

Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study First Cross- Sectional Survey 2001-2002

David Kerr, Elizabeth Cleaver, Eleanor Ireland and Sarah Blenkinsop

National Foundation for Educational Research

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

From September 2002 Citizenship Education has become a statutory subject in England at key stages 3 and 4. The Citizenship Order sets out the anticipated learning outcomes in relation to knowledge, understanding and skills of enquiry and participation. However, methods of delivery are not prescribed, and although schools are intended to devote five per cent of teaching time to Citizenship, they may choose how to achieve this goal.

The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) has commissioned the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) to undertake a longitudinal study of citizenship education over eight years. This will track a cohort of young people who entered secondary school in 2002: a group which comprises some of the first students to have a continuous statutory entitlement to citizenship education. The *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study* (hereafter the Study) aims to identify, measure and evaluate the extent to which ‘effective practice’ in citizenship education develops in schools so that such practice can be promoted widely.

This Research Brief focuses on the findings of the first cross-sectional survey undertaken as part of the wider Study. Data from this survey provide pre-compulsory baseline evidence of existing knowledge about, and provision of, citizenship education from a nationally representative sample of schools in England. In addition, the findings chart the attitudes and knowledge of students prior to the introduction of citizenship education as a statutory subject.

Key Findings:

Existing approaches to citizenship education prior to September 2002

- While almost two-thirds of school leaders (65 per cent) had an existing agreed strategy for teaching citizenship education, schools employed a diversity of approaches in its delivery. Citizenship education was most commonly reported by school leaders to be taught through citizenship-related modules in PSHE (90 per cent). Other common delivery patterns included a cross-curricular approach (with citizenship-related topics taught through religious education, English, history, and geography) and the use of extra-curricular activities and tutorials.
- Schools provided a number of opportunities for students to be involved in active citizenship activities through school councils and through clubs both in and out of school. However, student take-up rates of these activities were low, with only 10 per cent of students stating they had participated in a school council, and showed signs of decreasing with age as students moved through the school. Less than one third of students (27 per cent) felt they were consulted when school policies were being developed.

Planning and preparedness for statutory citizenship from September 2002

- ◆ Almost three-quarters of teachers (74 per cent) claimed to understand the aims and purposes of citizenship education. However, just under two fifths of teachers (38 per cent) were uncertain about the new citizenship curriculum, with over half having limited familiarity with the key curriculum documents. There was even less familiarity among college leaders and tutors in post-16 settings with over two-thirds having seen neither key curriculum nor policy documents.
- ◆ Delivery plans for citizenship education have largely been drawn up by school leaders with little or no consultation with teachers and students. Over three-fifths of teachers (61 per cent) reported they had not been involved in planning citizenship education in their school. Three-quarters of schools (75 per cent) had appointed a citizenship education co-ordinator and planned to use existing staff to deliver citizenship through a range of subjects and areas.
- ◆ The main challenges to the delivery of citizenship education, identified by over two-thirds of school and college leaders and teachers, were those relating to a lack of teacher training, a lack of curriculum time, potential difficulties in engaging and maintaining student interest and uncertainties about student assessment. The majority of teachers (71 per cent) had not received any training or development in relation to citizenship education and few schools had policies for recognising student achievement.

Students' knowledge, attitudes and trust

- ◆ Not all students understand what is meant by citizenship. However those that do define it in terms similar to the three citizenship strands set out in the Crick Report (1998), with an emphasis on community involvement, national, European and global identity, political literacy and awareness, and social and moral responsibility.
- ◆ Students' depth of understanding of fundamental democratic values and institutions is limited. There is evidence that understanding improves with age, but that there are still significant gaps in students' understanding of key citizenship topics such as democracy and the functioning of democratic institutions.
- ◆ With the exception of voting (66 per cent of all students report they will vote in national elections), there is scepticism among students in England about traditional forms of civic and political engagement. Students also show low levels of interest in participating in other forms of civic life related to voluntary organisations, both in and out of school. Young people reported that they have low levels of trust in politicians and government-related and international institutions. In contrast, they have higher levels of trust in their immediate social groups – family, neighbours, teachers and friends.

