that order.

Each participating school in England was asked to administer the teacher questionnaire to a teacher in each of the three subjects listed above. Schools were asked to choose the teachers in a set order of priority. The order of priority was: first, a teacher from each of the three subjects who taught the tested group of Year 10 students participating in the study; secondly, if three teachers could not be selected in this way, then a substitute teacher, who taught any of the three subjects to any of the selected group of students, should be sought; and thirdly, if teacher selection still proved difficult, then a substitute teacher who taught one of the subjects in Year 10, should be sought. In this way, the questionnaire was administered to both teachers 'linked' and 'not linked' to the selected group of Year 10 students in the school.[12]

A total of 348 teachers in England completed the teacher questionnaire. Of these, 79 per cent were linked to some of the tested Year 10 students. Only 17 per cent were the form tutors of the selected groups. There was an almost equal split between males (51 per cent) and females (49 per cent) who responded. Just over two-fifths (42 per cent) were in the 40 – 49 age group, 21 per cent were aged 30 – 39, 19 per cent were in the 50 – 59 age group and 18 per cent were under the age of 30.

Respondents were asked what citizenship-related subjects they taught at the time of data collection.[13] As already mentioned in Section 3.3.1, the results revealed that citizenship education in England involves teachers from a variety of subject backgrounds, rather than from one dominant group. This was the case in the majority of participating countries. The main subject backgrounds of the teachers involved in citizenship education in England were PSHE (46 per cent of respondents), history (40 per cent) and business studies/economics (22 per cent). This was to be expected given the selection criteria for teachers who completed the teacher questionnaire.

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[12] It should be noted that the international analysis of the teacher data was restricted to teachers who reported that they were 'linked' to the tested group of students in the school. The national analysis upon which this chapter is based drew on the data supplied by all teachers in England, both 'linked' and 'not linked' to the tested group of students. This explains the slight variance between the statistics in the international report for teachers in England and those in this chapter. The former are based solely on the 'linked' teachers in England and the latter on all the teachers who completed the teacher questionnaire.

[13] In some cases, respondents taught more than one subject, therefore percentages do not sum to 100.

However, a range of other subject backgrounds was also represented, led by religious education (RE) (12 per cent of respondents), geography (eight per cent) and English (five per cent). Interestingly, only three per cent of respondents said they were teaching a subject explicitly titled 'Citizenship' in their school. This may have implications for the ways in which schools approach the statutory requirement to teach the new National Curriculum subject Citizenship.

Teachers were also asked the number of years they had spent teaching citizenship education related subjects in their time as a teacher. The average number of years teaching (16.4 years) exceeded the average number of years teaching citizenship education (14 years). This was the case in all participating countries, though the gap in England was smaller than in many countries. This suggests that teachers entered the profession having trained in another subject, before becoming involved with citizenship education. Two-thirds (67 per cent) of the respondents in England reported that their highest level of formal qualification was a Bachelor's degree, while a further 17 per cent had a Master's degree or Doctorate, and 13 per cent a teacher's certificate or equivalent.

Teachers were also asked about participation in in-service professional development or training specifically related to citizenship education. Just under half (47 per cent) of teachers in England reported that they had participated in such training, though it is not known the nature or quality of such experiences. This is positive at one level. However, viewed another way, it highlights the fact that the majority of teachers in England, who participated in the study, have had no professional development or training for teaching citizenship education. This is an issue that is taken up later in this chapter when teachers talk about their priorities in this area.

9.3 Teacher Confidence in Teaching Citizenship Education Topics and Student Opportunity to Learn

Teachers were asked to assess 20 main topics addressed in citizenship education in relation to three measures. The first measure was how *important* they perceived each topic to be for citizenship education. The second was how *confident* they felt to teach the topics and the third was how much *opportunity* there was for students to learn about each topic up to and including Year 10. The topics ranged from citizens' rights and obligations, and political, legal and electoral systems, to equal opportunities, media and international relations. The majority of these topics are contained in the new Programmes of Study for Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4 (QCA, 1999). The findings for teachers in England on the three measures are shown in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1 **Teachers' assessment in England of the main citizenship education topics: importance, confidence to teach and student opportunity to learn**

Topic Group	Topic	Importance[14]	Confidence to teach[15]	Student opportunity to learn[16]
National history	Important events in the nation's history	86	65	68
Political, legal and electoral systems	National constitution and political institutions	80	49	22
	Different conceptions of democracy	87	51	23
	Different political systems	87	59	33
	Elections and electoral systems	86	59	21
	The judicial system	91	40	18
Citizens' and human rights	Citizens' rights and obligations	100	63	44
	Human and civil rights	97	62	49
	Equal opportunities for women and men	98	79	62
	Cultural differences and ethnic minorities	96	65	60
International organisations and relations	International organisations	83	48	30
	International problems and relations	89	57	37
	Migrations of people	71	54	37
Economic, environmental and social welfare issues	Economic issues	86	56	40
	Environmental issues	97	66	67
	Social welfare	93	56	39
	Trade unions	75	62	22
Media	Dangers of propaganda and manipulation	93	72	54
	Media	95	78	58
Civic virtues	Civic virtues	66	31	18

Teachers in England viewed the citizenship education topics as being of high importance. However, the rating given by teachers for the importance of each topic was considerably greater than their confidence to teach it. The confidence rating for

[14] **Importance** −
a series of single response items;
due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100;
a total of 348 respondents answered at least one item in this question;
percentages shown are for combined teacher ratings of 'important' and 'very important'.
[15] **Confidence to teach** −
a series of single response items;
due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100;
a total of 346 respondents answered at least one item in this question;
percentages shown are for combined teacher ratings of 'confident' and 'very confident'.
[16] **Student opportunity to learn** −
a series of single response items;
due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100;
a total of 341 respondents answered at least one item in this question;
percentages shown are for combined teacher ratings of 'quite a lot' and 'a great deal'.

each topic, in turn, was generally higher than the student opportunity to learn rating. This rating differential across the three measures was a phenomenon in all participating countries. It suggests that teachers view citizenship topics as more important than the confidence they have to teach them, and as more important than the actual opportunity students have to learn about them.

Teachers in England considered six topics to be the most important for citizenship education (i.e. a rating of 95 per cent and over), namely citizens' rights and obligations, human and civil rights, equal opportunities, environmental issues, cultural differences and ethnic minorities, and media. The topics considered least important were civic virtues, migrations of people, trade unions and international organisations. The relative rankings of topics corresponded with the assessment of teachers in other participating countries, with the exception of national history. This was rated as the most important topic in many countries.

Examining the results of the confidence measure reveals five topics that teachers in England felt most confident to teach (i.e. at least two-thirds of teachers expressed confidence). The topics were equal opportunities, media, environmental issues, cultural differences and ethnic minorities and national history. The citizenship education topics that teachers felt least confident teaching were civic virtues, the judicial system, international organisations and national constitution and political institutions. The opportunity rating reveals that the topics that students had most opportunity to learn about (i.e. rating of 60 per cent or over) were national history, environmental issues, equal opportunities and cultural differences and ethnic minorities. The topics that students had least opportunity to learn about were civic virtues, judicial system, elections and electoral systems, trade unions, national constitution and political institutions and different conceptions of democracy.

Looking across the three measures reveals important links between them. It highlights, above all, that the topics teachers viewed as most important were those they were more likely to have confidence in teaching and to provide opportunities for students to learn about. Teachers placed equal opportunities, environmental issues and cultural differences and ethnic minorities close to the top of all three measures. Conversely, topics that were viewed by teachers as less important were those where teachers lacked confidence to teach them and provided limited opportunities for students to learn about them. Teachers categorised the topics of civic virtues, the judicial system, trade unions and international organisations in this way, and ranked them close to the bottom of all three measures.

The rankings of the topics by teachers in England largely corresponded with the high and low ratings given by teachers in other participating countries. The exception was national history, which was given greater prominence in most other countries. Interestingly, teachers in European countries, including England, gave a low rating to the topic of international organisations. This was despite the concerns about developing a supra-national European dimension to citizenship, which were highlighted in the Phase 1 national case studies from these countries.

The rankings also point to the current priorities of teachers in addressing citizenship education. Overall, teachers in England placed a strong emphasis on addressing citizen and human rights topics in citizenship education, including equal opportunities and cultural differences. They also have confidence in and see the importance of addressing the issue of propaganda and manipulation. However, the topic rankings also highlight a general lack of opportunity for students, and lack of confidence among teachers, to address the broad topic area of political, legal and electoral systems. For example, despite the fact that 91 per cent of teachers reported that the judicial system was important or very important for citizenship education, only two-fifths (40 per cent) felt confident to teach it and less than one-fifth (18 per cent) said that students were given the opportunity to learn about it. This is of concern given the emphasis in the definition of Citizenship in the National Curriculum on *political literacy* (Crick Report, 1998). Though the teacher questionnaire was administered prior to the introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory National Curriculum subject, the survey results highlight a potential training need for teachers if the notion of political literacy is to be fully developed in classrooms and schools.

9.4   Teaching and Learning Approaches

The Phase 1 national case studies revealed that the predominant approaches to citizenship education in classrooms were teacher- rather than student-centred (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999). Worksheets and textbooks were more the norm than classroom discussion and role plays. The survey sought to find out more about everyday teaching and learning approaches in citizenship education. Teachers were presented with a list of ten main approaches and asked to rank them according to the frequency with which they used them in their classroom. The results for teachers in England are shown in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2   Teaching and learning approaches

How often are the following approaches used in your classes when dealing with citizenship education topics and issues?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Very often	NR
The teacher chooses the issues to be discussed in class	2	18	47	32	1
Students use worksheets	3	34	45	17	1
The teacher asks questions and the students answer	-	28	49	21	2
The teacher includes discussion on controversial issues in class	1	40	43	15	1
Students study textbooks	12	45	29	12	1
Students work in groups on different topics and prepare presentations	5	52	31	10	2
Students work on projects that involve gathering information outside of school	7	56	26	10	1
Students participate in role play and simulations	9	59	25	6	1
Students participate in events or activities in the community	19	59	16	4	2
The teacher presents the subject and the students take notes	34	46	16	3	1
N = 348					

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 344 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

The findings confirm the predominance of teacher-centred approaches to citizenship education in classrooms in England. This was in line with the results in the majority of countries that participated in the study. Just under two-thirds of teachers in England (62 per cent) reported that they often or very often used worksheets with students. Even where there were attempts at more open, student-centred approaches, these were still determined and controlled by the teacher. For example, a majority of teachers reported inclusion of discussion on controversial issues (58 per cent) in classrooms. However, this was conducted within a classroom context where the teacher chose the issues to be discussed (79 per cent of teachers) and asked questions for students to answer (70 per cent). Only one-third of teachers (31 per cent) reported the use of role play and simulations.

There were also limited opportunities for students to be involved in activities outside of school, with only one-fifth of teachers (20 per cent) reporting student involvement in community participation. This suggests that there is still considerable work to be done with teachers and schools if the community involvement aspect of citizenship education is to be fully realised. Community involvement is one of the three strands which underpin Citizenship in the revised National Curriculum.

The findings tally with the views of students concerning classroom climate for discussion and teaching and learning activities, which were examined in Chapter 8. The main difference between the views of teachers and students is the frequency of use of certain teaching approaches. For example, whereas teachers played down the use of textbooks and recitation (teacher presents the subject and students take notes), these were seen by students as the dominant classroom approaches to citizenship education.

The teacher questionnaire in England also included an extra national item which asked teachers about the availability of computers for students to use in citizenship education lessons and activities. Just under half the teachers (48 per cent) reported that computers were never or almost never available in citizenship education classrooms in schools. However, it was possible to get some access by using other teaching rooms in schools where computers were available, such as computer labs and school libraries. Almost two-thirds of teachers (62 per cent) reported such access in some lessons. Where computers were available, the majority had access to the Internet (85 per cent) and a sizeable number of teachers (61 per cent) reported using the Internet for instructional purposes.

Overall, the findings reveal a lack of access to computers and the Internet for many students in citizenship education lessons in schools. This dovetails with the finding in Chapter 7, that less than one-fifth of young people (19 per cent) reported using the Internet often or sometimes to get information about politics or other countries. It confirms that despite the spread of the Internet, there is still a long way to go, in terms of student access, if it is to fulfil its potential as a powerful teaching and learning tool for citizenship education.

9.5   Assessment

Phase 1 of the study underlined the lack of formal assessment in citizenship education across countries and the discretion given to teachers to decide on the most appropriate forms of assessment. The survey sought to find out more about assessment practices in citizenship education. Teachers were presented with a list of different forms of assessment (including 'no specific assessment') and asked to pick the two that they relied upon most when assessing students in citizenship education. The results highlight that, in England, the most popular form of assessment, favoured by the majority of teachers (68 per cent), was the use of the responses from students in class. Teachers also relied upon observations of students (39 per cent), and written compositions or essays (37 per cent), to assess citizenship education. Meanwhile, just

under one-quarter of teachers (23 per cent) reported that they did not carry out specific assessment in this area.

The results from England tally with those from other countries, with the most popular form of assessment overall being a combination of written composition or essays and oral participation. Multiple-response questions were particularly prominent in eastern European countries. The findings also confirm the wide discretion available to teachers in selecting appropriate methods to assess students. This is understandable given the lack of mandatory or statutory assessment in citizenship education in participating countries. The participative element in assessment practices underlines the importance of oral communication and discussion as a teaching and learning approach in citizenship education.

9.6   Planning Citizenship Education

The survey sought to gauge the sources that teachers draw upon when planning citizenship education. Teachers were asked to rate the level of importance of eight sources of information which could be used when planning citizenship education. The sources listed were a mixture of externally produced, such as textbooks and official curricula, and internally generated, such as teachers' own ideas and school-produced materials. The results reveal that teachers in England draw from a variety of sources, both internal and external, when planning to teach citizenship education. Teacher flexibility in planning was a phenomenon in most participating countries. The media (newspapers, magazines, television and radio) was the most favoured source in many countries, including England, where 87 per cent of teachers considered the media important or very important when planning. In fact, teachers in England rated the mass media, and internally generated sources of information, more important, when planning citizenship education, than externally produced ones. School- or self-produced materials and teachers' own ideas were rated by 78 and 72 per cent of teachers respectively as important or very important when planning, compared to ratings of 56 per cent for textbooks and 53 per cent for official curricula. However, it should be noted that the National Curriculum Programmes of Study for Citizenship at key stage 3 and 4 (QCA, 1999) had not been published at the time the teacher survey was administered in schools.

9.7   Improvements in Citizenship Education

Teachers were presented with a list of ten items relating to citizenship education, from which they were asked to select the three that they felt were most in need of

improvement in their school. The items included training, resources and curriculum time. The findings for teachers in England are shown in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3   In your view, what needs to be improved about citizenship education in your school?

Please indicate three items from the list below that you think are the most important	%
Additional training in subject-matter knowledge	48
Better materials and textbooks	40
More cooperation with external experts	35
Additional training in teaching methods	32
More cooperation between teachers in different subject areas	32
More opportunities for special projects	27
More materials and textbooks	25
More curriculum time for citizenship education	24
More resources for extra-curricular activities	17
More autonomy for school decision-making	15
Uncodeable/no response	1

N = 348

More than one answer could be given, so percentages do not sum to 100.
A total of 348 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

The most important need in England was for additional training in subject-matter knowledge, an improvement identified by nearly half the teachers (48 per cent). This was followed closely by calls for better materials and textbooks (40 per cent of teachers). Interestingly, less than one-quarter of teachers in England (24 per cent) saw more curriculum time for citizenship education as a priority and even fewer felt the need for more autonomy for school decision-making (15 per cent).

The findings in England were similar to those in other participating countries, with the exception of more curriculum time. This was rated as a much higher priority in a large number of countries. The improvements prioritised by teachers in all countries, including England, can be characterised as those which have a direct impact on classrooms. Increased subject knowledge and better materials and textbooks are things that matter to the daily practice of teachers in citizenship education.

9.8   The Place of Citizenship Education in the Curriculum

The precarious status of citizenship education as a subject in schools was revealed in Phase 1 of the study (Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999). In Phase 2, the issue of status was explored by assessing teachers' views about the place of citizenship education in the curriculum. Teachers were asked how they thought citizenship should be taught: whether as a specific subject, or integrated into subjects related to human and social

sciences, or integrated into all subjects or as an extra-curricular activity. The results for teachers in England are shown in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4   How should citizenship education be taught?

Citizenship education should be …	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	NR
taught integrated into subjects related to human and social sciences, such as history, geography, languages, religion, ethics, law	2	8	51	36	3
integrated into all subjects at school	5	16	53	21	5
taught as a specific subject	19	44	21	10	5
an extra-curricular activity	41	31	18	3	7

N = 348

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 336 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

There was a near consensus among teachers in England that citizenship education should be part of the formal curriculum, rather than an extra-curricular activity. The preferred curricular route was for citizenship education to be integrated into human and social science subjects, such as history, geography and RE, with over four-fifths of teachers in England (87 per cent) in agreement or in strong agreement with this approach. There was also considerable support for a cross-curricular approach (74 per cent of teachers) with citizenship education integrated into all school subjects. There was no strong sentiment that citizenship education should be taught as a separate subject, although one-third of teachers (31 per cent) were in favour of this option. The support of teachers in England for an integration model to teaching citizenship education in the curriculum mirrors that of most other countries. The only exceptions were those countries in central and eastern Europe, such as the Czech Republic, Estonia and the Slovak Republic, that favour citizenship education as a separate subject. Teacher views on the place of citizenship education in the curriculum reflect the curriculum *status quo* in their respective countries.

9.9   Importance and Relevance of Citizenship Education

A large number of Phase 1 national case studies raised concerns about the status of citizenship education in schools and in society (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999). The Phase 2 survey, therefore, sought to investigate teachers' attitudes and beliefs about citizenship education in schools. Teachers were asked to respond to a list of statements about how much citizenship education matters, and about what is worth learning in citizenship education. Teachers in England perceived citizenship education to be extremely relevant for schools and students. The large majority of

teachers agreed or strongly agreed that what is important in citizenship education can be taught in schools (86 per cent), and that teaching citizenship education at school matters for the country (81 per cent). Only nine per cent of teachers in England thought that schools were irrelevant for the development of students' attitudes and opinions concerning citizenship.

The majority of teachers (88 per cent) also reported that they agreed or strongly agreed that learning about citizenship makes a difference to students' political and civic development. However, almost two-thirds of teachers reported that changes had been so rapid in recent years that they were unsure about what to teach in relation to citizenship (62 per cent), and that education authorities pay little attention to citizenship education (65 per cent). However, it should be remembered that the study took place before the publication of the National Curriculum Programmes of Study for Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4 (QCA, 1999).

These findings reveal the strongly felt beliefs of teachers in England about citizenship education. Citizenship education matters a great deal to them and they view its outcomes as being of particular relevance to student development and to the country at large. This strength of teacher belief in citizenship education was a feature across participating countries. Teachers in England, however, have concerns about the relevance of this area in education and about the knock-on effects of the rapid pace of change in educational policy in recent years. These findings take on an added relevance when they are considered alongside the results of the multilevel model analysis. The multilevel model analysis revealed that students with teachers who thought citizenship education was important were found to have greater political awareness, to have learned to understand people who have different ideas and points of view, and to have learned to work in groups and cooperate with others. The linkage between teacher beliefs and student learning is an area that requires further investigation.

9.10   Teacher Views of Student Learning in Citizenship Education

IEA studies, as was reported in Chapter 8, have traditionally used measures of 'opportunity to learn'. This approach proved inappropriate for citizenship education. However, it was felt important to ascertain what learning opportunities teachers believed they provided students in citizenship education in their school. This could then be contrasted with students' perceptions of what they had learned in school in relation to this area. A scale of seven items was drawn up for this purpose, based on the suggestions of NRCs. The items ranged from whether students had opportunities

to learn to work together in groups and contribute to solving community problems, to whether they learned to be patriotic and to understand the importance of voting in national and local elections. This item scale was included in both the teacher and student surveys to enable connections and comparisons to be made. The results of the students in England on these items is shown in Table 8.2 and discussed in Section 8.2 in Chapter 8. The results of the teachers in England on these items is shown in Table 9.5.

Table 9.5   What do students learn in your school?

In my school students learn…	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	NR
to work together in groups and cooperate with other students	-	2	56	41	<1
to understand people who have different ideas or points of view	-	4	60	35	<1
to be concerned about what happens in other countries	<1	14	66	20	<1
how to act to protect the environment	-	7	74	18	<1
to contribute to solving problems in the community	2	31	56	11	1
about the importance of voting in national and local elections	9	41	40	10	1
to be patriotic and loyal citizens of their country	16	61	20	1	2

N = 348

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 347 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Almost all of the teachers in England either agreed or strongly agreed that, in citizenship education in their school, students learned to work together in groups and cooperate with others (97 per cent) to understand people who have different ideas or points of view (95 per cent), and how to protect the environment (92 per cent). Most teachers said that students also learned to be concerned about what happens in other countries (86 per cent) and to contribute to solving problems in the community (67 per cent). Meanwhile, half the teachers (50 per cent) said that students learned about the importance of voting in national and local elections. Only just over one-fifth (21 per cent) said that students learned to be patriotic and loyal citizens of their country.

These findings were in line with those in other participating countries. Teachers generally view schools as places where students are helped to develop practices and attitudes which are fundamental to citizenship education. The only exception is the development of feelings of patriotism and loyalty to the country. This was rated as

least important for citizenship education in western European countries, such as England, in contrast to its high rating in many other countries.

The findings for teachers in England were also generally in line with those for the students. What teachers believed that students had opportunities to learn in citizenship education in their school was, indeed, what was identified by the students. The ranking of the seven items by teachers was largely the same as that by the students. The major difference was in the emphasis and extent of the learning. The teachers were very clear about the learning opportunities that are provided for students in their school in citizenship education. However, the percentage of students who agreed or strongly agreed that they have had the opportunity to learn was much lower on each item than those of their teachers. This demonstrates that, though teachers create opportunities to learn in citizenship education, they are not necessarily so strongly identified and taken up by students as teachers believe. The gap between teacher and student perceptions was also discussed in Chapter 8, in relation to the topic of the importance of voting in local and national elections.

The teacher questionnaire in England also included two additional questions about school or class councils. The first question probed the existence of such councils in schools and the second sought teachers' opinions about their main function. The majority of teachers in England (87 per cent) reported that their school had a school and/or class council. Teachers saw such councils as having three main functions, namely to empower students to decide for themselves (75 per cent of teachers), to solve school problems (71 per cent) and to provide opportunities for students to participate in the life of the school (50 per cent).

These findings should be viewed alongside students' reported take-up of opportunities to participate in civic-related organisations, which was revealed in Chapter 8. One of the civic-related organisations listed was a school and/or class council. Less than one-fifth of students (18 per cent) reported participating in a school and/or class council in school. This low response rate is at odds with teacher beliefs about the participative function performed by such councils for students. There is clearly a large discrepancy between the opportunities to participate in such councils, which are available in most schools involved in the study in England, and their take-up by 14-year-olds. This discrepancy may be the result, as was discussed in Chapter 8, of a narrow interpretation of the term 'participation' by students, or it may be that, in practice, such opportunities are indeed restricted to a small number of students in each school.

9.11 Teacher Views of What Students Should Learn about to Become Good Citizens

The concept of citizenship is central to citizenship education. One of the key aims of citizenship education is to help students to understand what this concept means in practice and to help prepare them to participate actively in civil and political life. The study sought primarily to measure the opinions of a representative sample of students in England about the concept of citizenship. This was based on student views about the attributes of a good adult citizen. Students were given a list of items about attitudes, actions and activities and asked to decide, in their opinion, how important each one was for explaining what a good adult citizen is or does. The results from the students in England were discussed in Chapter 5 based around two international attitude scales, the importance of *conventional citizenship*[17] and the importance of *social-movement citizenship*.[18]

Student opinions can be influenced by a number of factors and people, including their teachers. The study, therefore, also sought to measure the opinions of teachers about the concept of citizenship. Teachers were presented with the same list of items as the students and asked to decide how important it was that students should learn about that item in order to become a good adult citizen. The results, discussed below, are set out in the same way as those for the students in Chapter 5. This enables comparisons to be made between teacher and student responses to the same set of items.

The majority of teachers in England believe that their students should learn about obeying the law in order to become good adult citizens. Ninety-five per cent of teachers agreed or strongly agreed with students learning about this item. A large majority of teachers (90 per cent) also agreed that students should learn about working hard. Less than half the teachers (40 per cent) believed that it was important for students to learn to be patriotic and loyal in order to be good adult citizens. The results for the teachers were similar to those for the students on the first two items. However, teachers view learning to be patriotic and loyal as far less important to being a good adult citizen than do students (68 per cent saw this as important).

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[17] *Conventional citizenship* refers to actions and activities related to conventional political activity, such as voting in elections, joining a political party, discussing politics and following it in the media.

[18] *Social-movement citizenship* refers to attitudes and activities related to non-partisan groups and movements in communities and schools, such as promoting human rights, protecting the environment, community involvement and taking part in peaceful protest.

9.11.1 Conventional citizenship

The importance of conventional citizenship was analysed based on the responses of students using a six-item international attitude scale. The items ranged from political issues in the media and knowing about the country's history, to voting in elections. Table 9.6 shows the results for teachers in England using the same scale.

Table 9.6   What should students learn about conventional citizenship?

To become a good adult citizen, students should learn to recognise the importance of …	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	NR
following political issues in the newspaper, on the radio or on TV	<1	5	57	37	1
knowing about the country's history	-	7	50	43	1
engaging in political discussion	1	12	67	19	1
voting in every election	2	18	55	25	1
showing respect for government representatives	6	38	49	4	3
joining a political party	17	67	15	1	2

N = 348

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 346 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Following political issues in the mass media was seen by teachers as the most important item of conventional citizenship that students should learn to recognise in order to become a good adult citizen. Nearly all teachers (94 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed that students should learn to follow political issues in the media. A significant majority of teachers also felt it was important that students learn about other facets of conventional political activity, including knowing about the country's history (93 per cent), engaging in political discussion (86 per cent) and voting in every election (80 per cent). Only just over half of teachers in England believed that it was important for students to learn to recognise the importance of showing respect for government representatives. Meanwhile, teachers believed that it was of little importance for students to learn about joining a political party (16 per cent) in order to become a good adult citizen.

The significant difference that emerges from a comparison of teacher and student attitudes in England to conventional citizenship is the degree of support for this concept. Teachers view the actions and attitudes of conventional citizenship as of high importance for students to learn about in order to become good adult citizens. The percentage of teachers who support each item was considerably higher than the percentage of students. The students, in contrast, view the actions and attitudes of

conventional citizenship, with the exception of voting in elections, as of low importance for adult citizenship. The teachers also show stronger support for linking political and historical knowledge with political discussion. Interestingly, teachers and students were in agreement about the low importance of joining a political party for being a good adult citizen.

9.11.2 Social-movement citizenship

The importance of social-movement citizenship was analysed based on the responses of students using a four-item international attitude scale. The items ranged from participating in activities for the benefit of the local community to participating in activities that promote human rights. Table 9.7 shows the results for teachers in England using the same scale.

Table 9.7   What should students learn about social-movement citizenship?

To become a good adult citizen, students should learn to recognise the importance of …	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	NR
participating in activities to help people in the community	-	1	55	44	1
taking part in activities to protect the environment	-	5	65	28	1
taking part in activities promoting human rights	1	17	57	22	3
participating in a peaceful protect against a law believed to be unjust	3	19	65	12	1
N = 348					

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 346 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Participating in activities for the benefit of people in the community was viewed by teachers as the most important item of social-movement citizenship that students should learn in order to become good adult citizens. Virtually all teachers (99 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed that students should be involved in such learning. They also agreed or strongly agreed that students should learn to take part in activities to protect the environment (93 per cent). A majority of teachers agreed that students should also learn about other facets of social-movement related citizenship, including taking part in activities to promote human rights (79 per cent) and participating in a peaceful protest against a law believed to be unjust (77 per cent).

The significant difference that emerges from a comparison of teacher and student attitudes in England to social-movement citizenship is the degree of support for this concept. Teachers view the actions and attitudes of social-movement citizenship as of

high importance for students to learn about in order to become good adult citizens. The percentage of teachers who supported each item was considerably higher than the percentage of students. The students, in contrast, viewed the actions and attitudes of social-movement citizenship as of relatively low importance for adult citizenship.

Combining and comparing the results from the teachers and students on the two international attitude scales for citizenship raises an interesting phenomenon. It shows that students in England were more likely to rank social-movement related activities above conventional political activities in their concept of what makes a good adult citizen. However, their teachers believe that it is equally important for 14-year-olds to learn about following political issues in the media and engaging in political discussions as it is for them to learn to be involved with community, environment and human rights organisations. Teachers view conventional citizenship and social-movement citizenship, with the exception of joining a political party, as equally important components of citizenship. They believe that students need to recognise the importance of both components in order to become good adult citizens. The reasons for this difference in outlook between teachers and their students, and the implications for the practices of citizenship education in schools, is something that requires further investigation.

9.12   Summary

Teacher background and confidence

♦ Teachers of citizenship education in England involved in the study come from a variety of subject backgrounds. The majority have had no professional development or training to teach citizenship education. Teachers view citizenship education topics as being of high importance. The topics they view as most important are those they were most likely to have confidence in teaching and to have provided opportunities for teachers to learn about. Teachers place a strong emphasis on addressing citizen and human rights topics but are much less confident about teaching political, legal and electoral systems.

Teaching and learning approaches

♦ Citizenship education is most frequently taught through teacher-centred approaches, such as the use of textbooks, worksheets and teacher talk. Though teachers reported the use of student-centred approaches, such as classroom discussion of controversial issues, these were still largely controlled by the teacher. There were limited opportunities for students to be involved in activities outside the school with the local community. There were also limited opportunities for students to access computers and the Internet in citizenship education lessons.

Assessment

♦ The most frequently adopted form of student assessment in citizenship education in England is verbal responses from students in class. In most other countries, a combination of written essays and oral participation was favoured. Standardisation of assessment in citizenship education within countries is not very high and teachers have freedom to choose the most appropriate ways of assessing students.

Planning citizenship education

♦ Teachers in the study use a wide variety of sources when planning for citizenship education, including external and internal as well as official sources. In England teachers reported that media and self-produced materials are the most frequently used sources. Official curriculum documents and textbooks are drawn upon but less frequently than other sources.

Improvements in citizenship education

♦ Teachers in England ranked additional training on subject-matter and better materials and textbooks as top priorities for future development in the area of citizenship education. Overall, the majority of participating countries listed the same three priorities for improvement – the need for better materials and textbooks, more teaching time and increased training regarding subject-matter.

Importance, relevance and place of citizenship education

♦ There was consensus among teachers, in all countries, including England, that citizenship education is important for students and their development, and that schools have a strong role to play in its delivery. Most teachers also believe strongly that citizenship education should be part of the formal curriculum. However, there was no strong sentiment that it should be a separate subject, but rather that is should be integrated with other social subjects.

Student opportunities to learn

♦ Teachers view schools as places where students are helped to experience practices and develop attitudes which are fundamental to citizenship education, such as working together and tolerance of others. There is a gap between the learning opportunities that teachers perceived they provided for students and their identification and take-up by young people.

Concept of citizenship

♦ Teachers believe that students should be taught to recognise the importance of obeying the law in relation to being a good adult citizen. Teachers show strong support for students learning about conventional political activities, with the exception of joining a political party. Teachers also strongly support students learning about social-movement related citizenship activities, such as community involvement and participating in environmental and human rights issues. Teachers believe that students must learn to recognise the importance of both *conventional citizenship* and *social-movement citizenship* in relation to being a good adult citizen.

10. MAKING CONNECTIONS BETWEEN THE DIMENSIONS, PRACTICES AND CONTEXTS OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

10.1 Introduction

The national report, to this point, has explored the *civic knowledge, civic concepts, civic attitudes* and *civic engagement and participation (current and intended)* of students in England, as well as the attitudes and views of their teachers. These dimensions of citizenship have been explored largely in isolation from one another, with the exception of Chapter 9 on teachers. However, the overall aim of the IEA Citizenship Education Study is to make connections between the dimensions of citizenship,[19] and the practices and the contexts of citizenship education. It is the strength of these connections that makes the study so timely and important for those with an interest in citizenship education within and across countries.

This chapter seeks to draw attention to a number of these connections and to the richness of the evidence base they can provide about the dimensions, possibilities, practices and contexts of citizenship education. Though these connections have been mentioned at various points in the preceding chapters, there has been neither the time nor the space to explore them fully in this report. This is a task which will be taken up by policy-makers, researchers, teachers and others in the coming years at national and international levels. This report marks the beginning rather than the end of the analysis of the national data for England from the study. Indeed, the findings raise questions which offer directions that further national analysis might take. There will also be further analysis undertaken at international and cross-national level. The latter will involve small groups of countries with a common interest in the data, such as English-speaking countries, European countries, those from Scandinavia and the Baltic region, to give but a few possible groupings.

The chapter begins by outlining briefly the fundamental connections built into the overall design of the study at a number of different levels. It then focuses on four particular connections (between student, teacher and school responses; between dimensions of citizenship; between factors in a multilevel analysis; between the study and the changing policy context) which require further exploration and analysis in the future.

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[19] Civic knowledge (including content knowledge and skills), civic concepts and attitudes, and civic engagement and participation.

10.2 Fundamental Connections Built into the IEA Citizenship Education Study

A number of such connections were deliberately built into the overall rationale and design of the IEA Citizenship Education Study. These were intended to increase the impact and usefulness of the study's findings at national and international levels. They highlight the need, when reviewing the findings in this national report and considering the possibilities for further analysis, to have in mind the background and aims of the study.

The first key connection built into the study was to the practices of citizenship education as it takes place in different contexts. The study is very much concerned with the day-to-day realities of citizenship education in schools and communities. It was specifically designed to provide a rigorous, up-to-date evidence base to assist those involved in reforming and restructuring civic or citizenship education. As such, the study addresses the rapidly changing social, political and economic contexts across the world and the challenges they pose in helping young people to become informed and active participants in such contexts. The study does not offer a single definition of citizenship, nor does it advocate a recommended approach to citizenship education. Instead, it attempts to increase understanding of this area through the examination of policies and practices in a range of contexts across a number of countries. At the heart of the IEA Citizenship Education Study is a belief that discussion and debate about the nature of citizenship and education must involve a broad range of people, including policy-makers, curriculum developers, teachers, teacher educators, researchers, those representing local communities and, in some instances, young people themselves. The study seeks to provide an evidence base which is relevant to the interest and needs of all these groups.

The second connection built into the study was between its design and existing theoretical and research frameworks. Frameworks in civic or citizenship education, sociology, political science and developmental psychology have guided the overall design of the study. For example, connections have been made deliberately to the first civic education study, conducted by IEA in 1971 (Torney *et al.*, 1975). Some of the questions used in the first study were repeated in this study, in an attempt to gauge the extent of any changes over time. The theoretical and research frameworks have also helped to design the 'Octagon' model which provides the study's framework (see Chapter 1). The 'Octagon' represents, in a visual form, the variety of influences and contexts which impact on young people's everyday thinking and actions in social, political and economic environments. These influences and contexts

include family members, neighbours, peers and teachers, as well as home, communities, school and the curriculum. The study has attempted to investigate the connections between these influences and contexts in the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their role as citizens in democracies.

It is important, therefore, that the study's findings, at national and international levels, both inform and are informed by existing theoretical and research frameworks. However, the study was not intended to refine particular theories and frameworks. It is primarily about deepening understanding of citizenship education as it takes place in different contexts within and across countries. Such understanding can then be used to inform and shape policy and practice, though this may also have an influence on underpinning frameworks.

The third fundamental connection built into the study was the link between policy and practice in citizenship education. The study is concerned with assisting the formation of policy and practice in this area and ensuring there are strong connections between the two. Accordingly, the study's two-phase design was deliberately framed in order to connect information about existing policies and practices with evidence about the civic knowledge, attitudes and actions of young people, and their teachers and headteachers. Phase 1 of the study was essentially qualitative and provided an overview of conditions for citizenship education in each participating country. Phase 2 was essentially quantitative, based on empirical data. It is, therefore, vital in making connections that the Phase 2 findings, at national and international level, are read in conjunction with the Phase 1 national case studies (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999; Kerr, 1999a).

The design also made deliberate connections to current questions about policy and practice in citizenship education across countries, through the formation of policy-relevant questions. Eighteen such questions were drawn up to guide the study, with the intention that the study's outcomes would provide information and evidence to help answer these questions. Following the conduct of Phases 1 and 2, the original 18 questions were merged into 12 overarching questions. Further details of the links between each policy question and the data from Phases 1 and 2 is provided in Appendix 1. This national report provides an important means of connecting the data from the international study to the formation of policy and practice in citizenship education in England.

The fourth connection built into the study was between the dimensions of citizenship and the domains and contexts within which they are developed. The study seeks to examine the development of dimensions of citizenship[20] by young people. These dimensions of citizenship are not developed in isolation, but are interrelated. The study attempts to throw more light on the nature of interrelationship through an exploration of those dimensions in relation to a number of key domains and contexts. The development of dimensions of citizenship requires topics and concepts around which civic knowledge and civic attitudes and beliefs can be formed. The experts involved in Phase 1, including the NRCs, generated a series of core topics and concepts that they believed the majority of 14-year-olds should understand, and these were clustered around three core international domains:

1. Democracy and democratic institutions;
2. National identity and international relations;
3. Social cohesion and diversity.

The development of dimensions of citizenship also requires contexts. These contexts both influence and are influenced by the domains and dimensions of citizenship. The study concentrated on two particular contexts which have a considerable influence on the practices of citizenship education. The first context is that of the **school**, incorporating the formal and informal curriculum as well as whole-school issues. The second context is the **community** outside the school and, in particular, the opportunities for civic participation in such communities. Taken together, the connections between the dimensions, domains and contexts in the study help to provide a clearer sense of the ways in which young people are initiated into the political communities to which they belong, including communities both in and outside school.

The final fundamental connection built into the study was to national and cross-national contexts. A key aim of the study was to investigate the main issues and challenges in citizenship education and the different ways in which such challenges are being addressed through policy and practice in a range of national contexts. This cross-national research base is a major strength of the study. It enables the documentation of similarities and differences in the organisation of policies and practices across countries. It also facilitates the identification of a rich set of possibilities and comparisons about the development of citizenship dimensions by

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[20] Civic knowledge (including content knowledge and skills), civic concepts and attitudes, and civic engagement and participation.

young people, and about the main goals of citizenship education across countries. This cross-national aspect of the study should not be forgotten. It is important that the findings for students, teachers and headteachers in England are set within the context of the results from other participating countries, as well as overall international findings. Further exploration and analysis of the IEA data at national level in England should continue to make reference to these cross-national and international contexts.

10.3   Making Connections between the Survey Instruments

Given that the IEA Citizenship Education Study was primarily concerned with measuring the *civic knowledge* and assessing the *civic attitudes* and extent of *civic participation and engagement* of young people, considerable effort went into the construction of a valid instrument, for use with 14-year-olds, for this purpose. The final student instrument comprised a test of *civic knowledge and skills* and a survey of *civic concepts, attitudes, participation and engagement*. However, students do not approach citizenship dimensions in isolation. There are a number of people and contexts which can influence their *civic knowledge*, *skills*, *concepts*, *attitudes*, *participation and engagement*. Chief among these are their teachers and the schools they attend. Accordingly, in order to provide more contextual information about schools, curriculum and classroom approaches to citizenship education, short survey instruments, in the form of questionnaires, were developed for teachers and headteachers. These questionnaires were completed by teachers and headteachers in schools where students participated in the study.

The student, teacher and school instruments are each different in their focus and in the data they generated. However, insights from teachers and headteachers can be useful in interpreting the findings from students. They provide a broader context within which those findings can be viewed. The study's instrument design attempted to make use of such insights through the deliberate repetition of a small number of scales and items across some or all of the instruments.