Background

Citizenship education has been at the heart of a major debate and policy review concerning its purpose, location and practice in schools and colleges in England over the past decade. This review has centred on the work of the Advisory Group on *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools*, set up in 1997 and chaired by Professor (now Sir) Bernard Crick. The Citizenship Advisory Group defined ‘*effective education for citizenship*’ as comprising three separate but interrelated strands: social and moral responsibility; community involvement and political literacy (Crick, 1998).

In the light of this report, citizenship education has been incorporated for the first time into the school curriculum. Citizenship is now part of a non-statutory framework for personal, social and health education (PSHE) and citizenship at key stages 1 and 2 (pupils age 5 to 11) and is a new statutory foundation subject at key stages 3 and 4 (students age 11 to 16). Schools have been legally required to deliver citizenship education at key stages 3 and 4 from September 2002. There are also proposals to make citizenship education an entitlement for students in post-16 education and training.

With citizenship education moving rapidly from a policy proposal to a real school subject there is a need to identify, measure and evaluate the extent to which ‘effective practice’ in citizenship education develops in schools so that such practice can be promoted more widely. To do this, the research design of the Study employs four interrelated methods:

- ◆ Four nationally representative cross-sectional surveys of students, school leaders and teachers undertaken in the school years 2001-02, 2003-04, 2005-06 and 2007-08, with the first survey acting as a pre-compulsory baseline.
- ◆ A longitudinal tracking survey of a whole year group of students in a representative sample of 100 schools, starting in Year 7 in 2002-03, and following them up in Year 9, Year 11 and Year 13 (or equivalent when they are aged 18).
- ◆ Twenty longitudinal school case studies – 10 schools drawn from schools participating in each of the longitudinal and cross-sectional surveys - that will be revisited once every two years over the duration of the study.
- ◆ A literature review of key literature on theory, policy and practice in citizenship education, political socialisation and youth transitions to adulthood.

The overarching aim of the Study is to assess the short- and long-term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills and attitudes and behaviour of students. In addition it aims to identify the different processes (in terms of school, teacher and student effects) that lead to differential outcomes and to assess changes in levels of joining and participation in voluntary bodies.

Drawing on existing research, theory and practice, the study is also building an overarching analytical framework. This framework is being used to develop understanding of the myriad factors and contexts that may influence the implementation of citizenship education. The framework informs and underpins the study's analysis of the extent to which young people are prepared to undertake roles and responsibilities in contemporary society, and the place of citizenship education in this process. It affords a means of organising and linking the data and information collected in the study's four components.

The First Cross-sectional Survey 2001-2002

This report sets out the findings from the first cross-sectional survey. The survey was carried out in summer term of the academic year 2001-2002 and its findings are important in three respects:

- ♦ they offer an invaluable baseline of the attitudes of students, teachers and school and college leaders to citizenship and citizenship education prior to the formal introduction of citizenship education into schools in September 2002. The findings provide an indication of how well informed schools are about the new National Curriculum of Citizenship and the strengths and weaknesses of their preparation and planning for its introduction.
- ♦ they lay a strong foundation for the future conduct of the Study and help to clarify the purpose of the cross-sectional surveys and their interrelationship with the Study's three other components.
- ♦ they provide continuity with the existing research literature on citizenship education and political socialisation in England.

Three questionnaires (a student questionnaire for Year 8, Year 10 or Year 12 students, a teacher or college tutor questionnaire and a senior manager questionnaire) were sent to each school and college that agreed to take part. A nationally representative sample of schools and colleges was selected using stratified random sampling techniques and was invited to participate in the survey in January 2002. A total of 318 schools and colleges agreed to take part, 297 of which completed questionnaires between March and May 2002.

Basic frequency tables of responses for each question were created. Further analysis to investigate relationships between students' background characteristics and their political and civic knowledge, their attitudes, and levels of trust and participation, were conducted using linear and logistic regression.¹

¹ **Linear Regression** – A method used to examine the relationship between a continuous dependent variable (or predictor) and a number of independent variables (predictors). The method examines how the average value of the dependent variable changes with the independent variables.

Logistic Regression – A method used to examine the relationship between a binary dependent variable (that is one taking values 1 or 0 as in “yes” or “no”) and a number of independent variables (predictors). The method examines how the probability of the dependent variable taking a value of 1 changes with the independent variables.