The intention in this chapter is to draw attention to the broader insights provided by comparison of these repeated items and scales. Indeed, there are many more links that can be made between the student, teacher and headteacher data than it has been possible to include in this national report. The report concentrates primarily on the student data, with some reference to teacher attitudes and views and background details about the schools. However, the school data have largely been left for further analysis. The same is true of the study's international report (Torney-Purta *et al.*,

2001), which had a similar focus on the student data. The comparison of the repeated items and scales is considered, in turn, across the different instrument combinations.

10.3.1 Comparisons between student, teacher and school responses

An international scale relating to views of student learning in citizenship education was repeated, for purposes of comparison, across the student, teacher and school instruments in the study. Two further national items about the availability and use of the Internet, both in schools and in citizenship education lessons, were also repeated across the three instruments.

As was reported in Chapters 8 and 9, IEA studies have traditionally used measures of 'opportunity to learn'. This approach proved inappropriate for citizenship education. However, it was felt important to ascertain what learning opportunities were provided for students in citizenship education in schools. A scale of seven items was drawn up for this purpose, based on the suggestions of NRCs. The items ranged from whether students had opportunities to learn to work together in groups and contribute to solving community problems, to whether they learned to be patriotic and to understand the importance of voting in national and local elections. The results from the students in England on these items are shown in Table 8.2 and discussed in Chapter 8, Section 8.2, while those from the teachers are shown in Table 9.5 and discussed in Chapter 9, Section 9.10 and those from the headteachers are shown in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1   What do students learn in your school?

Students in this school learn…	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	NR
to work together in groups with other students	-	-	31	70	-
to understand people who have different ideas or points of view	-	-	42	58	-
how to act to protect the environment	-	-	70	31	-
to contribute to solving problems in the community	-	5	74	21	-
to be concerned about what happens in other countries	-	2	67	31	-
about the importance of voting in national and local elections	2	22	67	8	2
to be a patriotic and loyal citizen of our country	3	49	41	3	4

N = 118

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 118 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

All of the headteachers in England either agreed or strongly agreed that, in citizenship education in their school, students learn to work together in groups and cooperate with others, to understand people who have different ideas or points of view, and how to protect the environment. The great majority of headteachers said that students also learned to be concerned about what happens in other countries (98 per cent) and to contribute to solving problems in the community (95 per cent). Meanwhile, three-quarters of the headteachers (75 per cent) said that students learned about the importance of voting in national and local elections. Only just over two-fifths (44 per cent) said that students learned to be patriotic and loyal citizens of their country.

The ranking of the seven items by headteachers was largely the same as that by the teachers and students. The major difference was in the emphasis and extent of the learning. The headteachers were very clear about the learning opportunities that are provided for students in their school in citizenship education. However, the percentage of teachers who agreed or strongly agreed about the provision of such learning opportunities was lower on each item than that of the headteachers. In turn, the percentage of students who agreed or strongly agreed that they had had the opportunity to learn was much lower on each item than that of their teachers and their headteachers.

This highlights a potential gap not only between headteacher and teacher perceptions, but also between headteacher, teacher and student perceptions. Though headteachers perceive that opportunities are created for students to learn in citizenship education in their school, these are not so strongly identified by teachers as headteachers believe and, in turn, not so strongly identified and taken up by students as teachers believe. The overall effect is of a considerable gap between headteacher and student perceptions. The extent of this gap is confirmed, for example, in relation to the question about the importance of voting in local and national elections. Whereas three-quarters of headteachers (75 per cent) said that students learned about this in their school, only half the teachers (50 per cent), and less than one-third of students (31 per cent) said they had learned about this topic in school. This points to the existence of potential gaps in schools between intended and actual practices in citizenship education. This is an issue which requires further investigation with students, teachers and headteachers.

In England the School Questionnaire included two extra national items which asked headteachers about the availability of access to the Internet and the use of the worldwide web to publicise details about the school and its citizenship education

provision. These items built from questions about access to and use of computers which were included in the Student and Teacher Questionnaires. The majority of headteachers (94 per cent) reported that their school had access to the Internet for teaching/educational purposes. This tallies with the teacher findings in Chapter 9 which showed that, where computers were available, the majority of teachers reported having access to the Internet (85 per cent) and using the Internet for instructional purposes (61 per cent). Headteacher responses about the use of the worldwide web were less positive. Only just under one-third (31 per cent) reported putting information about the school on the web. The majority of headteachers also reported that they had not yet used the web to provide details about citizenship education guidelines (93 per cent) or teaching materials (93 per cent) in their school.

Overall, the findings from the headteachers dovetail with those of the students in Chapter 7 and the teachers in Chapter 8. Taken together, they confirm that, despite the spread of computers and the growing use of the Internet in schools and elsewhere, there is still a considerable way to go if new technologies are to fulfil their potential as a powerful teaching and learning tool and source of information for citizenship education. This is an issue that requires further monitoring in future years.

10.3.2 Comparisons between student and teacher responses

Three international scales and items from one other scale were included in the student survey and repeated in the Teacher Questionnaire for purposes of comparison. The international attitude scales were those concerning the concept of citizenship, the importance of *conventional citizenship* and the importance of *social-movement citizenship*, and classroom climate for discussion and teaching and learning approaches. The other items were drawn from the scale on participation in school life.

The results of the comparisons of these scales were discussed in detail in Chapter 9. They highlighted a number of similarities between the attitudes of students and teachers and also a number of differences. The differences included the identification of gaps between teachers and students concerning the importance of *conventional citizenship* to being a good adult citizen, and also about the predominant teaching and learning approaches to citizenship education in schools. The nature of these similarities and differences and their impact on the practices and possibilities of citizenship education are matters that require further investigation.

10.3.3   Comparisons between teacher and school responses

Comparison between the teacher and school instruments was limited to the repetition of a series of items concerning the place of citizenship education in the curriculum in both the Teacher and School Questionnaires. The Phase 1 national case studies raised concerns about the status of citizenship education in schools (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999). The issue was addressed in Phase 2 by seeking views about the place of citizenship education in the curriculum. Teachers were asked how they thought citizenship education should be taught, i.e. whether as a specific subject, or integrated into subjects related to human and social sciences, or integrated into all subjects or as an extra-curricular activity. The same question was also put to headteachers in the School Questionnaire. The results for teachers in England are shown in Table 9.4 and are discussed in Chapter 9, Section 9.8 those for headteachers are shown in Table 10.2.

Table 10.2   How should citizenship education be taught?

Citizenship education should be…	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	NR
taught as a specific subject	20	50	21	6	3
taught integrated into subjects related to human an social sciences, such as history, geography, languages, religion, ethics, law	1	6	63	26	4
integrated into all subjects at school	7	14	50	25	4
an extra-curricular activity	34	26	29	4	7

N = 118

A series of single-response items.
Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100.
A total of 118 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

There was a strong consensus among headteachers in England that citizenship education should be part of the formal curriculum, rather than an extra-curricular activity. The preferred curricular route was for citizenship education to be integrated into human and social science subjects, such as history, geography and RE, with over four-fifths of headteachers in England (89 per cent) in agreement or in strong agreement with this approach. There was also considerable support for a cross-curricular approach (75 per cent of headteachers), with citizenship education integrated into all school subjects, but there was no strong sentiment that it should be taught as a separate subject, with less than one-third of headteachers (27 per cent) in favour of this option. The support of headteachers in England for an integration model to teaching citizenship education mirrors that of teachers in England and in most other countries. This confirms the conclusion that teacher and headteacher views on the place of citizenship education in the curriculum reflect the curriculum *status quo* in their respective countries. This would certainly seem to be the case for

England given the mirror image of the results for teachers and headteachers on this issue.

10.3.4 Comparisons between student and school responses

Comparison between student and headteacher responses was limited to a series of items about participation in civic-related organisations. These were included in the student survey and repeated in the school questionnaire. Headteachers were asked about the opportunities provided for student participation in such organisations, both in and out of school. Students were asked about the extent of their take-up of such opportunities. The results from the student responses was considered in Chapter 8, Section 8.4, of this report. Table 10.3 allows a comparison of the responses from schools about what is available with those from students about the organisations and activities in which they participate.

What is clear from the comparison is the considerable gap between the opportunities for involvement in organisations that schools say they provide and the take-up rate by students. This is particularly so for in-school opportunities. The organisations most frequently provided in-school for students were a sports organisation or team (reported by 99 per cent of headteachers); collecting money for charity (99 per cent); an art, music or drama organisation (97 per cent); and a school and/or class council (89 per cent). Yet the take-up rate reported by students for these in-school organisations was surprisingly low. Only just over half the students reported participation in a sports organisation or team (52 per cent); under two-fifths had collected money for charity in school (39 per cent); under one-third had participated in school in an art, music or drama organisation (28 per cent); and less than one-quarter had participated in a school and/or class council (18 per cent). As was discussed in Chapters 8 and 9, the figures for participation in a school or class council or mock parliament may be artificially low. Students may have responded as to whether they had been a member of a council or parliament themselves, rather than having participated in the process through other student representatives.

Table 10.3   Schools' assessments of availability of activities or organisations in school and/or out of school and student participation

Activities/organisation provided…	Schools' assessment		Student take-up	
	In-school	Out-of-school	In-school	Out-of-school
	%	%	%	%
A sports organisation or team	99	51	52	49
Collecting money for charity	99	27	39	35
An art, music or drama organisation	97	45	28	22
A school and/or class council, or a mock parliament	89	11	18	2
A computer club	87	17	16	6
Preparing a school magazine or newspaper	81	7	23	4
Voluntary activities in the community	82	36	9	19
A school or student exchange programme to another country	81	18	11	3
An environmental organisation	40	15	7	7
An organisation sponsored by a religious group	39	35	3	11
A human rights organisation	21	13	3	3
An organisation such as Scouts, Guides or Cadets	12	58	4	40
A cultural association based on ethnicity	12	15	2	4
A United Nations or UNESCO club	3	7	1	2
A youth organisation affiliated with a political party	1	14	2	5
Uncodeable/no response	-	14	18	18
N =	118	118	3,043	3,043

A series of single-response items.
More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100.

Students' reported take-up of out-of-school opportunities to participate in civic-related organisations is also low. The exception is participation in an organisation, such as Scouts, Guides or Cadets, with 40 per cent reporting such involvement. In particular, the numbers of students involved in what the study terms 'social-movement related' citizenship activities and organisations is surprisingly low when compared to the assessment of schools about what is provided. Less than two-fifths (19 per cent) of students are involved in voluntary activities in the community outside school and less than one-tenth (nine per cent) in school. There are similar findings for environmental organisations (seven per cent both in and out of school) and human rights organisations (three per cent in both cases).

The comparison between headteacher and student responses reveals a considerable gap between the opportunities for involvement in civic-related organisations that schools said they provide and the take-up rate by students. Students do not appear to take advantage of the myriad of opportunities for participation on offer both in and

out of school. The extent, reasons for and implications of such disinterest for students' future civic participation and engagement are issues that require further investigation.

10.4 Making Connections between Civic Knowledge and Civic Participation

The international report from the study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001) sought to explore differences between students' civic outcomes. It attempted, in particular, to shed light on two of the dimensions of citizenship measured in the study – a simple model was developed in order to show the main factors relating to students' *civic knowledge* and *civic participation* across countries. The model was used to highlight the main predictors of *civic knowledge* and *civic participation* across participating countries and to offer directions for future analysis. It is likely that more sophisticated models will be developed in the future, in order to throw further light on the complex interrelationship between dimensions of citizenship.

10.4.1 A model for connecting civic knowledge and civic participation

The model featured in the international report for connecting civic knowledge and civic participation is represented in Figure 10.1.

The model was based on two dependent variables: the total student score on the knowledge test (*civic knowledge*) and the students' stated expectation that they will vote when adults (*civic participation*). The model also included: two background factors – gender and home literacy resources (students' reports on the number of books at home); four school factors – expected further years of education, open classroom climate for discussion, reported participation in school or class council and student reports about having learned about the importance of voting; and two variables outside of school – evenings spent outside the home and frequency of watching television news. The results for students in England on these various factors and variables were discussed in the preceding chapters of this report.

Figure 10.1

Path Model for Civic Knowledge and Likelihood to Vote
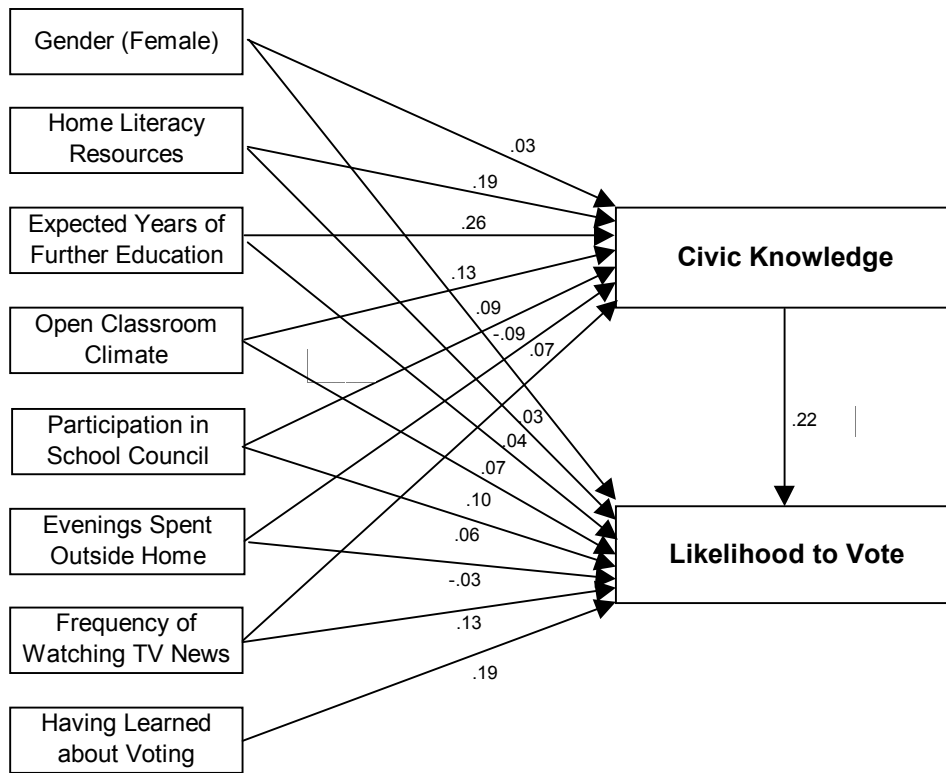
Explained Variance (R²)	
Civic Knowledge	.20
Likelihood to Vote	.20

NOTE: Standardized coefficients. Correlation between predictor variables is not displayed.

Model estimated for calibration sample with 500 students per country.

Listwise exclusion of missing values.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study,* Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

Table 10.4

Regression Models for Civic Knowledge Within Individual Countries

Predictor variables	Australia	Belgium (French)	Bulgaria	Chile	Colombia	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Denmark	England	Estonia	Finland	Germany	Greece	Hong Kong (SAR)	Hungary	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania	Norway	Poland	Portugal	Romania	Russian Federation	Slovak Republic	Slovenia	Sweden	Switzerland	United States
Gender (Female)	-	-	-	-.06	-	-.07	-.12	-.09	-	-	-	-.08	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.07	-	-.11	-	-.08	-.06	-	-.08	-.12	-
Home Literacy Resources	.16	.23	.22	.24	.18	.08	.12	.13	.26	.13	.11	.25	.11	-	.16	.18	.14	.14	.17	.14	.19	.10	.21	.15	.10	.20	.22	.23
Expected Years of Education	.20	.22	.26	.27	.20	.33	.50	.28	.18	.26	.36	.28	.40	.17	.43	.27	.28	.32	.26	.41	.28	.25	.13	.36	.43	.26	.27	.27
Open Classroom Climate	.08	.17	-	.11	-	-	.08	.21	.13	.16	-	.13	.11	.08	.06	.13	.14	.13	.13	-	.12	-	.20	.15	.12	.17	.13	.12
Student Council/Parliament	.13	-	-	-	-	.18	-	.10	.07	-	-	.06	.13	-	.06	-	-	-	.13	-	-	-	-	-	.10	.09	-	-
Spending Evenings Outside	-.12	-.11	-	-	-.05	-	-.10	-.15	-.19	-.22	-.12	-.15	-.09	-.21	-.11	-.10	-.10	-.08	-.11	-.07	-.13	-.10	-.09	-	-.07	-.08	-.07	-.10
Watching TV News	.13	.11	-	.08	-	-	-	.07	.10	.07	.10	.08	-	.22	-	.09	.06	.08	.09	.09	-	-	-	.08	.06	-	-	-
R²	**.18**	**.25**	**.19**	**.21**	**.10**	**.22**	**.36**	**.25**	**.28**	**.22**	**.22**	**.29**	**.28**	**.17**	**.33**	**.21**	**.20**	**.21**	**.23**	**.27**	**.21**	**.13**	**.16**	**.25**	**.33**	**.21**	**.20**	**.23**
Weighted N	2883	1703	2541	5343	4540	2990	3510	2778	2545	3248	2642	3419	3287	4406	3083	3690	2347	3210	2922	3236	3028	2870	2053	3380	2929	2666	2768	2439

NOTE: Standardized (beta) regression coefficients. Not significant coefficients were omitted (-).

The standard errors estimated using a jackknife procedure for complex sampling, significance tests corrected for multiple comparisons.

Listwise exclusion of missing values.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study,* Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

10.4.2   Predictors of civic knowledge

Table 10.4 shows the results for all participating countries when the model was applied to *civic knowledge*.

In most countries, the most important predictor in explaining *civic knowledge* was students' expected further years of education, although this was not the case in England. The longer that students intended to stay in the education system, the higher their civic knowledge scores. This was a significant predictor across all participating countries, including England. Table 10.5 shows responses about further years in education, beyond their present year (Year 10), in relation to the mean scores on the civic knowledge test for students in England. This confirms that 14-year-old students, who were intending to go on into further and higher education, had significantly higher civic knowledge scores than those students who intended to leave school at 16.

Table 10.5   Anticipated years staying on in education by civic knowledge score

Anticipated number of years remaining in education	Total civic knowledge	Civic content	Civic skills
	Mean %	Mean %	Mean %
Leave at end of secondary	88.17	85.81	94.56
Further education	96.91	93.83	103.03
Higher education	106.35	102.96	111.02
Not sure	92.56	87.70	102.15

The variable of further years in education is influenced by a range of people and contexts, including parents' levels of education, the aspirations of peers, teachers and schools, and the structure of the school system in each country. In England further analysis was carried out concerning the interrelationship between parents' levels of education, as reported by students, and student scores on the civic knowledge test.

This further analysis revealed significant differences in civic knowledge between students who believed that their mothers and/or fathers had stayed on in tertiary education (further and higher education) and those who said their parents had left school earlier. Sons and daughters of parents who had stayed on to tertiary level were more likely to anticipate staying on in higher education themselves. There are a number of possible reasons for this phenomenon. Parents who have experienced higher levels of education themselves may have benefited from the broader range of employment opportunities available to those with higher-level qualifications. As a result, they may be more likely to counsel their children to work hard and seek similar

educational and job opportunities for themselves. The socio-economic background of these parents may also mean they can be more selective in where they live and, correspondingly, in their choice of schools for their children.

As Table 10.6 confirms, students in England, who reported that their parents had attended educational institutions at tertiary level, had a higher average score on the civic knowledge test than those who said their parents had left school at primary or secondary level.

Table 10.6   Relationship between parents' level of education and students' civic knowledge

	Total civic knowledge	Civic content	Civic skills
	Mean %	Mean %	Mean %
Mother's highest level of education			
Primary	92.80	91.71	96.07
Secondary	97.50	94.49	103.36
Tertiary (further and higher education)	105.23	101.75	110.23
Not sure	94.30	91.64	100.04
Father's highest level of education			
Primary	87.11	86.20	91.53
Secondary	97.03	94.06	102.85
Tertiary (further and higher education)	105.59	102.23	110.43
Not sure	95.05	92.16	100.95

Home literacy resources – the number of books that students report they have at home – is the most important predictor of civic knowledge for England. The more books students reported having at home, the higher their civic knowledge score. This was a strong predictor in all participating countries, except Hong Kong (SAR). Table 10.7 shows the mean civic knowledge scores for students' in England in relation to home literacy resources. This confirms that students from homes with more books had significantly higher scores than those with fewer books.