Main Finding of the Research

Existing approaches to citizenship education in schools and colleges prior to September 2002

The survey data show that almost two thirds of school leaders (65 per cent) had developed an agreed strategy for teaching citizenship education. While a diversity of approaches were employed across the sample, the majority of school and college leaders stated that they had adopted a whole institution approach to citizenship education; an approach which encompassed school ethos and values as well as teaching and learning approaches in the classroom. They were very positive about parental support for student achievement and students' attitudes to school, academic achievement and school property. The vast majority of school leaders (96 per cent) and teachers (98 per cent) also felt that there were good relationships between staff and students in their schools.

School leaders (90 per cent) reported that citizenship education was most commonly taught through citizenship-related modules in PSHE. Other common delivery strategies included cross-curricular approaches (with citizenship related topics taught through subjects such as religious education, English and history) and the use of extra-curricular activities and tutorials.

Teachers and college tutors reported that teacher-led approaches to citizenship-related topics were predominant in the classroom, with more participatory, active approaches much less commonly used. Teachers relied on their own and media sources in their planning for citizenship education and had little or no experience of assessing student outcomes. Just over four-fifths of teachers (83 per cent) and just under four-fifths of college tutors (79 per cent) said they did not assess students in citizenship education.

Active citizenship in schools and colleges prior to September 2002

Schools provided a number of opportunities for students to be involved in active citizenship activities, such as school councils and clubs. School and college leaders were satisfied that the whole school was involved in discussion and decision making about school matters. However, only just over half the teachers surveyed (57 per cent) felt this way and less than a third of students (27 per cent) felt they were consulted about the development of school policies. This is perhaps reflected in the fact that while school councils were reported to be widely available in schools, both by school leaders and students, only one-third of students (34 per cent) reported participating in school council elections. Thus while students reported that they were given the opportunity to be involved in running their school through school councils, actual participation was low.

Although school leaders widely reported that extra curricular activities were available to their students, only a small proportion of students took part. Citizenship-related activities such as mock elections, environmental, political, human rights and debating clubs had a particularly low up-take, with very few

students participating in such activities. Student take-up rates showed signs of decreasing with age as students progressed through the school.

The majority of school leaders (96 per cent) and all college leaders felt that there were good relationships between their school and the wider community. Almost three-quarters (74 per cent) believed their school or college provided opportunities for involvement in the community and that students were encouraged to take up these opportunities.

School, college and teacher preparedness and planning for the introduction of statutory citizenship education from September 2002

While the majority of teachers (74 per cent) claimed to understand the aims and purposes of citizenship education, over one-third (38 per cent) were uncertain about the detail of the new curriculum that would be introduced in September 2002. There was limited familiarity with the key citizenship curriculum documents, such as the Curriculum Order and Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) schemes of work, and little or no familiarity with the key policy texts, notably the Crick Report and Post-16 report. College leaders and tutors were even more uncertain about the content of, and background to, the citizenship curriculum.

Schools and colleges revealed a variety of delivery plans for citizenship education. These had largely been drawn up by school leaders with little or no consultation with teachers and students. Three quarters of schools (75 per cent) had already appointed a coordinator for citizenship education. However, rather than teaching citizenship in dedicated timeslots, the majority of schools indicated that they planned to use existing expertise to deliver the curriculum through a range of subjects and areas such as RE and PSHE, and through tutorial periods. Just under half of the sample stated that all staff (48 per cent) would have some responsibility for delivering the citizenship curriculum.

The majority of teachers (71 per cent) and college tutors (81 per cent) had not received any training in relation to citizenship education. In order to develop a better understanding of citizenship education, teachers favoured greater training opportunities, particularly concerning subject knowledge (89 per cent) and teaching and learning approaches (65 per cent).

Few schools had definite policies for recognising student achievement at the time of the survey (11 per cent at key stage 3 and 8 per cent at key stage 4). However, over three quarters of the sample stated that they planned to develop this in the future. Commonly used assessment strategies in those schools with assessment already underway included: written tasks and essays; student portfolios and observation and self-assessment.