There was also an attempt to see whether the receipt of a newspaper at home (as part of home educational resources alongside books) had a similar impact on civic knowledge scores. This measure proved not to be a strong predictor of student civic knowledge in England.

Table 10.7   Number of books in the home and newspaper receipt by civic knowledge

No. of books in the home	Total civic knowledge Mean %	Civic content Mean %	Civic skills Mean %
0 – 10	85.96	84.10	91.45
11 – 50	91.92	89.31	97.95
51 – 200	99.59	96.47	105.26
More than 200	109.04	105.33	113.79
No response	88.34	93.65	81.06

Student perceptions of an open classroom climate for discussion is another variable that is positively related to civic knowledge scores in three-quarters of participating countries, including England. Using the model, other predictors with significant but smaller positive effects on civic knowledge scores were identified, including reported participation in a school or class council and frequency of watching television news. Interestingly, gender was not a significant predictor of civic knowledge in England.

The only variable which has a negative impact on civic knowledge is the amount of time spent outside the home in the evenings. Students who report that they spend most evenings outside their home with their friends have lower civic knowledge scores than other students. This negative effect was found in the majority of participating countries. However, England was one of three countries, along with Estonia and Hong Kong (SAR), where this negative effect was most pronounced. The reason for this effect is an issue which requires further detailed investigation.

10.4.3   Predictors of civic participation

Table 10.8 shows the results for all participating countries when the model was applied to *civic participation* (likelihood to vote).

In the model, the most important predictor in explaining *civic participation* is students' civic knowledge. The higher students' civic knowledge scores, the more likely they are to vote when they become adults. This was a significant predictor across all participating countries, including in England. The second most important predictor is frequency of watching television news. For students in England, this is a significant and positive predictor of the likelihood that they will vote in the future. The third most important predictor is student reports of whether they have learned about the importance of voting in national and local elections while in school. Interestingly, two out of the three top predictors are school-related variables.

Table 10.8

Regression Models for Likelihood to Vote Within Individual Countries

Predictor variables	Australia	Belgium (French)	Bulgaria	Chile	Colombia	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Denmark	England	Estonia	Finland	Germany	Greece	Hong Kong (SAR)	Hungary	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania	Norway	Poland	Portugal	Romania	Russian Federation	Slovak Republic	Slovenia	Sweden	Switzerland	United States
Gender (Female)	-	.08	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.06	-	-.04	.07	-	-	-	.09	-	-	.07	-	-	-	-	-	.08	-	-
Home Literacy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.08	.08	-	-	.11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.12	.13	.12
Expected Years of Education	-	.10	-	-	-	-	.13	.11	.08	.07	.18	-	-	-	-	.10	-	-	.09	.13	.08	-	-	.10	.12	-	.11	.09
Open Classroom Climate	.15	-	-	.11	.16	.10	-	.11	.09	.08	-	.08	.17	.14	.09	.08	.14	.09	.08	-	.08	-	.16	.07	-	.10	-	.15
Learned to Vote	.12	.17	.12	.29	.18	.09	.23	.15	.16	.22	.29	.20	.09	.18	.17	.16	.20	.08	.15	.14	.14	.17	.13	.15	.17	.20	.20	.20
Student Council/Parliament	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.07
Spending Evenings Outside	-.06	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Watching TV News	.18	.16	.17	.09	.14	.16	.10	.15	.17	.13	-	.09	.15	.17	.14	.14	.18	.20	.16	.16	.11	.12	.17	.15	.15	.12	-	.13
Civic Knowledge	**.27**	**.27**	**.18**	**.15**	**.14**	**.13**	**.32**	**.23**	**.21**	**.27**	**.12**	**.26**	**.20**	**.20**	**.20**	**.26**	**.19**	**.20**	**.25**	**.23**	**.22**	**.21**	**.16**	**.18**	**.17**	**.27**	**.17**	**.21**
R²	**.26**	**.28**	**.13**	**.18**	**.15**	**.09**	**.27**	**.21**	**.21**	**.22**	**.20**	**.21**	**.16**	**.20**	**.18**	**.21**	**.21**	**.16**	**.21**	**.20**	**.14**	**.13**	**.17**	**.15**	**.15**	**.27**	**.16**	**.28**
Weighted N	2519	1477	2020	4608	4276	2773	3017	2256	2126	2653	2180	2926	2971	3751	3009	2956	1864	2453	2440	2954	2659	2540	1810	3171	2542	2120	2167	2168

NOTE: Standardized (beta) regression coefficients. Not significant coefficients were omitted (-).

The standard errors estimated using a jackknife procedure for complex sampling, significance tests corrected for multiple comparisons.

Listwise exclusion of missing values.

Source: *IEA Civic Education Study,* Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested in 1999.

Perception of an open classroom climate for discussion, expected further years in education and reported participation in a school and/or class council have only moderate positive effects on the likelihood to vote in England. Home literacy resources, students' spending evenings outside their homes with friends and gender appear to have little or no effect on students' future civic participation.

10.4.4 Conclusions

The model highlights the strong interrelationship between the citizenship dimensions of *civic knowledge* and *civic participation*. It suggests that the more civic knowledge that young people acquire, the more likely they are to use this knowledge to exercise their fundamental right of participation as an adult citizen, namely to vote. The model also points up the crucial role that schools, teachers and the media play in developing citizenship dimensions.

What goes on in schools, through the programmes and processes of citizenship education, has the capacity to influence positively both the civic knowledge of students and, consequently, their attitudes to future civic participation and engagement. Ensuring that students develop high-quality civic knowledge, including civic content knowledge and civic skills in handling civic and political materials, increases the chances that those students will actively participate in civil and political life when they are adults. At the heart of high-quality civic knowledge is learning in schools about the importance of voting in national and local elections in a classroom climate which is open for discussion. Both are factors which can positively influence students' intention to vote.

The interrelationship between civic knowledge and civic participation points to the potential impact of citizenship education. It suggests the need to develop effective citizenship education programmes, which have a sound knowledge base, include a range of quality, interactive classroom practices and to foster positive relationships between teachers and students. There is also an important role for the mass media, given the positive effect that watching television news has on civic knowledge and intention to vote. Television news can be accessed by students at home, but it can also be built into citizenship education practices in schools.

However, the model also highlights the impact of other influences beyond school. It is no coincidence that, in the majority of participating countries when school factors are held constant, students from homes with fewer educational resources (such as books) and lesser educational expectations have lower civic knowledge scores. In voting in a number of countries, they also express less interest in voting. This is

certainly the case in England. It confirms that though schools can have a major positive influence on the development of citizenship dimensions by students, they are not the only influence.

The model developed in the study's international report could be improved in many respects, particularly through the addition of more factors and variables. Further analysis at the international level, and more in-depth analysis at a national level, are likely to follow.

10.5 Making Connections at a National Level through Multilevel Analysis

The NFER research team carried out further in-depth analysis of the results for England, using the statistical technique of multilevel modelling. The analysis, based on the national dataset for England, included:

- Internationally derived scales for student civic knowledge (Part One – the cognitive test of civic knowledge).
- Student background information (Part Two of the student survey).
- Internationally derived scales for student attitudes (Part Three of the student survey).
- Teacher background and attitudes (Teacher Questionnaire).
- School background and attitudes (School Questionnaire).

The aim of the analysis was to explore the relationships between student knowledge and attitudes and a range of background factors at student, teacher and school levels. The multilevel model was applied to the cognitive scales and the 11 internationally derived attitude scales. In addition, nine new student attitude scales were derived for England only, over and above the international scales. These included national scales concerning understanding of democracy, trust in the media, discussion of politics and trust in establishment institutions.

Multilevel modelling is a sophisticated statistical device that takes account of the hierarchical structure of data, i.e. that students are grouped into similar clusters at different levels (e.g. year group–cohort–school), and produces more accurate predictions and estimates of the differences between students, cohorts and schools. Further details about the multilevel modelling that was carried out by the research team at NFER in relation to the data from England is provided in a separate technical appendix (Schagen, 2002).

The results of the multilevel modelling in connection with the civic knowledge scale and the 11 international attitude scales were revealed in the preceding chapters, since these were included in the results reported for each scale. Unfortunately, there is not room in this report to comment fully on the results for each of the nine additional student attitude scales derived just for England. However, some of the findings are discussed in the general comments that follow.

Overall, the multilevel analysis has revealed a large number of apparently significant relationships. Although the analysis has been wide-ranging, it is by no means exhaustive and other factors could be derived, and other ways of looking at the data investigated. It is perhaps worth drawing attention to a few of the more interesting relationships. They may provide the basis for further research.

Some interesting questions arise when looking at students' scores on the civic knowledge scale. It is reasonable to understand why those students from homes with more books, high educational expectations and high parental (father) education level score higher on this scale. These factors are proxies for general socio-economic status. However, less explainable is why students who come from homes with a daily newspaper have lower scores on the civic skills sub-scale, and why students who spend more time watching television and videos at home should have higher skills scores.

There are a number of interesting relationships between factors from the Teacher Questionnaire and student outcomes. For example, students with older teachers tend to score more highly on the measure of *conventional citizenship*, while those students whose teachers were more positive about citizenship education tended to have higher scores on the *social-movement citizenship* scale, as well as in school participation.

There are also some significant school factors of interest. For example, in schools that claimed to have higher levels of racial or religious intolerance, students tended to have lower civic knowledge scores. Those students in schools which said that citizenship should be integrated into all subjects tended to have higher civic knowledge scores. Schools' positions in GCSE league tables tended to relate to students' scores in a predictable way, with the higher the school position, the higher the score of students on measures. However, social deprivation (as measured by percentage of students eligible for free school meals) had a different relationship. More deprived schools tended to have higher scores for social-movement citizenship, as well as for understanding democracy.

In many cases, the multilevel analysis highlighted a lack of relationship, which is an interesting finding in itself. Thus, for example, it was common to find that when students, teachers and schools were asked the same or similar questions, there was little or no correspondence between the responses from the same schools. In general, as was highlighted in Section 10.3, above, students were more negative than teachers in their responses about what was going on in the schools and teachers, in turn, were more negative than headteachers. This is a finding that may require further investigation at individual school level.

In summary, the multilevel analyses, which were carried out by the NFER research team on the dataset for England, have revealed a number of interesting relationships. These relationships may help to inform and guide other researchers who wish to explore more deeply the factors which impinge on the formation of students' attitudes to citizenship dimensions. It should be emphasised, however, that the relationships commented on in this chapter should not be identified with causality without further evidence. It is hoped that the multilevel analysis will be taken forward in the future not only in relation to further investigations of the dataset for England, but also in relation to the datasets for groups of countries. There is scope, for example, to carry out multilevel analysis across those countries from the European Union that participated in the study, as well as the group of English-speaking countries, in order to establish the extent to which the interesting relationships identified in England hold true across countries.

10.6 Making Connections to Citizenship Education Developments in England

The main reason for England's participation in the study was to understand more about the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their role as citizens in modern society. The knowledge and understanding generated can be used to inform citizenship education developments in England. The study's concentration on young people's citizenship dimensions, and dual focus on schools and on opportunities for participation in the community, dovetails with some of the key challenges facing the current citizenship education initiative in England. At one level, England's participation in the study provides a useful baseline measure of the levels of civic knowledge and skills, and attitudes of 14-year-olds, their teachers and headteachers, prior to the formal introduction of Citizenship into schools. It creates the opportunity to follow up this baseline measure at a number of points in the future.

However, the citizenship initiative in England has made considerable progress since 1999, when Phase 2 of the study was carried out in schools. Following the report of the Citizenship Advisory Group (Crick Report, 1998), it was agreed in autumn 1999 that Citizenship should be introduced as a new statutory subject in the National Curriculum for all pupils aged 11 to 16 from September 2002. This is an historic move and marks the first time that citizenship education has featured so prominently in the school curriculum in England.

The decision was followed in late 1999 with the presentation to schools of a new 'light touch' Curriculum Order at key stages 3 and 4 (pupils aged 11 to 16), which has programmes of study for Citizenship and an attainment target based on three elements:

♦ Knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens
♦ Developing skills of enquiry and communication
♦ Developing skills of participation and responsible action (QCA, 1999).

Policy-makers have also recognised that the new Curriculum Order, by itself, is not sufficient to encourage the development of effective citizenship education in schools and beyond, and that more needs to be done to take forward the advisory group's work. Accordingly, a package of measures to support the implementation and delivery of citizenship education in schools has been put in place since late 1999. They include the following.

♦ A Citizenship Education Working Party, set up by the DfEE (now DfES), to consider implementation issues. The Working Party is chaired by an education minister. The membership is drawn mainly from those within education – schools, LEAs, church, link agency representatives – in line with the focus on implementation. The Working Party has been concentrating its efforts on addressing the pressing issues of assessment, teacher training, community involvement and the sharing of resources and good practice. The latter encompasses a focus on the links between citizenship education and information and communications technologies (ICT), including the World Wide Web.

♦ A series of curriculum development projects, funded by the DfEE, and designed to fill the main gaps in coverage of the new Citizenship Order and framework in schools as identified by recent surveys (Kerr *et al.*, 2000, 2001a, 2001b; Dartnall and Kerr, 2001). These are designed to provide important resources and points of contact with schools and offer 'real-life' case studies of effective practices.

♦ Initial advice and guidance for Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4 (QCA and DfEE, 2000). This guidance goes some way to restoring and explaining the link between what pupils should be taught and the rationale for, definition of and approach to citizenship education as put forward by the advisory group.

- Schemes of work for Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4 (QCA, 2001, 2002). These comprise: a Teacher's Guide with planning advice about the nature of, and differing approaches to, Citizenship; a series of worked-up units relating to knowledge, skills and understanding components of the Order; units of differing types, including discrete, subject-linked and whole-school units, and short leaflets highlighting the possibilities for developing citizenship activities through every curriculum subject. The schemes are available on the Web: www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes

- A Citizenship website, designed by the DfES and launched in autumn 2001. It includes specific sections for teachers and pupils, as well as parents and governors. The teachers' section contains information, resources, teaching ideas and details of linked organisations and sites. The pupils' section offers information, ideas for discussion and links to other pupil sites. It is hoped that the site will provide the first port of call for anyone interested in citizenship education in schools. The site address is: www.dfes.gov.uk/citizenship/

- A new subject association, the Association for Citizenship Teaching (ACT), which has its own journal and offers membership to all those involved in citizenship education.

- Initial teacher education courses for citizenship education in the secondary sector, offering 200 places for student teachers in 2001–02.

- A series of post-16 development projects designed to assist the development of effective practice in schools and colleges for students age 16 to 19, building on the activities at key stage 4.

- A longitudinal study, commissioned by the DfES, to investigate the impact of citizenship education as a new National Curriculum subject in secondary schools. The study will begin in 2001–02. The main aims are to:

  - assess both the short- and long-term effects of citizenship education on pupils' levels of social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy
  - identify the different processes – in terms of school, teacher and pupil effects – that lead to differential outcomes
  - assess changes in levels of joining, and participation in, voluntary bodies.

Taken together, the developments provide a much needed package of support for teachers and schools in introducing the new statutory subject of Citizenship. England's participation in Phase 2 of the IEA Citizenship Education Study affords a number of opportunities to contribute to the support package for schools. The Phase 2 results, both for England and internationally.

- contain findings which help to address the four pressing implementation issues facing schools, namely assessment, teacher training, community involvement and the sharing of resources, including the use of ICT and the World Wide Web;

- identify potential gaps in the civic knowledge and skills of students and teachers;

- address the issue of effective teaching and learning in citizenship education in classrooms and schools, including the balance between knowledge, skills and attitudes and the relationship between in-school and out-of-school activities; the findings about teaching approaches and student learning could be incorporated into the training of teachers, both new and existing, for citizenship education and into further advice and guidance in this area;

- are of relevance to the post-16 citizenship development projects in assisting the smooth transition of 14-year-olds, through post-16 routes and into the roles and responsibilities of being an adult citizen;

- can make a major contribution to the aims and conduct of the longitudinal study; the aims of the longitudinal study are similar to the IEA Citizenship Education Study and there is considerable potential for the IEA study to assist the instrument design and analysis plan for the study.

The contribution of the IEA Citizenship Education Study to citizenship education developments in England is explored in more detail in the next and final chapter of this national report, entitled 'Conclusions and Recommendations'.

10.7   Summary

Introduction
- The study is founded on making connections between the dimensions of citizenship, and the practices and contexts of citizenship education.

- There are four particular connections which require further exploration and analysis. They are: the connections built into the Phase 2 survey instruments; the connections between students' civic knowledge and civic participation, which are explored in the study's international report (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001); the connections made by the use of the multilevel modelling on England's dataset; and the connections to current developments in citizenship education in England.

Connections built into the study
- The study is connected to the everyday realities of citizenship education in schools and communities, to existing theoretical and research frameworks, to policy and practice issues, and to the domains and contexts of citizenship education, including national and cross-national contexts. These connections are built into the overall aims and designs of the IEA Citizenship Education Study.

Making connections between survey instruments
- Examining the responses of students, teachers and headteachers to similar items and scales across the survey instruments reveals a number of interesting findings. The first is the sizeable gap in schools between the perceptions and experiences of headteachers, teachers and students. Students were generally much less positive about their experiences than teachers, and teachers much less positive than headteachers. The second is the strong consensus between headteachers and teachers about how citizenship education should be taught in schools, with the majority favouring an integrated approach across subjects. The third is the

considerable gap between the opportunities for involvement in civic-related organisations provided by schools, both in and out of school, and the take-up of such opportunities by students. This is an issue which requires further investigation.

Making connections between civic knowledge and civic participation

- Cross-national analysis of country results in Phase 2 has begun to shed light on the possible relationship between the dimensions of citizenship. The international report contains a simple model which explores the interrelationship between *civic knowledge* and *civic participation* across countries. The model highlights the strength of the interrelationship. It suggests that the more civic knowledge that young people acquire, the more likely they are to use this knowledge to exercise their fundamental right of participation as an adult citizen, namely to vote. The model also points up the crucial role that schools, teachers and the mass media, play in developing citizenship dimensions.

- In most countries, including in England, the civic knowledge of 14-year-olds was the most powerful predictor of their intended civic participation as adults. The more young people know about the functioning of democracy, including learning about the importance of voting in school, the more they expected to vote as adults.

- What goes on in school plays an important role in the process of citizenship education. An open climate for discussion in the classroom had a positive effect on both civic knowledge and intention to vote in about three-quarters of countries, including England. Participating in school and class councils also had a positive impact on civic knowledge in one-third of countries in the study, including England.

- Watching television news programmes had a positive impact on civic knowledge in about half of the countries, including England, and on likelihood to vote in nearly all countries.

- Fourteen-year-olds from homes with more books had higher civic knowledge in almost all countries, including England. The number of books also had a positive impact on the likelihood of voting in one-fifth of countries, including England. Put another way, students, including those in England, from homes with fewer books and less educational support had lower civic knowledge and lower interest in voting as adults.

- Students spending evenings hanging around with friends away from their homes had a negative impact on civic knowledge in most countries. England was one of three countries, along with Estonia and Hong Kong (SAR), where this negative impact was strongest.

- When other factors were held constant, girls had slightly lower civic knowledge than boys in about one-third of countries. Girls expressed a greater willingness than boys to vote in about one-fifth of countries. In England these gender differences were not found.

Making connections at national level through multilevel analysis

- Multilevel modelling analysis on the national dataset for England has revealed a large number of apparently significant relationships between student outcomes

and student, teacher and school factors. These relationships may inform and guide other researchers who want to carry out further analyses on the national dataset.

Making connections to citizenship education developments in England

♦ The study's findings at national and international level can inform citizenship education developments in England. England's participation provides a useful baseline measure of the levels of civic knowledge and skills, and the attitudes of 14-year-olds, their teachers and headteachers, prior to the formal introduction of Citizenship as a new subject in secondary schools.

♦ The findings can contribute, in a number of ways, to the support package which is being constructed to help schools implement citizenship education. Contributions include advice on teaching and learning approaches, the identification of the training needs of teachers and students, and assistance in the conduct of post-16 citizenship development work and the longitudinal study on citizenship education.

11. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1 Introduction

The opening chapter of this national report set out the aims and purposes of the IEA Citizenship Education Study. It also detailed the reasons for England's participation in both phases of the study. This final chapter revisits the question: what has the IEA Citizenship Education Study accomplished and, in particular, what have been the outcomes from England's participation in the study? The chapter begins with a brief review of the extent to which the aims and purposes of the study have been accomplished. This is followed by a synthesis of the main findings and conclusions which emerge from the study.

The chapter ends by setting out a series of practical recommendations which seek to ground the study's conclusions within the 'real-life' context of the current citizenship education initiative in England. This is vital given the challenges facing schools, teachers and communities in developing effective citizenship education for young people, particularly with the formal introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory subject from September 2002. This final section of the chapter begins with some general recommendations, and these are followed by a series of specific recommendations which are addressed to particular groups of people who are crucial to the development of effective citizenship education in England. These groups are:

- policy-makers
- teachers, headteachers and schools
- teacher educators and resource providers
- young people
- community representatives, parents, the mass media and public figures
- researchers.

What has the IEA Citizenship Education Study Accomplished, and What Have Been the Outcomes of England's Participation in the Study?

The IEA Citizenship Education Study is the largest and most comprehensive study of citizenship education ever undertaken not only in terms of the numbers involved and its breadth, but also the depth of its investigation. It investigated citizenship dimensions and core civic content areas in schools and communities. Young people, teachers and headteachers were asked about citizenship dimensions and content areas through a mixture of qualitative and quantitative research methods. It also addressed

a number of central questions concerning policy, practice and research in citizenship education.

In so doing, the study has brought increased understanding of the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens in modern, democratic societies, many of which are experiencing rapid and sustained change. It has revealed the complexity of the task of preparing young people for civic and political participation. The study's overarching framework, the 'Octagon' model (see Chapter 1), has highlighted the important role that schools play in the preparation of young people for civic and political participation. However, it has also shown that schools do not act alone. They are but one of the 'nested' influences and institutions which impact on young people, alongside family, friends, community representatives and the media. As a further outcome, the study has developed research tools that can be employed to measure and assess the civic and political knowledge, understanding, attitudes and engagement of young people in democratic societies. These tools can be used by researchers to conduct further analysis of the study's data and to undertake future investigations in this area.

The study has also succeeded in addressing most of the policy-relevant questions about citizenship education that participating countries raised at the start of the study (see Appendix 1 for a full list of the questions). It has revealed what citizenship and education means to 14-year-olds, both within and across countries, in relation to the core domains of *democracy and democratic institutions*, *national identity and international relations* and *social cohesion and diversity*. Though it is not possible to predict future behaviour with certainty, the study has produced a detailed snapshot of the current civic knowledge, attitudes and actions of young people, as well as of their future intentions. This up-to-date, empirical knowledge base is very important in creating a strong foundation upon which informed decisions can be made about policy, practice and research in citizenship education.

The overall picture presented by the **international study** concerning what citizenship and education means to 14-year-olds is mixed (Torney-Purta *et al*., 2001). This is the case not only within each participating country, but also across countries. The study has identified many positive findings about the civic knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, activities and actions of young people, as well as of teachers and headteachers. However, it has also thrown up a number of worrying indicators, in particular countries, concerning the knowledge and engagement of 14-year-olds in civic and political life. These indicators suggest that young people are already forming a

number of deep-seated attitudes and beliefs which may have a considerable influence on their attitudes and actions as adult citizens. It is important that these positive and negative aspects are understood, discussed and acted upon.

England has also benefited greatly from participation in both phases of the study. Phase 1 participation succeeded in increasing knowledge and understanding, in England, of developments in citizenship education in many other countries (Kerr 1999a, 1999b; Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999). This knowledge and understanding was brought to bear on the work of the Citizenship Advisory Group. In particular, it influenced the scope of the Group's activities and the nature of its recommendations about the aims and purposes of citizenship education in England (Crick Report, 1998). This influence has been carried over into the New Curriculum Order for Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4, which is itself based on the recommendations in the Citizenship Advisory Group's Final Report (Crick Report, 1998).

Meanwhile, as this **national report** underlines, participation in Phase 2 has provided a clearer picture about the level of civic knowledge and skills, understanding of concepts, and attitudes and intended participation of young people in civic and political life in England, in comparison to students in other countries. The findings from the 3,043 Year 10 students, over 300 teachers and 100-plus headteachers, who took part in the study in England, are a rich source of data. They offer important pointers to school and classroom practice in citizenship education, and to the links between civic knowledge and civic engagement. Taken as a whole, the Phase 2 findings for England provide a robust, up-to-date empirical foundation upon which decisions about current and future policy, practice and research in citizenship education can be based. England's participation in the study offers a unique baseline prior to the formal introduction of citizenship education into schools in September 2002.

Participation in Phase 2 has also created opportunities for more in-depth investigation of the findings for England and for additional analyses. This national report should be the start of the process of analysis of the dataset for England rather than the end. It has been written in the spirit of encouraging further investigation by researchers in England, in collaboration with those from other countries. It is important, in conducting further analyses, to make connections between the outcomes of Phases 1 and 2, both in England and internationally. The national case studies from Phase 1, including that from England, provide important contextual information which can be used to better understand the findings from the student civic test and survey in Phase

2 (Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999; Kerr, 1999a, 1999b; Torney-Purta *et al*., 2001; Kerr *et al*., 2001a, 2001b).

Just as with the international report, the picture of what citizenship and education means to 14-year-olds in England is mixed. There are many positive findings concerning the civic knowledge, skills, attitudes, engagement and participation of young people in England. For example, students demonstrated well-developed skills of interpretation of civic-related material. This is all the more positive given that citizenship education was not a formal part of the curriculum at the time of England's participation in the study. However, there is no room for complacency. There are also worrying indicators, particularly those concerning low levels of engagement of students in civic and political life and the minority of students who hold especially negative attitudes and opinions towards certain groups in society, compared to their counterparts in other countries. These dispositions may have a considerable knock-on effect on the future attitudes and actions of young people. It is important to understand and discuss what these positive and negative aspects mean in the context of England, and to act upon the outcomes of that discussion. These aspects are considered in more detail in the next section of this chapter, and are itemised under a series of headings that reflect the major research findings of the report.

11.2 Conclusions

The main conclusions from Phase 2 of the study are as follows.

1. **Citizenship education is a complex enterprise**

    ♦ Developing effective citizenship education is a complex process which involves a variety of citizenship dimensions (knowledge, skills, concepts, attitudes, engagement and participation) and a range of educational approaches and opportunities for young people, both in and out of school. Though schools and teachers have an important role to play, young people are also subject to the influence of family, friends, community representatives, the mass media and the prevailing political culture in society.

2. **Students in most countries, including in England, have an understanding of fundamental democratic values and institutions, but increasing their depth of understanding is a challenge**

    ♦ Most students were able to answer questions dealing with fundamental laws and political rights and recognised the importance of basic democratic institutions such as free elections. Students in England, in particular, had some difficulty in answering questions which addressed their knowledge, understanding and experience of the processes and practices of democracy, government and elections. However, students in

many countries showed only moderate grasp of skills of interpreting political materials such as cartoons and election leaflets. The understanding of students, however, is often superficial or detached from 'real-life' experiences. Approximately one-third of 14-year-olds in the study were unable to interpret a simple election leaflet.

- On the civic knowledge test, students in England ranked in a middle band of ten countries whose scores were close to the international average. However, England was one of five countries where student scores for grasp of 'civic skills' were significantly higher than those for 'civic content knowledge'. In England homes with more books and higher educational expectations had a positive effect on civic knowledge scores, whereas students hanging around with friends in the evening had a strong negative effect. This underlines the influence that family, community and friends can have on students' learning in citizenship education, in addition to teachers and schools.

3.   Young people agree that good citizenship includes the obligation to vote

- Fourteen-year-olds in all countries agree that it is important for citizens to obey the law and to vote. In England over three-quarters of students said they would vote in general elections. However, it should be remembered that the intention to vote, or not to vote, assessed at age 14 is not necessarily a predictor of actual future voting behaviour.

4.   Students with higher levels of civic knowledge are more likely to expect to participate in political and civic activities as adults

- In all countries, including in England, there is a positive correlation between civic knowledge and participation in democratic life. Specifically, the more students know about fundamental democratic processes and institutions, the more likely they are to expect to vote as adults.

- Schools have an important role to play in shaping expected behaviour by teaching about the importance of elections and voting. However, there is a potential mismatch at present between teacher intentions and student outcomes. Although a majority of teachers report that they cover elections and voting as part of the citizenship curriculum, many students perceive that schools do not place much emphasis on teaching about the importance of voting in national and local elections.

5.   Schools that model democratic practices are most effective in promoting civic knowledge and engagement

- Schools that model democratic values and practices by encouraging students to discuss issues in the classroom and take an active role in the life of the school are effective in promoting civic knowledge and engagement. In many countries, students who had had such experiences in school had greater civic knowledge and expectations to vote as adults compared to other students. However, an open and participatory approach to citizenship education is not the norm, either in most countries or for many students. Only one-quarter of students across all countries say that

they are often encouraged to voice their opinions during discussions in their classrooms. An equal proportion say that this rarely or never occurs.

6. **Voting aside, students are sceptical about traditional forms of political engagement, but are more open to other forms of involvement in civic life**

   ♦ Except for voting, students do not think that conventional political participation is particularly important. An overwhelming four out of five students in all countries, including those in England, indicate that they do not intend to participate in conventional political activities, such as joining a political party, writing letters to newspapers about social and political concerns, and being a candidate for a local or municipal office.

   ♦ At age 14, young people are only moderately interested in politics in most countries. Only one-quarter of students in England agreed or strongly agreed with the statement in the survey: '*I am interested in politics.*' In the majority of countries, including England, girls are less interested in politics than boys.

   ♦ Nevertheless, students across countries are open to other forms of civic and political engagement unrelated to elections and political parties. On average, 59 per cent of students reported that they expect to collect money for a social cause or charity, while 44 per cent said that they would participate in a non-violent protest march. Young people were also very likely to endorse adults participating in environmental, human rights or community organisations as a way to demonstrate good citizenship. However, in England, students reported low rates of participation in such civic-related organisations. Only a minority of students across countries claimed that they are likely to engage in illegal protest activities, such as spray-painting slogans on walls, blocking traffic and occupying buildings.

   ♦ England is one of a group of countries where students appear to be less engaged in civic and political life than their counterparts in other countries. Students in England are significantly below the international average on three out of the four participation scales in the study, namely *conventional citizenship, social-movement citizenship* and engagement in *political activities*. Interestingly, all the other countries in this group, with the exception of Australia, are from Europe. They include Belgium (French), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Slovenia, Sweden and Switzerland. This lack of student engagement in Europe is an issue that requires further investigation.

7. **Schools and community organisations have untapped potential to influence positively the civic preparation of young people**

   ♦ Fourteen-year-olds generally believe that working with other young people in schools and communities can help to solve problems. Students prefer to belong to groups and organisations in which they can work with their peers and see results from their efforts. Such experiences can have positive effects on civic knowledge, attitudes and future engagement by giving students opportunities for, and experiences of, participation in settings that matter to them, particularly in school.

- Schools are environments that are part of the everyday lives and experiences of young people. They throw up problems that matter to students and provide opportunities for them to take part in 'real' rather than 'anticipated' actions. This sense of *school efficacy* (of improving things in the school), identified in the study, may be as important a factor in future political behaviour as the broader sense of *political efficacy* (the relationship between citizens and national government) that has frequently been measured in research on citizenship education.

- Participating in a student, class or school council is positively related to civic knowledge in about one-third of countries, including in England. Students in about two-thirds of countries report that they are involved in civic-related organisations, such as voluntary groups and environmental and human rights organisations. However, students in England report low rates of participation in civic-related organisations. Only one-quarter of students in England report involvement in voluntary activities to help the community, and less than one-fifth say they are actively involved in student, class or school councils.

8. **Television is the main source of news and political information for students**

- Most 14-year-olds are regular consumers of the mass media. In almost all countries, including in England, news broadcasts on television are the most prominent sources of political information for young people. Newspapers rank second, followed by radio news broadcasts. Watching television news programmes has a positive effect on civic knowledge in about half of the countries, including in England, and on likelihood to vote in all countries. However, England is one of the countries with the least extensive viewing of television news broadcasts by students.

- In most countries, media sources are trusted by students, with news on television the most trusted, followed by news on the radio and in the press. In England, there is much greater trust among students of television news compared to trust of newspapers. Indeed, students in England show the lowest level of trust of newspapers compared to those in other countries.

9. **Patterns of trust in government-related institutions vary widely among countries**

- Fourteen-year-olds are already members of a political culture. They possess concepts of the social and economic responsibilities of government that largely correspond to those of adults. Students in England support the concept that government has society-related responsibilities, such as providing education and health services and preserving law and order. England is one of the countries above the international mean on the *society-related government responsibility* scale.

- Young people across countries, including those in England, are moderately trusting of their government institutions. Courts and the police are most trusted, followed by national and local governments. In contrast, political parties are trusted very little.

10.   Students are supportive of the rights of women and of immigrants

- Students in all the countries surveyed have generally positive attitudes towards the political and economic rights of women. More than 55 per cent of respondents *strongly agreed*, and an additional 30–35 per cent *agreed*, with items about women having the same rights as men and being entitled to equal pay for the same job. Support for the rights of women was particularly strong among students (both among boys and girls) in England. England is one of the countries above the international mean on the *women's political and economic rights* scale.

- Ninety per cent of respondents agree that immigrants[21] should have the right to equal educational opportunity. Slightly more than three-quarters also agree that immigrants should have the right to maintain their customs, to retain their language and to vote. There are, however, some national differences. Students in England have relatively less positive attitudes towards immigrants than in other countries. England is one of the countries below the international mean on the *immigrants' rights* scale.

- In all countries, girls are much more likely than boys to support rights for women, and in many countries there are similar gender differences (in the same direction) in support for immigrants' rights. However, there are a minority of students in all countries who have especially negative attitudes to other groups in society, such as women and immigrants. This is of particular concern in England, when these attitudes are discriminatory and contrary to the law. It raises the question of what is to be done about such students and the circumstances which give rise to the development of such attitudes.

11.   Young people are positive towards national identity

- Most young people have highly positive attitudes towards their country, its symbols (such as flag, national anthem and constitution) and towards the national identity. In most participating countries, the average young person has a sense of patriotism and of trust or attachment either to the country as a political community or to government institutions (or to both). In England students have relatively less positive attitudes towards their country or nation compared to those in other countries, although boys have more positive attitudes about national identity than girls. England is one of the countries below the international mean on the *national identity* scale.

- The majority of 14-year-olds in England support the need to defend the independence of their country or nation and are resistant to attempts from outside to change the UK's traditions and culture.

12.   Gender differences are minimal with regard to civic knowledge, but are more marked in relation to some civic attitudes

- When other factors, such as expected level of education, are held constant, girls have slightly lower civic knowledge than boys in about one-third of

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21   The term immigrant was not defined in the student questionnaire and, thus, students responded according to their own perceived meaning of the term.

countries. When the comparison is made without holding other factors constant, however, there are sizeable gender differences in only one country. Girls express a greater willingness than males to vote in about one-fifth of the countries. Gender differences with regard to civic knowledge are negligible in England.

♦ Fourteen-year-old boys and girls possess similar concepts of democracy and government responsibility and also express similar levels of trust in most countries. As noted above, girls in all countries are more supportive than boys of rights for immigrants and women. Fourteen-year-olds are only moderately interested in political issues, with girls expressing less interest than boys in most countries, including in England. Boys are more willing to engage in illegal protest behaviour than girls.

13. Teachers recognise the importance of citizenship education in preparing young people for citizenship

♦ There was consensus among teachers in all countries, including those in England, that citizenship education is important for students, that schools have a strong role to play and that citizenship education should be part of the formal curriculum. However, there was no strong sentiment that it should be a separate subject, but rather that is should be integrated with other social subjects.

♦ Although teachers of citizenship education across countries come from a wide variety of subject backgrounds, they are confident about their ability to prepare students for citizenship and appear to be responsive to the needs and interests of their students, as well as to curricular guidelines.

♦ The topic areas teachers deem important and feel confident to teach are those that they teach most to students, such as equal opportunities, media, environmental issues, human and citizens' rights and national history. They feel less confident to teach, and deem less important, those they teach less to students, such as civic virtues, the judicial system, economic and social welfare issues (including trade unions), international organisations, political institutions and electoral processes.

♦ There is, however, some conflict between the vision of citizenship education and its actual practice in most countries. While teachers have a vision of citizenship education that emphasises critical thinking and values development, they report that, in practice, teaching usually involves transmission of factual knowledge through textbooks, teacher talk and worksheets, although they reported some classroom discussion of controversial issues. Teachers in many countries, including those in England, also say that citizenship education would be improved if they had better materials, more subject-matter training and more teaching time.

14. Student attitudes may suggest the growth of a 'new civic culture'

♦ There is some evidence that the attitudes to democracy, citizenship and government of young people in the study fit with the notion of the growth of a 'new civic culture' characterised by less hierarchy and more individual decision-making. The generation of young people represented

by the study's 14-year-olds appear to be gravitating towards actions linked to more informal social movement groups rather than those linked to more formal conventional political parties and groupings.

15. **Making connections reveals a considerable gap between the 'anticipated' and 'actual' actions of students, teachers and headteachers**

♦ Looking across the civic test and survey, and comparing the responses of students, teachers and headteachers, there is some evidence of a considerable gap between the 'anticipated' and 'actual' actions of students, teachers and headteachers concerning civic and political life. Fourteen-year-olds support the principles of democracy and its institutions– government, elections and civic-related organisations, and they talk in 'anticipation' about participating through such institutions. However, their 'actual' actions are heavily influenced by their perceptions, often negative, of the 'real-life' working practices of such institutions in democratic society. For example, though students support the concept of government and of having an influence on government decision-making, in practice, they express low levels of trust in political parties and show little interest in participating in conventional politics. The same is true of voting. Though, at age 14, young people 'anticipate' they will vote as adults, because they view it as the primary responsibility of a good adult citizen, they may not necessarily carry this intention through into their 'actual' practice as adults.

♦ A similar gap is visible in schools and classrooms between 'anticipated' and 'actual' actions concerning civic and political issues. For example, students support the principle of working with other students in school to solve issues which are important to them and 'anticipate' being involved in such activities. However, they are less willing to take up such opportunities, in practice, when they are offered to them in school. This may be because they lack confidence. Meanwhile, teachers express an 'anticipation' to make their classroom practices in citizenship education more open and participatory, but recognise that their 'actual' approaches are dominated by teacher talk and the use of textbooks and worksheets. There is a similar gap between the 'intended' curriculum for citizenship education in schools, as planned by teachers and headteachers, and the 'actual' citizenship education curriculum experienced by students. Students are generally much less positive about their school and curriculum experiences than teachers, and teachers much less positive than headteachers.

11.3 Recommendations

The conclusions from this study have considerable implications for policy, practice and research in citizenship education in England. The next section translates these conclusions into specific, practical recommendations. They attempt to ground the study's conclusions within the 'real-life' context of the current citizenship education initiative in England. The recommendations are addressed, in turn, to particular

groups of people who are crucial to the development of effective citizenship education in England. These groups are:

- policy-makers
- teachers, headteachers and schools
- teacher educators and resource providers
- young people
- community representatives, parents, the mass media and public figures
- researchers.

The next section begins with some general recommendations concerning citizenship education which apply to all groups.

11.3.1 General recommendations

The **general** recommendations are to:

1. **Promote the conclusions and recommendations of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, particularly those relating to England, as widely as possible**. This is the most significant study ever undertaken of citizenship education, involving almost 90,000 14-year-olds in 28 countries, as well as teachers and headteachers. It provides considerable insights into the ways in which young people, in England and elsewhere, are prepared in schools and communities to undertake their roles and responsibilities as adult citizens in modern democracies. It is important that all those with an interest in citizenship and education, and citizenship education, have an opportunity to review the study's findings.