Attitudes to citizenship prior to September 2002

Not all students knew what citizenship meant, however those who were able to define it did so in terms similar to the three interrelated strands of citizenship education as set out in the Crick Report (1998). Citizenship, in students' responses, had four dimensions: community involvement; national, European

and global identity; political literacy and awareness and social and moral responsibility.

School leaders, teachers and college tutors recognise the importance of citizenship education for students and agree that schools have a central role to play in developing students' citizenship dimensions. They also support citizenship as a part of the formal curriculum.

There is considerable difference between school leaders', teachers' and students' attitudes to, and experiences of, citizenship education. Students were much less positive about their experiences than teachers, and teachers less positive than school leaders. This gap may be related to the extent or lack of consultation about citizenship education policies and practices in schools, with control of such development resting largely with school managers at present.

Students' political and civic knowledge

Students' political and civic knowledge was variable. For example, students had a good knowledge of equal opportunities and age-related rights, but were less well informed about democracy, the working of democratic institutions, the European Union (EU) and the electoral system.

There was a significant relationship between educational background and civic knowledge. Those students whose parents had degrees and who intended to go on to university themselves had higher levels of political and civic knowledge. For the Year 12 students, those doing academic courses had higher levels of political and civic knowledge.

Students' home situation was also linked to civic knowledge, with those whose parents owned their home gaining the highest scores. How students spent their free time was also linked to political and civic knowledge. Students who socialised least on week nights and were moderate television viewers gained the highest scores.

Attitudes to civic institutions and groups in society

Young people clearly felt that citizenship hinged on obeying the law and contributing towards their communities. They were, however, less likely to support conventional participation activities such as joining a political party and writing to a newspaper.

Overall, the level of trust the young people granted politicians, government-related institutions and international political organisations was low, though students showed higher levels of trust in the criminal justice system (the police and the courts). Family was accorded the greatest levels of trust by students, with the majority stating that they trusted their family completely or quite a lot. Students' trust in their immediate social groups (family, neighbours, teachers and peers) was, in the main, higher than their trust in the news media, the criminal justice system and government institutions.

In particular, a small but significant minority of students showed support for the prioritisation of men's working rights over women's; an action which would breach UK and European employment laws. Male respondents and those from non-white ethnic backgrounds were more likely to support this view. This raises the issue of how schools deal with this significant minority and the circumstances which give rise to such views.

Attitudes to politics, civic engagement and participation

Students were involved in little discussion about political and topical issues in their lives, despite reporting that they received the opportunity to discuss political issues in class. This lack of discussion may reflect students' lack of interest in politics; only a quarter of the sample agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'I am interested in politics'. However, there was a positive relationship between political interest and civic knowledge.

Voting in national elections was by far the most preferred intended political activity, with two-thirds of all students (66 per cent) saying they would participate. Just under two thirds of students also stated that they would collect money for charity (63 per cent) and vote in local elections (62 per cent). However, over two-thirds of students did not intend to participate in conventional political activities (other than voting), such as joining a political party or becoming involved in local politics.

The proportion of young people who reported the intention to participate in any form of protest was small, although the likelihood of students participating in peaceful protest was greater than the likelihood of them participating in violent forms of protest.

The most popular student voluntary activity was participation in sports teams and clubs. This was followed by participation in arts, drama, dancing or music clubs. Student participation in civic related organisations such as political clubs and groups, human rights organisations, environmental groups and religious groups was low, with less than one-fifth of students reporting such participation.

Concluding Comments

This report on the first cross-sectional survey marks an important milestone in terms of both the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, and the on-going context of policy, practice and research in citizenship education. Most importantly, it provides a unique baseline of school and college leader, teacher and student attitudes and actions just prior to the formal introduction of Citizenship into the curriculum in September 2002.

Though the findings from the first cross-sectional survey need to be treated with some caution at this stage, they nevertheless provide important pointers for the development of effective policy and practice in citizenship education in both pre and post-16 contexts.