2. **Consider, discuss and act upon the study's conclusions and recommendations, particularly those concerning teacher education and school and classroom practice**. The study underlines the central role of the teacher, and of school and classroom practices in developing students' civic knowledge and civic engagement. It also provides a number of pointers concerning the most effective school and classroom practices that encourage such student development. These pointers have considerable implications for teacher education and training in England. They suggest the need to prioritise teacher education and training in citizenship education to ensure that all teachers, both existing and new, understand and are familiar with these school and classroom practices.

3. **Place young people at the heart of citizenship education and recognise that, by age 14, they are already members of a political culture and are subject to the influences of that culture**. The study underlines the importance of providing students with learning opportunities which make use of the 'real-life' experiences they have of civic and political issues. These experiences are developed in a range of contexts, including schools, home, communities and the prevailing

political culture in society. These contexts can have both positive and negative effects on attitudes that young people develop. For example, there is a need to decide, as a matter of urgency, what to do about the minority of young people who hold especially negative attitudes towards certain groups in society, particularly immigrants and women, and about the contexts in their lives which influence their development of such attitudes.

4. **Take advantage of the robust, up-to-date empirical foundation provided by the study to inform and shape policy, practice and research in citizenship education in England in the coming years**. The study offers a clear picture about the level of civic knowledge and skills, understanding of concepts, and attitudes and intended participation of young people in civic and political life in England, in comparison to students in other countries. This knowledge and understanding provides a strong basis on which policy, practice and research in citizenship education can be made.

5. **Work to narrow the considerable gap between the 'anticipated' and 'actual' actions of students, teachers and headteachers in civic and political life, particularly in relation to young people**. This is vital to the future of democratic societies. Young people are not alienated from the principles and institutions of democratic society, but there are worrying signs in some countries, including England, that they are disinclined to take an active part in civic and political life. This is particularly true in relation to conventional political participation.

6. **Make greater use of the untapped potential that schools and community organisations have to influence positively the civic preparation of young people.** There is a need to provide more opportunities for students in schools and communities to work with their peers on issues that matter to them and to be involved in 'real-life' rather than 'anticipated' or artificial issues and actions. This sense of '*school efficacy*' (of improving things in school) may be an important factor in the future civic and political behaviour of young people. It is also important to recognise that schools and teachers can have a considerable influence on young people, but that they are but one of a number of 'nested' settings and groups that also have influence. These include family, peers, community representatives, the mass media and the wider political culture.

7. **Make use of the unique baseline provided by England's participation in the study prior to the formal introduction of citizenship education in schools in England in 2002**. This baseline can help to inform the conduct of further research studies in this area, such as the longitudinal study, which has just been commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) to investigate the impact of citizenship education as a new National Curriculum subject in secondary schools, and the post-16 citizenship development projects.

8. **Undertake further in-depth analysis of the data**. There is a considerable amount of further analysis of the dataset for England that can be carried out to add to an understanding of the links between student, teacher and school factors in citizenship education. Some of this can be done in collaboration with researchers in other participating countries, particularly those in Europe.

9. **Make connections between the dimensions, contexts and practices of citizenship education**. Developing effective citizenship education is a complex process which involves a variety of citizenship dimensions (knowledge, skills, concepts, attitudes, engagement and participation) and a range of settings (school, family, communities and political society) and educational approaches and opportunities for young people both in and out of school. It is vital to make connections between these dimensions, contexts and practices. There is a particularly strong, positive correlation between students' civic knowledge and their current and intended civic engagement and participation. The greater students' civic knowledge, the more likely they are to engage and participate in civic and political life as adults.

11.3.2 Recommendations for policy-makers

The recommendations for **policy-makers** concern the need to:

1. **Ensure that the study's main findings and recommendations are disseminated widely to those with an interest in citizenship, education and citizenship education**. This dissemination could encompass, among others, government departments, central agencies that support schools, organisations who work with young people, organisations who support citizenship education developments, as well as local education authorities (LEAs), schools, community organisations and parents. It is also important to involve young people in this dissemination process. As a minimum, the main findings and recommendations could be made accessible via the new DfES website for Citizenship at: www.dfes.gov.uk/citizenship.

2. **Produce a series of short, focused broadsheets for particular audiences, such as schools, headteachers, teachers, students, community representatives, parents and researchers**. Each broadsheet would summarise the main findings and recommendations, from the IEA Citizenship Education Study, which are of relevance to the particular audience, and discuss their implications.

3. **Consider and discuss the implications of the study for policy-making in citizenship education at national, local and individual school and community levels**. There is an urgent need to consider the implications of the study for the direction and progress of the current citizenship education initiative in England. The study is timely, given the current efforts to translate the policy vision of the Citizenship Advisory Group into real and effective practice in schools and communities. This process should include a review of the four areas identified by the Citizenship Education Working Party (CEWP) as priorities for implementation of citizenship education, namely assessment, teacher training, community involvement and the sharing of resources and good practice, and of the associated package of support currently available to schools and teachers.

4. **Work to narrow the gap between the 'anticipated' and 'actual' actions of students, teachers and headteachers, particularly in relation to engagement and participation in civic and political life**. Policy-makers will, no doubt, wish to minimise the potential gap between the policy vision of citizenship education and actual practices in schools and communities. It is important that the aims and

purposes of citizenship education are clearly understood by all those who are involved in this area. This understanding can be accelerated through the sharing of 'good practice' and the creation of strong networks that support and promote citizenship education.

5. **Make teacher education and training programmes for citizenship education an immediate priority, both for existing and new teachers**. The study confirms the positive correlation between students' civic knowledge and their intended civic engagement. It also highlights the central link between open and participatory approaches in schools and classrooms and the fostering of students' civic knowledge and engagement.

6. **Promote a whole-school and community approach to citizenship education**. Citizenship education is more effective in developing students' civic knowledge and engagement where schools and communities model democratic practices and provide opportunities for students to engage, often in collaboration with their peers, with civic and political issues which are real to them. It is important that any assessment and evaluation of citizenship education focuses on the processes and outcomes of practice across a whole school.

7. **Work to address the weaknesses and build on the strengths identified in the study concerning the civic knowledge, understanding, attitudes and skills of teachers and of young people**. There are particular weaknesses concerning the knowledge and understanding of teachers and students about political and electoral processes and the opportunities for students to discuss civic and political issues in classrooms. There are also insufficient opportunities for students to gain access to information and communications technologies (ICT), particularly the Internet, for citizenship education in schools. However, students in England show an aptitude in interpreting civic-related materials. It is crucial that policy-makers take swift action to remedy the weaknesses, through the funding of comprehensive programmes and initiatives, while, at the same time, promoting the strengths of existing 'good practice'. There is a particular need for policy-makers to address, as a matter of urgency, the minority of young people who hold especially negative attitudes towards the rights of certain groups in society, notably immigrants and women, and the circumstances which give rise to the development of these negative attitudes.

8. **Be alert to the danger in the current reform of citizenship education in England of an over-emphasis on students' civic content knowledge at the expense of more open classroom approaches, involving discussion and debate**. The study highlights the tendency in a number of countries which have undergone significant reform in this area in recent years for this over-emphasis to occur. It will be important for policy-makers to monitor developments carefully in England and resist attempts by schools and teachers to promote students' civic content knowledge at the expense of their development of civic skills, attitudes and opportunities for engagement and participation. Civic content knowledge is important but alongside, rather than in place of, the development of students' civic skills, attitudes and propensity for civic engagement.

9. **Use the results as a baseline for the conduct of follow-up analyses and further research concerning citizenship education in schools and communities**. It is important that the expertise gained from involvement in the IEA Citizenship Education Study, in terms of research methods, instruments and outcomes, is brought to bear on current research initiatives in this area. Links need to be made, in particular, to the national evaluation of the post-16 citizenship development projects and to the longitudinal study of citizenship education in secondary schools, which are both funded by the DfES.

10. **Promote 'joined up' policy and practice in citizenship education at all levels, from government departments down to individual classrooms**. It is the connections made between the dimensions, contexts and processes of citizenship education which are the strength of the IEA Citizenship Education Study. It is important that policy-makers recognise and actively promote these connections. They include connections between policy, practice and research; between young people, teachers and headteachers; between schools and communities; and between policy-makers, practitioners and researchers across countries

11.3.3 Recommendations for teachers, headteachers and schools

The recommendations for **teachers**, **headteachers** and **schools** concern the need to:

1. **Make use of the untapped potential that schools and community organisations have to influence positively the civic preparation of young people**. The study confirms that schools and teachers have a crucial role to play in the development of students' civic knowledge and attitudes to civic engagement. Schools are one of the key communities to which young people belong and they provide a 'real-life' social and political system that matters to them. Providing 'actual' opportunities for students to participate in the school community can have a positive impact on the development of their civic knowledge and attitudes to civic participation.

2. **Promote a whole-school approach to citizenship education, in partnership with local communities**. Citizenship education is more effective in developing students' civic knowledge and engagement where schools and communities model democratic practices and provide opportunities for students to engage with civic and political issues which are real to them. This modelling should include opportunities for all students to participate in the decision-making process in schools, through student, class and school councils. Assessment and evaluation of citizenship education should focus on the processes and outcomes of practice across the whole school.

3. **Build on the positive views and experiences that young people have of schools**. Schools are institutions that are trusted by students. Many students have had positive experiences of working in school with their peers to solve issues that matter to them. Schools need to provide more opportunities for students to work in this way and to be involved in discussing 'actual' rather than 'anticipated' or artificial issues and actions. Such opportunities enable students to develop a sense of '*school efficacy*' – of feeling that they can improve things in schools. Which may be as significant a factor in the future civic and political behaviour of young

people as the more common measure of 'political efficacy' (of improving things in government).

4. **Work to narrow the gap between the 'anticipated' and 'actual' experiences and approaches to citizenship education in schools**. The study reveals evidence of a considerable gap between the 'anticipated' and 'actual' actions and experiences of civic and political issues in schools. There is a gap between students' intentions to participate in decision-making in schools and the 'actual' take-up when such opportunities are presented to them. This may be the result of a lack of student confidence. There is also a gap between 'anticipated' and 'actual' classroom practice in citizenship education. Though teachers set out with the intention of making their classroom practices more open and participatory, there appears to be continued domination of teacher talk, textbooks and worksheets. Finally, there is a considerable gap between the 'intended' curriculum in citizenship education, as planned by headteachers and teachers, and the 'actual' experiences of students. Students are much less positive about such curriculum experiences than their teachers, and teachers, in turn, much less positive than headteachers.

5. **Make clearer connections between the dimensions, contexts and practices of citizenship education.** Though schools and teachers can have considerable influence on young people's development of citizenship dimensions, others do too – for example, family, peers, community representatives, the media and the prevailing political culture in the country. It is important to recognise students' 'actual' daily experiences of citizenship in these various settings, and to make greater use of them in schools. Connections can be made in a range of ways, including through discussion of topical, local and political issues, the critical analysis of media outputs, and joint school and community projects involving community representatives.

6. **Prioritise the education and training needs of teachers and students**. The study confirms the positive correlation between students' civic knowledge and their intended civic engagement. It also highlights the central link between open and participatory approaches in schools and classrooms and the fostering of students' civic knowledge and engagement. The role of the teacher, and their interaction with students, is paramount in this process. The study indicates that teachers in England are confident about their ability to prepare students for their roles and responsibilities as adult citizens but it also reveals strengths and weaknesses in teachers' civic content knowledge and classroom practices. The majority of teachers in England have not been trained for teaching citizenship and there is an urgent need for schools to identify and address the gaps in teacher knowledge and practice, as they may undermine attempts to develop effective citizenship education. The education and training needs of students should also be addressed since the study reveals that students lack confidence in participating in the decision-making process in schools and have only limited opportunities to take part in discussion of civic and political issues in classrooms.

7. **Monitor and assess the strengths and weaknesses of the civic knowledge, concepts and attitudes of students and teachers**. The study provides a clearer picture about the level of civic knowledge and skills, understanding of concepts,

and attitudes and intended participation in civic and political life in England, in comparison to students in other countries. It also reveals a considerable amount about the attitudes, understanding and approaches of teachers to citizenship education. Taken together, the responses of students and teachers highlight strengths and weaknesses in the development of citizenship dimensions. Schools need to be aware of these strengths and weaknesses when planning for effective citizenship education. In particular, they need to decide, as a matter of urgency, what to do about the small minority of students who have especially negative attitudes to the rights of a number of groups, notably women and immigrants. (A list of the strengths and weaknesses of students and teachers in relation to citizenship dimensions is contained in the 'Recommendations for Teacher Educators and Resource Providers' that follows.)

8. **Encourage teachers to move towards more open classroom practices in citizenship education**. Those students who have had experiences of discussing political issues in the classroom and taking an active role in the life of the school have greater civic knowledge and expectations to participate in political life as adults than others. However, students and teachers report that this open and participatory approach to citizenship education is not the norm in schools and classrooms in England. It is vital, therefore, to encourage teachers to move to more open classroom practices in citizenship education. Though they express the intention to make such a move, they require encouragement and training in order to build their confidence to reshape their daily practices. More open classroom practices would involve greater use of discussions of political issues with students, more critical analysis of the outputs from the mass media and increased opportunities for students to work together to solve 'actual' issues that matter to them.

9. **Consult regularly with those involved in citizenship education, particularly young people, and share experiences and good practice**. The study is testimony to the positive results that arise from consulting those with an interest in citizenship and education about their attitudes, beliefs and experiences. Consultation is particularly important given the complexity of the process of preparing young people for their roles and responsibilities as adult citizens in modern democratic society. Young people are at the heart of citizenship education and, by age 14, already have clear views about their citizenship and education experiences. It is crucial, therefore, that they are consulted. This consultation needs to take place regularly in schools, to assist in developing a shared understanding of the aims and purposes of citizenship education and of the most effective practices. This understanding can be accelerated through the sharing of 'good practices' and the creation of strong networks that support and promote citizenship education.

11.3.4 Recommendations for teacher educators and resource providers

The recommendations for **teacher educators** and **resource providers** are to:

1. **Promote the conclusions and recommendations of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, particularly those concerning England, to all teachers**. The study underlines the central role of the teacher, and of school and classroom

practices, and particularly classroom climate, in developing students' civic knowledge and civic engagement. It provides a number of pointers concerning the most effective school and classroom practices that encourage such student development. The study also confirms that citizenship education is a whole-school issue, involving teachers from a wide range of subject backgrounds and disciplines. Given this, it is important that all teachers, both existing and new, understand and are familiar with implications of the IEA Citizenship Education Study for their school and classroom practices.

2. **Prioritise teacher education training programmes in citizenship education for all teachers, both existing and new**. It also highlights the central link between open and participatory approaches in schools and classrooms and the fostering of students' civic knowledge and engagement. It is vital that all teachers understand these links and are confident both in their civic knowledge and in using more open teaching approaches. However, the study reveals that the majority of teachers in England have had no training for citizenship education, and the majority of schools have not participated in any special programmes or projects. The teachers surveyed highlighted increased civic content knowledge as one of their top training priorities.

3. **Assess and address, through teacher education programmes, the strengths and weaknesses of the civic knowledge, concepts and attitudes of students and teachers**. The study reveals a considerable amount about the attitudes, understanding and approaches of teachers to citizenship education. Their views, together with those of students, highlight strengths and weaknesses in the development of citizenship dimensions. The study suggests a close correlation between teacher commitment and confidence and the levels of students' civic knowledge and propensity for civic engagement. The more committed and confident teachers are about their civic knowledge and classroom practice, the greater the opportunities for students to develop and engage with civic and political issues. For instance, teachers had little confidence in teaching about the political and electoral system and, as a consequence, students had had little opportunity to learn about this. There is a particular need to train teachers to deal with the minority of students who hold especially negative attitudes to the rights of certain groups in society, notably immigrants and women, and with the conditions which give rise to such negative attitudes. A fuller list of the strengths and weaknesses of students and teachers in relation to citizenship dimensions is contained in the recommendation: '*Identify the education and training priorities for citizenship education*' below.

4. **Encourage teachers to move towards more open classroom practices in citizenship education, based on increased civic knowledge**. This is the most urgent priority in the education and training of teachers for citizenship education, alongside developing their civic content knowledge, and it is a particular priority for new teachers involved in citizenship education courses. More open classroom practices would involve greater use of discussions of political issues with students, more critical analysis of the outputs from the media and increased opportunities for students to work together to solve 'actual' issues that matter to them.

5. **Guard against the danger, in the current reform of citizenship education in England, of an over-emphasis by teachers on students' civic content knowledge at the expense of more open classroom approaches**. Building teachers' civic content knowledge is important and is identified as a training priority by teachers. However, there is a need to ensure that such capacity building does not occur at the expense of more open and participatory approaches to citizenship education in schools and classrooms.

6. **Develop more open and interactive teaching and support materials**. Teachers identify the need for better materials as one of their main priorities to improve their citizenship education practices. Teaching and support materials need to reinforce the pointers to effective school and classroom practice identified in the study. Teachers want resources that help them to develop and improve civic content knowledge alongside the use of more open and participatory practices in their classrooms, rather than more textbooks and worksheets. There is a need to consider the potential for the use of information and communications technologies (ICT) and also for the modelling and sharing of 'good practice' through the mass media, websites and support networks. This modelling would be particularly useful for those teachers involved in initial teacher training courses in citizenship education.

7. **Identify the education and training priorities for students and teachers in citizenship education**. The study identifies a number of strengths and weaknesses concerning students' development of citizenship dimensions and the ability of teachers in schools to aid such development. Taken together, these suggest a number of priorities for the education and training of students and teachers for citizenship education. The priorities can be grouped around three particular aspects: civic knowledge (both content knowledge and skills); classroom processes and practices; and whole-school dimensions. They are linked by an overall concern with developing the knowledge, understanding, skills and confidence of students and teachers in these aspects. They suggest that education and training should concentrate on the following priorities.

A. Civic knowledge (both content knowledge and skills)

Build on existing strengths of students and teachers in the level of knowledge and depth of understanding in the following citizenship education topic and skill areas:

- Equal opportunities
- Media
- Cultural differences and ethnic minorities
- Environmental issues
- Human and citizens' rights
- Interpreting civic-related materials.

Improve the level of knowledge and depth of understanding of students and teachers in the following citizenship education topic and skill areas:

- Processes and practices of democracy and democratic institutions, i.e. what is encompassed in the strand of citizenship education entitled 'Political Literacy'. It includes

  - principles underlying democracy and constitutions
  - political institutions
  - legal and judicial system
  - political representation and electoral processes
  - elections and voting in national and local elections

- Role of the media in civic and political life, including analysis of media output
- Economy
- Economic and social welfare issues, including the role of trade unions
- International relations.

There is a particular need to address the negative attitudes that a minority of students have to the rights of certain groups in society, notably immigrants and women. These are discriminatory and contrary to the law. They suggest the need for such students to know and understand more about the following topics:

- Processes and practices of democracy and democratic institutions, i.e. what is encompassed in the strand of citizenship education entitled 'Political Literacy'. It includes

  - principles underlying democracy and constitutions
  - political institutions
  - legal and judicial system

- Equal opportunities
- Cultural differences and ethnic minorities
- Human and citizens' rights.

B. *Classroom processes and practices*

Provide greater opportunities for young people to:

- Discuss 'actual' rather than 'intended' political issues and actions
- Discuss national and international political issues, both with teachers and with students of their own age
- Critically assess the outputs from the media, particularly from television news broadcasts
- Critically assess the conduct of elections, including the viewpoints of different parties and the work of pressure and lobby groups
- Become interested and engaged with civic and political institutions
- Engage with community organisations, both in and out of school
- Work with their peers on solving issues that matter to them, often related to their own citizenship experiences
- Discuss topics freely and accept that people may hold different viewpoints or opinions rather than always to seek consensus.

C. *Whole-school dimensions*

Provide greater opportunities for young people to:

♦ Access ICT facilities, including the Internet, in examining and discussing civic and political life
♦ Take part in the decision-making processes, particularly through involvement with student, class or school councils
♦ Work with other students to solve issues in school that matter to them
♦ Get involved with the school as a community through school and civic related organisations and clubs

♦ Make effective links with community organisations and participate in community activities both in and out of school.

D. *General*

All these education and training needs must be underpinned by high-quality resources and support materials for citizenship education, which promote the development of effective school and classroom practices.