The Full Report

Kerr, D., Cleaver, E., Ireland, E. and Blenkinsop, S. (2003) *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: First Cross-Sectional Survey 2001-2002*. London: DfES.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

This report sets out the findings from the first cross-sectional survey of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. The findings are based on initial analysis of the data from the students, teachers and school and college leaders² who participated. The findings need to be seen within the context of the Longitudinal Study as a whole. The Longitudinal Study is a unique research study. The first cross-sectional survey marks the beginning of an exploration by the NFER research team, in partnership with the study's two consultants, Professors Patrick Seyd (University of Sheffield) and Paul Whiteley (University of Essex), as to how the study's aims and objectives can be met in practice. The conduct of the first cross-sectional survey has proved a useful exercise in this respect. The exploration is centred, in particular, on the development of an overarching analytical framework to guide the study.

However, the initial findings remain important, at this stage of the study, in three respects. Firstly, they offer a unique nationally representative baseline of the attitudes of students, teachers and school and college leaders to citizenship and education prior to the formal introduction of citizenship education into schools in September 2002. The findings provide an indication of how well informed school staff members are about the new National Curriculum subject of Citizenship and the strengths and weaknesses of their preparation, planning and readiness for its introduction.

Secondly, the findings lay a strong foundation for the future conduct of the Longitudinal Study. The first cross-sectional survey has helped to clarify the purpose of the cross-sectional component of the Longitudinal Study and its interrelationship with the other three research components: longitudinal surveys, school case studies and a literature review. It has also helped in the drawing up of an analytical framework to guide the study. Thirdly, the findings provide continuity with previous research on citizenship education and political socialisation in England, most notably from England's participation in the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Citizenship Education Study (Kerr, 1999a and b; Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2001 and 2002). The report highlights where there are continuities and differences between the findings from the cross-sectional survey and those from the IEA Study. However, it should be emphasised that the Longitudinal Study is a separate study from the IEA Citizenship Education Study. Though it is useful to contrast the findings

² The school questionnaire was completed by a variety of different respondents in schools, including headteachers, deputy and assistant headteachers, citizenship coordinators and other school leaders and managers. For the purpose of this report, all respondents to the school questionnaires are referred to throughout as 'school leaders'.

between the two studies at this early stage, the emphasis should be on what the first cross-sectional survey has found and how this can be built on in the future conduct of the Longitudinal Study.

The remainder of this opening chapter sets the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study within the broader context of policy and research in citizenship education. It also locates the first cross-sectional survey within the aims and design of the Longitudinal Study as a whole and the study's emergent analytical framework. Both contexts are vital for considering the implications of the findings from the first cross-sectional survey as set out in this report.

1.2 The Policy Context for Citizenship Education

The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study must be seen within the context of recent policy developments in citizenship education in England. These policy developments underpin the commissioning of the study by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). They have also significantly influenced the aims and overall design of the study.

Citizenship education has been at the heart of a major debate and policy review concerning its purpose, location and practice in schools and colleges in England over the past decade (Kerr, 1999a and b; Crick, 2000). The review has centred on the work of the Advisory Group on *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools*, set up in 1997 and chaired by Professor (now Sir) Bernard Crick. The Citizenship Advisory Group defined '*effective education for citizenship*' as comprising three separate but interrelated strands. The strands, outlined in more detail below, are to be developed progressively through a young person's education and training experiences, from pre-school to adulthood (Crick, 1998, pp. 11-13):

- ◆ **social and moral responsibility:** '*...children learning from the very beginning self-confidence and socially and morally responsible behaviour both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other*'. This strand acts as an essential pre-condition for the other two strands
- ◆ **community involvement:** '*...learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through community involvement and service to the community*'. This, of course, like the other two strands, is by no means limited to children's time in school
- ◆ **political literacy:** '*...pupils learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values*'. Here the term 'public life' is used in its broadest sense to encompass realistic knowledge of, and preparation for, conflict resolution and decision-making, whether involving issues at local, national, European or global level.

The Citizenship Advisory Group sought to establish a ‘light touch’ flexible but rigorous framework, which would encourage schools and colleges to develop effective citizenship education in ways that best suited their needs, context and strengths. Within the framework the onus is on schools and colleges, in partnership with their local communities, to develop meaningful citizenship education practice and experiences for all young people.

Following the revision of the National Curriculum, citizenship education has been incorporated for the first time in the school curriculum between the ages 5 and 16. Citizenship is now part of a non-statutory framework for personal, social and health education (PSHE) and citizenship at key stages 1 and 2 and a new statutory foundation subject at key stages 3 and 4. Schools have therefore been legally required to deliver citizenship education at key stages 3 and 4 from September 2002. The new Citizenship Order at key stages 3 and 4 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 approach;
- ◆ developing skills of participation and responsible action.

Though the Citizenship Advisory Group’s remit only applied to pre-16 education, the Group recommended that ‘citizenship education should continue for all students involved in post-16 education and training regardless of their course of study, vocational or academic’ (Crick, 1998, p. 23). In order to pursue this recommendation, a separate Advisory Group on Citizenship for 16-19 year olds in Education and Training was set up in 1999, also chaired by Professor Sir Bernard Crick (FEFC, 2000).

Given that the framework and recommendations for citizenship education up to key stage 4 should be taken forward for all 16 – 19 year olds in education and training, it is not surprising that the resultant pre-16 and post-16 proposals for citizenship have a number of common features. These include:

- ◆ reliance on a flexible but rigorous framework
- ◆ focus on the development of skills alongside knowledge and understanding
- ◆ emphasis on developing ‘active citizenship’
- ◆ need for citizenship development to be responsive to the diversity of education and training contexts
- ◆ entitlement to citizenship for all young people.

Taken together, the policy developments identify *effective* citizenship education as education which enhances:

- ◆ ***political knowledge*** – that is an understanding of how the government and the political system works, together with an appreciation of the limits and scope of government action

- ♦ *political efficacy* – the extent to which individuals feel that they can take effective action, broadly defined, to influence the political system
- ♦ *voluntary action* – the willingness of individuals to participate in voluntary activity in formal organisations and in informal settings
- ♦ *social norms and values* – the extent to which individuals have attitudes and values which foster participation, social integration and a willingness to co-operate with others
- ♦ *identification with institutions* – the extent to which individuals feel that the institutions of the state, such as local authorities, and those outside the state, such as political parties, are owned by them and are responsive to their needs, efficiently run and work effectively
- ♦ *identification with communities* – the extent to which people feel integrated into or excluded from their local communities and the social groups within those communities
- ♦ *trust in other people and in government* – the extent of interpersonal trust (or social capital) and political trust (or political capital) that exists in a society, both of which have been argued to play a vital role in making democracy work (see Putnam *et al.*, 1994)
- ♦ *a sense of rights and obligations* – the extent to which individuals have knowledge of citizens’ rights and an appreciation of their entitlements from the state, as well as the extent to which they accept the citizens’ obligations which underpin these rights.

Clearly, the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study needs to address these phenomena and include measures which can track them over time. In this way it will be possible to evaluate the extent to which the new curriculum for citizenship education is meeting its central aim of contributing to the socialisation of active citizens, particularly of young people, in England.

1.3 The Research Context for Citizenship Education

Despite the current interest in citizenship education in policy circles there has been little research into the conditions for, and outcomes of, ‘effective citizenship education’ in schools in England prior to 1998 (Kerr, 1999a and b). Indeed, Kerr in a national case study of citizenship education in England drew attention to the ‘*huge gaps that currently exist in the knowledge and research base which underpins this area in England*’ (Kerr, 1999a, p. 9). This is not surprising given the low profile of the area in policy and practice over the past 30 years. As a consequence, the research base for citizenship education is sparse and partial, and is stronger in some aspects than others. Much of the research has been carried out by those from education, rather than by political scientists, with little active collaboration between the two traditions. It has also focused more on theoretical and qualitative aspects than on quantitative approaches. This lack of a strong research base explains the important role of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study in building strong foundations for this area.