11.3.5   Recommendations for young people

The recommendations for **young people** are to:

1. **Look in detail at the main findings of the IEA Citizenship Education Study and discuss the results in relation to their own citizenship and education experiences**. The Study is based primarily on the opinions and attitudes of young people. Questions to prompt discussion with young people include:

   ♦ How typical are the views and experiences of those young people who participated in the study, in England and elsewhere?

   ♦ What are the implications of the study for young people in terms of their:
      – school and classroom experiences?
      – lifestyles?
      – communities to which they belong?

   ♦ What training and support needs for young people are suggested by the study?

   ♦ How can these best be met?

2. **Recognise that young people have a central place in citizenship education and that, by age 14, they are already part of a political culture in society**. The study shows that young people are already influenced in their attitudes to civic and political life by the things they do in their daily lives. There are numerous opportunities for students to experience and learn about citizenship issues, both in and out of school. Yet how often are young people involved in learning which addresses their 'real-life' experiences of civic and political issues:

   – in schools and classrooms?
   – at home with their family?

    –   with other young people?
    –   with adults in the communities to which they belong?

3. **Learning to work more closely with other young people on civic and political issues**. The study shows that students felt they can make a difference when they work with other young people to solve 'real' issues that matter to them. Young people need to take up and be given opportunities to participate in the decision-making process in schools, through student, class and school councils. Through such participation, they can gain the confidence and skills to make the most of such opportunities and to realise that their actions can bring improvement – the notice of *school efficacy* in schools and *political efficacy* in communities and broader society. Developing this sense of efficacy – of feeling that you can make a difference – is very important if young people are to continue to be engaged in civic and political life. However, involvement in the process will also involve young people in deciding how and whether they can work with the minority of students who hold especially negative attitudes to the rights of certain groups in society, notably immigrants and women.

4. **Work to narrow the gap between the 'anticipated' and 'actual' experiences and approaches of young people to civic and political life**. There is evidence in the study of a considerable gap between young people's 'anticipated' and 'actual' actions and experiences of civic and political issues, particularly in relation to engagement and participation. Young people need to consider the reasons for their negative perceptions of the working practices of government and civic-related organisations. They also need to consider and find an explanation for the gap between their intention to participate in decision-making in schools (e.g. in school councils) and the 'actual' take-up when such opportunities are presented to them. Consideration and discussion of these gaps, in collaboration with their teachers, peers, family and communities, could help to narrow the gap between 'anticipated' and 'actual' experiences.

5. **Identify and prioritise their education and training needs in relation to citizenship education.** The study identifies strengths and weaknesses in students' development of citizenship dimensions and these suggest a number of priorities for the education and training of students for citizenship education (see the 'Recommendations for teacher educators and resource providers' in Section 11.3.4 for full details). These needs are linked by an overall concern with developing the knowledge, understanding, skills and confidence of students. Young people need to review these identified education and training needs, decide if there are further needs which have not been included, and work with teachers, schools and communities on how best these needs can be met.

6. **Make greater use of experiences and opportunities presented to them to develop civic knowledge and to engage in civic and political life**. Young people are presented with numerous experiences and opportunities to help prepare them for the roles and responsibilities of an adult citizen. Schools and teachers are but one of a number of settings and groups that influence young people. Others settings include family, peers, community representatives, the mass media and the wider political culture in society. Young people need to recognise these

influences and to take the opportunities provided to make connections between them.

7. **Consult regularly with those involved in citizenship education and share experiences and good practice**. The study shows that positive results can arise when young people are consulted about their attitudes, beliefs and experiences. Young people already have clear, well-formed views about their citizenship and education experiences by age 14. There should be greater consultation with young people about how they are prepared for their roles and responsibilities as adult citizens. In particular, young people should be provided with opportunities to consult with their peers about their citizenship and education experiences. Consultation needs to take place regularly, both in and out of school, to ensure that young people are not experiencing a gap between 'intended' and 'actual' practices in citizenship education. The results can be used to help develop a shared understanding of the aims and purposes of citizenship education and of the most effective practices.

11.3.6 Recommendations for community representatives, parents, the media and public figures

The recommendations for **community representatives**, **parents**, **the media** and **public figures** concern the need to:

1. **Make clearer connections between the dimensions, contexts and practices of citizenship education**. Though schools and teachers can have a considerable influence on young people's development of citizenship dimensions (civic knowledge, skills, attitudes, engagement and participation), they are but one of a number of 'nested' settings and groups of people that have such influence. Other settings and groups include community representatives, family, peers, the media and the prevailing political culture in the country. It is important to recognise students' 'actual' daily experiences of citizenship in these various settings, and to make greater use of them in schools and elsewhere. Connections can be made in a range of ways, including through discussion of topical, local and political issues, the critical analysis of media outputs, and joint school and community projects involving community representatives.

2. **Make greater use of the untapped potential that community organisations, in partnership with schools, have to influence positively the civic preparation of young people.** The study highlights the need to provide more opportunities for students in communities, and in schools, to work with their peers on issues that matter to them and to be involved in 'real-life' rather than 'anticipated' or artificial issues and actions. This sense of '*efficacy*' (of being able to improve things), whether in communities, school or the broader political society, may be an important factor in the future civic and political behaviour of young people. Schools and teachers can have a considerable influence on young people, but there are other settings and group that also have influence, including family, peers, community representatives, the media and the wider political culture.

3. **Promote a whole-community and whole-school approach to citizenship education**. Citizenship education is more effective in developing students' civic

knowledge and engagement where communities and schools model democratic practices and provide opportunities for students to engage, often in collaboration with their peers, with civic and political issues which are real to them.

4. **Place young people at the heart of citizenship education and recognise that, by age 14, they are already members of a political culture and are subject to the influences of that culture**. The study underlines the importance of providing students with learning opportunities which make use of the 'real-life' experiences they have of civic and political issues. These experiences are developed in a range of contexts, including schools, home, communities and the prevailing political culture in society. These contexts can have both positive and negative effects on attitudes that young people develop. For example, there is a need to decide what to do about the minority of young people who hold especially negative attitudes towards the rights of certain groups in society, particularly immigrants and women, and about the contexts in their lives which influence their development of such attitudes. Community representatives, parents, the media and public figures need to think about the impact of their daily actions on young people.

11.3.7   Recommendations for researchers and research funders

The recommendations for **researchers and research funders** are to:

1. **Promote the conclusions and recommendations of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, particularly those relating to England, as widely as possible**. This is intended to generate further discussion among researchers about the main findings and the implications for young people, schools and communities.

2. **Undertake further in-depth analysis of the national dataset for England**. Further analyses of the dataset for England can be carried out to add to an understanding of the large number of apparently significant relationships between student, teacher and school factors. This can build upon the international analysis and initial multilevel modelling analysis undertaken by the research team at NFER. There are many other factors that can be derived and investigated in the multilevel model. Research questions which require further investigation and analysis in England include:

   ♦ why is it that students in England do not take up opportunities for civic engagement both in and out of school?

   ♦ why do students in England have the lowest level of trust of newspapers in any of the 28 participating countries?

   ♦ why is civic engagement and participation low among students in England compared with those in other participating countries?

   ♦ what is the relationship between teacher beliefs and student learning?

   ♦ what is the balance between school and home factors on students' development of civic knowledge and civic engagement?

♦ who are the students with especially negative attitudes to the rights of certain groups in society and what factors have influenced the development of such attitudes?

These questions offer the possibility for collaboration with researchers from other countries that participated in the study. There is considerable potential for further cross-European analysis given the large number of participating countries from Europe. For example, one interesting area for further analysis is why civic engagement and participation is low among students from countries in northern and central Europe compared to other participating countries.

3. **Identify future research in citizenship education.** The study also provides a tool that can be used to identify and fund future research in this area, in relation to both quantitative (survey) and qualitative (particularly case-study) research methods. This additional analysis and research can help to further shape policy and practice in citizenship education.

4. **Use the results as a baseline for the conduct of further research concerning citizenship education in schools and communities in England**. It is important that the expertise gained from involvement in the IEA Citizenship Education Study, in terms of research methods, instruments and outcomes, is brought to bear on current research initiatives in this area. Links need to be made, in particular, to the national evaluation of the post-16 citizenship development projects and to the longitudinal study of citizenship education in secondary schools, which are both funded by the DfES. There is much that the IEA Citizenship Education Study can contribute to both these research initiatives.

5. **Promote 'joined up' research, policy and practice in citizenship education at all levels, from government departments down to individual classrooms**. It is the connections made between the dimensions, contexts and processes of citizenship education which are the strength of the IEA Citizenship Education Study. It is important that researchers recognise and actively promote these connections. They include connections between research, policy and practice; between young people, teachers and headteachers; between schools and communities; and between researchers, practitioners and policy-makers, across countries. It is vital for the future of citizenship education to continue to consult with young people and to learn from research, policies and practices in other countries.

Taken together, these recommendations offer a comprehensive agenda for shaping policy, practice and research in citizenship education in England in the coming years. They are testimony to the significance of the IEA Citizenship Education Study and to the benefits of England's participation in the study. It is to be hoped that they will be considered, discussed and acted upon for the benefit of young people.

11.3.8   Final comment

The Citizenship Advisory Group's final report contained a bold statement that the central aim of strengthening citizenship education in schools and communities in England is to effect:

> *...no less than a change in the political culture of this country both nationally and locally: for people to think of themselves as active citizens, willing, able and equipped to have an influence in public life and with the critical capacities to weigh evidence before speaking and acting; to build on and to extend radically to young people the best in existing traditions of community involvement and public service, and to make them individually confident in finding new forms of involvement and action among themselves.*

If the expectation of the Citizenship Advisory Group is to be realised, then it is essential that much more is understood about the influence of the current political culture on the civic knowledge, attitudes and actions of young people in England. Only through such understanding can informed decisions be taken concerning policy, practice and research in citizenship education in the coming years.   The IEA Citizenship Education Study was set up deliberately in order to provide empirical evidence to aid such understanding. It has succeeded in throwing more light on the complex process of how young people are prepared for the roles and responsibilities as adult citizens in schools and communities. These are the very locations where the real challenges lie in developing effective citizenship education for all young people and in beginning to change the political culture.

It is important that we listen to what young people, teachers and headteachers are telling us about what citizenship and education means to them in their daily lives, discuss the main findings and act swiftly on the outcomes. Though the findings from the study are mixed, they provide a much clearer picture of the civic knowledge, skills, attitudes and engagement of young people, of the influences on these citizenship dimensions, and of the education, training and support needs of students, teachers and headteachers. This picture offers an important baseline for informing policy, practice and research, from national government down to individual classrooms, and beginning to measure the impact of the current citizenship education initiative in England.

The study's international report (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001) concludes with the hope that:

Individual countries will examine their own students' position in relation to various dimensions identified in this study, conduct further analysis and involve policy-makers, educators and the public in a dialogue about the ways that curriculum, teacher training and community involvement can better prepare young people for citizenship. (p.186)

This expectation is also at the heart of this national report for England. It is hoped that the report will, indeed, stimulate further informed dialogue and discussion among all those groups with an interest in citizenship education, especially among young people themselves. It is also hoped that this informed discussion will lead to improved education and training for teachers and students and to the development of effective, high-quality citizenship education experiences for young people, both in schools and in the communities to which they belong.

That young people have such high-quality citizenship experiences is crucial if they are to become confident and believe that, as individuals working in combination with others, they can make a difference in public life. Developing this sense of '**efficacy**' – of making a difference – is vital for the current and future actions of young people in civil and political life.

The study suggests a crucial role for schools, teachers and classroom practices in nurturing this sense of efficacy. Above all, it confirms that the everyday citizenship experiences that young people have, in schools, with their peers, with their family and in the communities to which they belong, matter. These experiences are the lifeblood of citizenship education. They matter because they have the potential to equip young people to see themselves as active and engaged citizens in modern society.

The challenge is unlocking and harnessing this potential. This study provides important pointers as to how this can be achieved. We need to consider what these pointers mean for policy, practice and research. As citizens, we all have a role to play in developing effective, high-quality citizenship experiences for young people, both in schools and in other community settings.

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APPENDIX 1

THE TWELVE POLICY-RELEVANT FRAMING QUESTIONS IN THE IEA CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION STUDY

A list of policy-relevant framing questions was developed to focus the study and make it useful to those who make education policy, educate teachers, prepare curriculum materials and conduct research. The original list of 18 questions was merged into 12 questions. Information from Phase 1 (reported in Torney-Purta *et al*., 1999) and Phase 2 (reported in this report) is referenced in treating each policy question, as shown below.

Some of these policy-relevant questions deal with the *organisation of education programmes.*

1. **What is the status of citizenship education as an explicit goal for schools?** There is considerable diversity among countries in the extent to which the preparation of future citizens is thought of as an important responsibility for schools. Phase 1 indicated that all the participating countries have courses under a variety of titles with specific responsibilities to prepare students for citizenship. The aims of civic or citizenship education are also addressed throughout the curriculum and the entire school day, as well as through the climate for interaction in the classroom. In many countries, civic or citizenship education courses and programmes do not have a high status, however. Analysis relating to school experience from Phase 2 is relevant to this question (found in Chapters 7 – 9).

2. **To what extent is there agreement among countries about priorities within formal citizenship education?** Knowledge of domestic political institutions and traditions is a focus in most of the participating countries. Lowering levels of youth alienation or raising levels of interest in political participation is also important in many. During Phase 1, a high level of unanimity was identified across participating countries about the major content domains of civic or citizenship education. These domains encompass democracy and democratic institutions, national identity and international relations and social cohesion and diversity. Items relating to these topics form the core of the Phase 2 test and survey (reported in Chapters 2 – 9).

3. **Around what instructional principles, and through what courses, are formal programmes of civic or citizenship education organised?** There is considerable diversity in the extent to which citizenship education is addressed through subjects such as history, through more interdisciplinary programs such as social studies or social science, through courses focused on conduct such as moral education, and through specific courses in civic education or government. There is also variation in the extent to which the community or the school is thought of as an arena in which the student should practice citizenship. The case studies prepared for Phase 1 showed agreement among specialists that citizenship and civics-related courses should be participative, interactive, related to life in school and community, conducted in a non-

authoritarian environment, cognisant of diversity and co-constructed with parents and the community. Many countries, however, saw difficulties in implementing this kind of civic or citizenship education because it is not a curriculum-bound subject. Most countries thought that the school had an important role in regard to it, however. The Phase 2 results include data from students about their opportunities for interactive and participatory experience (especially in classroom discussion and in organisations inside and outside the school, reported in Chapters 7 and 8, and from teachers about their methods, reported in Chapter 9).

4. **To what extent does formal education deal with civic identity development in students?** In societies that have recently become independent, national identity is an especially important component of citizenship. Civic or citizenship education must often balance identities relating to the ideal values of democracy with support for the current structure. Phase 1 of the study indicated the complexity of this issue in many countries. The data from Phase 2 deal with positive feelings about one's nation, with concepts of the role of the good citizen and with groups that shape identity (reported in Chapters 5 and 6).

5. **To what extent is civic or citizenship education intended to contribute to the resolution of conflicts and tensions between social groups?** Many societies are experiencing such tensions. The information collected during Phase 1 indicated that this was an area of widespread concern but did not suggest clear-cut directions for programme development. Some countries experience diversity primarily in terms of race or ethnicity, others in terms of immigration (often related to diversity in language or religion). Phase 2 assessed attitudes relating to support for opportunities for immigrants (reported in Chapter 6).

6. **How do students define and understand the concept of citizenship and related issues?** Students have developed their own ideas about their political system and society, and about what citizenship means within it. The Phase 1 process identified major concepts that experts in all the participating countries agreed were important. Many country representatives also pointed to substantial gaps between the concepts that schools were trying to foster and what students actually believed. The Phase 2 data provide descriptive information on how students understand citizenship, democracy and government. They also allow an analysis of the extent to which knowledge of citizenship relates to expected civic engagement. (These data are reported in Chapters 4 – 8.)

7. **For what rights and responsibilities of participation are students being prepared in their own political system or society?** In democratic societies, participation in the community and political system is vital, although the nature of that participation may vary. Information from Phase 1 indicated that educators often seek to make students aware of the excitement of politics and the importance of participation. Students, however, often show a general disdain for politics. Some countries are responding by using student-generated projects, while others are encouraging students to assist others in the

community. Such programmes do not yet exist on a widespread basis across countries. The Phase 2 data describe students' current civic participation and their future expectations of participation (reported in Chapters 6 – 8).

8.   **Do male and female students develop different conceptions of citizenship, and do they develop different potential roles in the political process?** Beliefs about the role of women in politics still vary across countries, even though there have been rapid changes in the past decade. Phase 1 indicated that most countries did not see gender issues as central in preparation for citizenship, although some did refer to the small proportion of women holding political office as an issue. Phase 2 data indicate the extent to which male and female students see the civic culture and citizenship similarly or differently. A set of items relating to support for women's political rights was included in the instrument. (These data are reported in Chapters 4 – 8.)

9.   **Are there socio-economic differences in students' understanding of or attitudes to citizenship related topics, or in the way their civic or citizenship education is structured?** Research in political socialisation and citizenship education suggests that there are important differences in civic knowledge between students from homes with ample educational and economic resources and those from homes that are less well endowed. The Phase 1 case studies in a few countries dealt with this concern. The Phase 2 analyses address this question by looking at the relation of citizenship education outcomes to a measure of home literacy resources (in Chapters 4 and 10).

Some policy-relevant questions focus on *teachers and teaching* and on *schools*:

10.   **How do teachers deal with civic or citizenship education in their teaching, and what is the influence of different types of classroom practices?** Research suggests that different pedagogies make a difference, particularly in terms of whether discussion is encouraged and how controversy and conflicting beliefs are handled.   The Phase 1 material across countries confirmed that teachers are expected to balance cognitive, attitudinal and behavioural goals in preparing students for citizenship. The relevant Phase 2 data are discussed in the chapters where students report about their schools and in the chapter about teachers (Chapters 8 – 10).

11.   **How well does the education of teachers prepare them to deal with the different facets of civic or citizenship education?** Teacher education or training programmes often do not address civic or citizenship education issues explicitly. The Phase 1 case studies showed that, in some countries, teachers who have prepared to teach another subject have been asked to serve as teachers of citizenship education. Phase 2 provides data on the extent to which the teachers themselves believe that their training has prepared them adequately to teach topics relevant to citizenship education (reported in Chapter 9).

12.   **How does the way in which schools are organised influence students' civic or citizenship education?** The opportunities schools provide for meaningful

participation, self-government and respect for rights are among the factors potentially influencing students' attitudes and behaviours. Most countries' Phase 1 submissions highlighted aspirations to provide students with such experiences but few reported successful concrete initiatives. The idea that schools should be models of democracy is often stated but difficult to put into practice. Participation in the school as a community is covered in Phase 2 (Chapters 7 – 10).

APPENDIX 2

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDENT INSTRUMENTS AND SAMPLE ITEMS FROM THE CIVIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

In Phase 1, national research coordinators (NRCs) carried out qualitative case studies to identify and examine in a comparative framework the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their role as citizens in democracies. The resulting data were used by the research team and the national research coordinators as a basis for the design of the Phase 2 study. The Phase 1 reports had highlighted topics that experts in all of the participating countries believed that 14-year-olds should understand and these were assembled and reviewed by the team. It was found that the topics could be clustered into three 'core international domains', as follows.

Domain 1: Democracy and Democratic Institutions

What does democracy mean and what are its associated institutions and practices? There were three associated sub-domains:

a. Democracy and its defining characteristics
b. Institutions and practices of democracy
c. Citizenship – rights and duties.

Domain 2: National Identity, Regional and International Relationships

What do young people understand national identity to be and how is it related to other relationships at regional and international level? There were two associated sub-domains:

a. National Identity
b. International and Regional Relations.

Domain 3: Social Cohesion and Diversity

What do such issues mean to young people and how do they think about discrimination?

Three other issues were also identified as important but could not be explored so fully. These were the *mass media*, *economics* and *local problems* (including the environment).

In preparation for developing questions for the Phase 2 study, the research team reread the Phase 1 documents and developed statements about what young people could be expected to know about the three domains identified, and also about their beliefs about them and attitudes towards them. These statements formed the *Content Guidelines for the International Test and Survey* and, eventually, formed the basis for developing test items. The case-study materials also indicated that the greatest emphasis in the test should be on Domain 1.

In order to explore 14-year-olds' understanding of the three domains, five types of items were developed for the Phase 2 test and survey. These were:

Type 1 civic content items   assessing **knowledge** of civic content.

Type 2 civic skills items   assessing **skills** of interpretation of material with civic or political content (including short text passages and cartoons).

Type 3 survey items   assessing how students **understand concepts**, such as democracy and citizenship.

Type 4 survey items   assessing students' **attitudes**, such as trust in institutions and attitudes to groups in society.

Type 5 survey items   assessing students' current and expected **engagement or participatory actions** relating to politics (e.g. intention to vote and helping community groups).

The domains and item types acted as a framework for designing questions for the survey. Using this framework, sets of questions were developed by the International Steering Group (ISG), based on items found in the research literature.

The Part 1 Civic Knowledge Test

Citizenship education is a subject in which students' knowledge of content, and skills in interpreting that content, are important. Part 1 of the student instrument was, therefore, in the form of a test with right and wrong answers. The questions covered all three of the domains listed above, but only two item types – Type 1 and Type 2. For the Part 1 test, the research team developed 140 questions. These were later reviewed and refined, with the help of comment from the NRCs, resulting in 68 items which were piloted between April and October 1998 in schools in 25 of the participating countries. The responses to the pilot items were analysed and the research team and the national research coordinators discussed the results, discarding unsatisfactory statements usually on the basis of their psychometric properties. This eventually resulted in a total of 38 questions which were deemed acceptable to the national coordinators and '*which exceeded the minimum criteria for psychometric quality*'.

The Part 3 Student Survey

While a test of content knowledge and interpretation skills was important, the research team was also aware of the evidence collected in Phase 1 that indicated other important areas of citizenship knowledge and skill. These areas (concepts, attitudes and intentions to act) were such that they could not be investigated through a test in which responses could be graded right or wrong. These areas could best be investigated through item types 3 – 5. Items were, therefore, developed which covered the concepts, attitudes and actions related to these three types. It was also recognised that, for these items, a survey was needed which could investigate students' level of understanding and degree of interest or involvement.

The items developed were reviewed and revised in consultation with the National Research Coordinators (NRCs) and later piloted. The final Part 3 survey consisted of 136 items, as follows:

Type 3   Concepts   52 items
Type 4   Attitudes   62 items
Type 5   Actions   22 items

Part 3 of the student survey was in the form of statements to which students responded on a four-point scale. In many cases, the scale ranged from 'strongly agree', through 'agree' and 'disagree', to 'strongly disagree'. All scales additionally had a 'don't know' response box. There were no right or wrong answers for these questions.

Other Instruments

One further survey instrument was developed for the students, to provide information on their backgrounds, school experience, membership of various organisations and peer group involvement (Part 2 of the student instrument). In addition, survey instruments mirroring some of the student questions, along with questions about the school context and teaching, were prepared for teachers and for headteachers.

All of these instruments were prepared in English and the International Steering Group deemed that they, therefore, required no translation prior to testing.

After testing, the nationally representative samples in the 28 countries, the results were sent for processing to the IEA Processing Centre in Hamburg, where they were analysed, weighted and scaled. For the test of civic knowledge (Part 1), the average score was set at 100 and a standard deviation of 20. It should be noted that:

> *In the final test version, the international average of correct answers was 64 per cent which indicates that, for the majority of students, the test was not too difficult.*

Responses to the Part 3 survey, which did not have right or wrong answers, were also scaled. The scale scores were set at ten, with a standard deviation of two.

Sample Items from the Civic Knowledge Test

While the survey instruments are not in the public domain, it is possible to provide examples of the types of questions that were incorporated.

The first example is a **Type 1 item**. Students have to demonstrate knowledge of content by identifying which of the responses are 'most likely to cause a government to be non-democratic'. Figure A2.1 shows the question and the four answers from which students had to choose. The first answer (A): '*People are prevented from criticising the government*', is the correct response. For this question, the percentages of correct answers ranged from 36 to 73 per cent, with an average result for all countries (when equally weighted) of 53 per cent. Forty-five per cent of Year 10 students in England gave the lowest response to this item. As noted above, the overall percentage of correct answers to the test is 64 per cent, so this question can be presumed to be relatively difficult. To answer this question correctly, students need to know what constitutes democratic and undemocratic government.

Figure A2.1   Example 1 of a Type 1 item

Which of the following is most likely to cause a government to be called non-democratic?

(A)   People are prevented from criticising government.
(B)   The political parties criticise each other, often.
(C)   People must pay very high taxes.
(D)   Every citizen has the right to a job.

Correct answer: A   England average: 45%   International Average: 53%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested 1999.

Example 2 shows a **Type 2 item**, which is intended to measure skills in the interpretation of citizenship-related material. The students were presented with a cartoon showing someone erasing words from a history book, with the caption: '*This is the way history textbooks are sometimes written.*' In this case, students are asked to say what is the message or main point of the cartoon? The correct answer (A) is that: '*History textbooks are sometimes changed to avoid mentioning problematic events from the past.*' The distribution of correct answers ranged from 26 to 79 per cent, with an international average of 57 per cent. Seventy-five per cent of Year 10 students in England responded correctly to this item. Although this item was difficult internationally, it was an easy one for students in England. In order to answer correctly, students would need to know about national identity and international relations and be able to interpret the message which the cartoonist is attempting to convey.

Figure A2.2   Example 1 of a Type 2 item

What is the message or main point of this cartoon? History textbooks…

(A)   are sometimes changed to avoid mentioning problematic events from the past.

(B)   for children must be shorter than books written for adults.

(C)   are full of information that is not interesting.

(D)   should be written using a computer not a pencil.

Correct answer: A   England Average: 75%   International average: 57%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested 1999.

Another example of a **Type 2 item** refers to institutions and practices in democracy (Figure A2.3). Students were asked to interpret an electoral leaflet directed against an imaginary party (presumably in power) and to indicate by which political group it had probably been issued. The correct answer (B) is: '*A party or group in opposition to the Silver Party.*' Between 40 and 85 per cent of students gave the correct answer and

the international average was 65 per cent. Seventy-five per cent of Year 10 students in England responded correctly to this item. While the question provided several clues to the correct answer, students would need to be able to interpret the message and to make complex inferences about the two parties' approach to taxation and government spending.

Figure A2.3   Example 2 of a Type 2 item

We the citizens have had enough!

A vote for the Silver Party means a vote for higher taxes.

It means the end to economic growth and a waste of our nation's resources.

Vote instead for economic growth and free enterprise.

Vote for more money left in everyone's wallet!

Let's not waste another 4 years! VOTE FOR THE GOLD PARTY.

This is a political advertisement that had probably been issued by …

(A)   The Silver Party.

(B)   A party or group running against the Silver Party.

(C)   A group which tries to be sure elections are fair.

(D)   The Silver Party and the Gold Party together.

Correct answer: B   England average: 75%   International average: 65%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested 1999.

(Figure A2.4) is a **Type 1 item** which aims to test knowledge about citizens' rights and duties. Students were asked about the importance of being free to join a range of different organisations. The correct answer (C) is: '*Opportunities to express different points of view*', and correct responses ranged from 46 to 82 per cent, with the international average at 69 per cent. Seventy-eight per cent of Year 10 students in England responded correctly to this item. This question requires basic background knowledge or some experiences related to politics and is considered fairly easy.

Figure A2.4   Example 2 of a Type 1 item

In a democratic country, having many organisations for people to join is important because this provides…

(A)   A group to defend members who are arrested.

(B)   Many sources of taxes for the government.

(C)   Opportunities to express different points of view.

(D)   A way for the government to tell people about new laws.

Correct answer: C.   England average: 78%   International average: 69%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested 1999.

The next item is designed to test knowledge of institutions and practices in a democracy: it is a **Type 1 item**. Students were asked why there is more than one political party in a democracy? The correct answer is: '*To represent different opinions* [interests] *in the national Parliament.*' Students apparently found this question fairly easy, since the international average of correct responses was 75 per cent, although scores ranged from 54 to 88 per cent. This question required some knowledge about politics or politics-related experience.

Figure A2.5   Example 3 of a Type 1 item

In democratic countries, what is the function of having more than one political party?

(A)   To represent different opinions in the national Parliament.

(B)   To limit political corruption.

(C)   To prevent political demonstrations.

(D)   To encourage economic competition.

Correct answer: A.   England average: 77%   International average: 75%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested 1999.

Figure A2.6 shows a **Type 2 item** designed to test students' skills in interpretation. The students were given four statements and told that three were opinion and one was fact. They were required to show which was fact. The correct answer is: '*In many countries rich people pay higher taxes than poor people.*' This appeared to be one of the more difficult questions on the test. Scores ranged from 25 to 69 per cent, with an international average of 49 per cent. Fifty-three per cent of Year 10 students in England responded to this item correctly.

Figure A2.6   Example 3 of a Type 2 item

Three of these statements are opinions and one is fact. Which of the following is a FACT?

(A)   People with very low incomes should not pay any taxes.

(B)   In many countries rich people pay higher taxes than poor people.

(C)   It is fair that some citizens pay higher taxes than others.

(D)   Donations to charity are the best way to reduce differences between rich and poor.

Correct answer: B   England average: 53%   International average: 49%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested 1999.

Another **Type 2 item,** which was designed to test students' skills in interpretation, is shown in Figure A2.7.

Figure A2.7   Example 4 of a Type 2 item

A woman who has a young child is interviewed for a job at a travel agency. Which of the following is an example of discrimination? She does not get the job because… (A)   She has no previous experience. (B)   She is a mother. (C)   She speaks only one language. (D)   She demands a high salary. Correct answer: B   England average: 63%   International average: 50%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14 Year-Olds Tested in 1999.

Figure A2.8 is an example of a **Type 1 item**. It requires students to demonstrate an understanding of the role of the mass media.

Figure A2.8   Example 4 of a Type 1 item

Which of the following is most likely to happen if a large publisher buys many of the smaller newspapers in a country? (A)   Government censorship of the news is more likely. (B)   There will be less diversity of opinions presented. (C)   The price of the country's newspapers will be lowered. (D)   The amount of advertising in the newspapers will be reduced. Correct answer: B   England average: 49%   International average: 57%

Source: IEA Civic Education Study, Standard Population of 14-year-olds tested 1999.

APPENDIX 3

SAMPLING PROCEDURES IN ENGLAND

The procedure for sampling schools for the survey was tightly defined by the study's School Sampling Manual. These procedures have been laid down to ensure consistency of sampling across all the different countries participating. As part of the procedure, a series of forms had to be completed and approved by the IEA Data Processing Centre (DPC) in Hamburg.

Forms 1–6 gave details of the target population, the grade structure of primary education, the exclusion of special schools and small schools from the target population, and the minimum cluster size (MCS) for the sampling. The latter correspond to the average classroom size in Year 10 (25). Stratification of the secondary school population by school performance measure (GCSE outcomes – six levels) and school type (five levels) was also outlined. A list of excluded schools and details of schools and students in each stratum were also provided as Forms 7 and 8. Data for the completion of these forms was obtained from the NFER's comprehensive Schools database, incorporating Form 7 data supplied by the DfEE.

On approval of the sampling plans by DPC, it was possible to draw the sample of schools. A list of all schools in the target population was drawn up, with their measure of size (MOS) – this was the number of Year10 students in each school. Schools were sorted within strata by MOS, in alternately ascending and descending order. The requirement was then to pick 150 first-choice schools, which was done in such a way that the probability of a school being selected was proportional to its MOS (this ensures that students in large and small schools have equal probabilities of being surveyed). In addition to these first-choice schools, 150 second- and third-choice schools, in adjacent positions in the list, were also selected.

The principle of IEA sampling is that first-choice schools are contacted, and only after one of these has refused to take part is the corresponding second-choice school (and, ultimately, third-choice school) contacted. Unfortunately, there was insufficient time available to carry out this process, so some second- and third-choice schools were contacted before it was clear whether or not the corresponding first choice was taking part.

TIMETABLE

	LEAs contacted with list(s) of schools	**15/04/99**
	Letter to first-choice schools inviting participation	**26/04/99**
	First reminder letter to first-choice schools not replying	05/05/99
	Second reminder to first-choice schools	15/06/99
*	**Letter to second-choice schools inviting participation**	**15/06/99**
*	**Letter to third choice schools inviting participation**	**29/06/99**
*	First reminder letter to second-choice schools	30/06/99
*	**Schools faxed for registration groups, student lists, teacher names and dates of testing**	**07/99 up until despatch of test materials**
*	Second reminder letter to second-choice schools	08/07/99
*	Second reminder to third-choice schools	20/08/99
*	Third reminder to second-choice schools	20/08/99
	Test materials to schools	**27–29/09/99 (48-hour service)** **30/09/99 (24-hour service)**
	TESTING PERIOD	**04/10/99 – 15/10/99**
	Telephone reminders to return materials	01/11/99 – 14/01/00
	Acknowledgements to participating schools	29/10/99 – 18/01/00
	Batches to team: First	13/10/99
	Last	26/1/00

* Dates given are of initial despatch only – extra copies and initial approach letters were sent continuously until the testing period.

This study required very close liaison with schools. A very large number of telephone calls were made for reasons such as encouraging participation in the project and collecting and reminding for school and student data. It is estimated that over 700 calls were made before the testing period, and around 100 after the testing had been completed.

DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLES

The samples were drawn by the Statistics Research and Analysis Services at NFER according to strict criteria set out by the IEA. Three direct replacement samples of 150 maintained and independent schools with Year 10 students were created. The intention was to exclude special schools, but in the event, two independent special schools were drawn. To achieve IEA targets the participation of a minimum of 128 schools was required, of which 75 had to be first-choice schools.

Sample No.	**1830**	**1831**	**1832**
	'First choice'	*'Second choice'*	*'Third choice'*
School No.	1 to 150	201 to 350	401 to 550

The strategy adopted was initially to invite the participation of all the first-choice schools. If a school from the first sample declined to participate, their replacement from the second-choice sample was approached. If the second choice school also declined participation, the third-choice school was approached.

♦ **Requirements of participating schools**

Each school agreeing to participate was asked to arrange the completion of the following:

Questionnaire type	To be completed by	Time taken	Total time required
Student Questionnaire 1	One class of Year 10 students	35 min	95 min (including distribution of papers, reading instructions etc.)
Student Questionnaire 2		7 min	
Student Questionnaire 3		43 min	
Teacher Questionnaire	3 teachers, preferably 1 PSHE, 1 History and 1 Business studies/Economics	30 min	30 min per teacher
School Questionnaire	Headteacher/Deputy head	30 min	30 min

In addition to arranging the administration of the questionnaires, the school coordinator was asked to complete a student tracking form, a student teacher linkage form and a test administration feedback form. They were also provided with a school coordinator manual and a test administration manual, together with a summary information sheet which they were asked to read before administering the questionnaires. As with all IEA studies, schools were asked to administer the

questionnaires in strict examination conditions, the precise requirements of which were set out in the manual.

♦ **Within-school sampling software**

The sampling software provided by IEA for use with TIMSS-R was used for this project, in order to maintain the strict sampling requirements specified.

ADMINISTRATION

The first-choice schools were invited to participate in April 1999. After a reminder had been sent, schools from the second-choice sample replacing a first-choice school which had not replied or had declined to participate were approached. The third-choice replacement schools were approached shortly after the initial approach to second-choice schools as it was decided that there would not be enough time to wait for replies from the second-choice schools before approaching the third-choice schools.

Schools agreeing to participate were asked to provide a list of their Year 10 classes. As mixed-ability classes were required, tutor groups were asked for on the reply form. Schools were also asked to provide a named contact who would coordinate the study within the school.

Misunderstandings were anticipated because schools had to be approached in the 1998/99 school year, in order to ensure that the sample was in place for early in the autumn term of the 1999/2000 school year. Despite the care taken to reinforce the fact that class lists for the 1999/2000 year were required, some schools gave their 1998/99 Year 10 classes. In a small number of cases, this problem was not identified until a very late stage, despite frequent contact with schools.

Problems also arose from asking for tutor groups. Many schools had great difficulties timetabling the administration of the questionnaires as their tutor groups were only together for a short period each day for registration. In some cases, it proved impossible to use the tutor group originally selected. In an attempt to avoid this problem, schools were offered the alternative of providing a list of their PHSE (personal, social and health education) classes or any other groups that were not set by ability. In a small number of schools, timetabling the questionnaires was such an issue that the school would not participate unless they could administer the questionnaires to a class selected by themselves. In order to achieve the sample, this was agreed and efforts were made to ensure that the replacement class did not differ in any way from the class originally selected.

Once schools had agreed to participate and a class had been selected using the within-school sampling software provided by IEA, the schools were faxed requesting student names for the selected class. They were also asked to provide the names of three teachers who would be willing to complete the Teacher Questionnaires, and the date they intended to administer the questionnaires.

The materials were despatched to the schools the week prior to the testing period either by 48- or 24-hour parcel delivery. Schools were asked to check on arrival that

the parcel contained everything listed on the despatch note, and if they had any problems, to contact RDS.

♦ **Return of completed materials**

The majority of materials were returned within the period originally specified, although a number of schools were unable to do so. These schools were phoned regularly until the materials were returned.

PARTICIPATION

♦ **Response, by schools**

The table below shows the number of schools which had agreed to participate in the project before the questionnaire materials had been despatched.

♦ **Criteria**

	Sample Number			
	1830	**1831**	**1832**	
No. of schools agreeing to participate	84	42	23	
Duplicates – i.e. higher-choice school also participating	0	5	12	**Total Schools satisfying IEA requirements**
Total No. of non-duplicates	**84***	**36**	**10**	**130**

*In the event, three of these schools declined to participate further when they received the materials to administer. In two cases, there was already a duplicate school replacement, and in the third a replacement school was approached in October and agreed to participate. The final figure for participating schools satisfying IEA requirements is given in the last line of the following table.

	1830	**1831**	**1832**
Schools drawn in sample	150	150	150
Withdrawn by LEA	1	2	0
School closed	1	0	0
Not approached, higher choice school accepted	0	77	100
Unable to help	65	29	27
Participating schools sent materials	**84**	**42**	**23**
Schools returning completed materials	80	42	22
Schools not returning completed materials/unable to help	3	0	1
Materials lost by courier	1	0	0
Schools satisfying IEA sample requirements	**80**	**37**	**11**

As can be seen, the minimum IEA requirement of 128 schools was achieved.

- **Response, by instrument**

Instrument	**No. Despatched**	**No. returned completed**	**Percentage returned**
Student Questionnaire 1	3,811	3,468	91
Student Questionnaire 2	3,811	3,456	91
Student Questionnaire 3	3,811	3,372	88
Teacher Questionnaires	447	394	88
School Questionnaires	149	132	89

Sample sizes quoted in the above table differ from those in the national report. This is because a number of the survey instruments received could not be used in the final analysis, for a variety of reasons, as explained below:

- The method of recruiting schools led to some duplicate schools (i.e. from more than one of the three samples drawn), which could not be included in the analysis.
- Students did not complete all three parts of the student survey and the responses could not, therefore, be used.

- ♦ Teachers could not be matched with responding students. Only teachers teaching the surveyed students were eligible for inclusion in the survey.
- ♦ School questionnaires were returned incomplete.

Reasons for not participating

	1830	1831	1832	Totals
Unable to help/no reason given	21	13	5	39
No time/pressure of work	17	8	7	32
OFSTED inspection	9	1	2	12
Staff shortage /illness/changes	2	1	3	6
School reorganisation/closed/ closing	1	0	1	2
Too many requests for survey, etc.	1	0	1	2
Already involved with another project	5	4	1	10
Not appropriate / irrelevant	1	0	1	2
Other	2	1	1	4
School under special measures	4	0	1	5
Too disruptive	1	0	1	2
School involved in big changes	1	0	1	2
Other tests have been administered	0	1	0	1
Union objections	0	0	1	1
Time tabling problems	0	0	1	1
Totals	65	29	27	121