What little research there has been reveals five factors concerning policy and practice in citizenship education in England over the past 30 years. These five factors provide important contextual background which needs to be taken into account when reviewing the findings from the first cross-sectional survey. Each contextual factor is considered in turn in what follows. The first factor revealed is the existence of a number of competing definitions of citizenship in England which offer different models and approaches to citizenship education in schools depending on the concept of citizenship that is espoused. These competing definitions have accrued over time. Rowe (1997) identifies eight models of citizenship education in existence in democratic societies such as Britain. These models are: the constitutional knowledge, the patriotic, the parental, the religious, the value conflict or pluralist, the empathetic, the school ethos and the community action models. Meanwhile, Scott and Lawson (2001) define these competing models as those relating to knowledge (Usher, 1996), action (Habermas, 1994), community (Etzioni, 1995), rights and responsibilities (Giddens, 1994), public and private morality (Beck, 1998), inclusivity (Lynch, 1992; Arnot, 1997; Lister, 1997) and locality (Wringe, 1999; Cogan and Derricott, 2000).

The second factor that the research base reveals is the lack of a coherent vision of citizenship and citizenship education in English society and schools. This is underlined by the existence of the competing definitions and approaches. A number of reasons have been ascribed for what Frazer (2000) has termed this 'British exceptionalism': the long history in Britain of avoiding explicit discussion of citizenship issues in wider society and through the curriculum. Frazer ascribes the condition to the lack of a 'narrative of the distribution of power', while Miller (2000) asserts that the notion of citizenship is itself 'foreign' and 'unsettling' in a British context. Meanwhile, Professor Sir Bernard Crick (2000) draws attention to the influence of the traditional British notion of a person as a 'subject' rather than a 'citizen'.

The third factor suggested by the research literature is that, despite the clear three strand definition of citizenship education put forward by the Citizenship Advisory Group (Crick, 1998), there are still considerable questions to be addressed concerning the 'definition, purposes, and intended outcomes' of an education for citizenship (Pearce and Hallgarten, 2000). It is likely that there remains considerable confusion as to what is meant by the terms 'citizenship' and 'citizenship education' in society and in schools. Indeed reaction to the Crick Report, though largely supportive, highlights the continued support for a number of pre-1998 definitions of and approaches to citizenship education.

Following the Crick Report there were calls from interest groups for citizenship education to be developed that emphasised particular aspects of citizenship, including equality, identity and diversity (Osler, 2000a and b; Gundara, 2000); community involvement (Potter, 2002); the global dimension (DFID/DfEE, 2000); values education and morals (Haydon, 2000) and democratic schooling (Alexander, 2001) among others. These calls were often accompanied by suggestions that citizenship education should be developed through particular curriculum subjects, notably history (Arthur *et al.*, 2001), geography (Lambert and Machon, 2001), English (Moss, 2001) and religious

education (RE). It is likely that these definitions and associated subject links continue to compete for predominance in this area among practitioners, policy-makers and researchers. The definitions are of interest because they highlight differing approaches to citizenship education in terms of both emphasis and teaching and learning styles. It will be important to identify these competing models and approaches to citizenship education and gauge the extent to which they are present in the ways that schools, particularly those involved in the Study, develop citizenship education through the curriculum.

The fourth contextual factor revealed in the research literature is how little is known about the emphasis given to citizenship education in schools and how it is addressed through the curriculum. There are only a small number of research studies that investigate practices and approaches to citizenship education in schools prior to 1998. They offer a partial picture of policy and practice. However, that picture is of help in setting the findings in this report concerning the degree of planning and readiness of schools, teachers and pupils for the formal introduction of citizenship, within a broader historical context.

Crewe, Searing and Conover (1997) in a comparative research programme into aspects of citizenship in Britain and the United States discovered that for British respondents citizenship was a foreign concept and played only a peripheral part in their self-perception, and that they attached far more importance and value to their sense of Britishness than to their sense of citizenship. The study also found that nearly 80 per cent of pupils aged 15 to 16 in their British sample communities engaged in little discussion of public issues in the classroom.

Issues concerning the difficulty of defining citizenship were also uncovered by Arnot (1996) in a survey of student teachers in England at the end of their initial training course. The study found that student teachers had great difficulty defining the concept of citizenship and listing the characteristics of 'a good citizen'. This was reinforced by the findings of a further study of student teachers' understanding of citizenship carried out by Wilkins (1999). Arnot and Wilkins also highlighted the fact that many student teachers in England feel ill-prepared and uncomfortable at the end of their one-year initial teacher education course in addressing issues related to citizenship education in schools.

The only large-scale survey of curriculum policy and practice in citizenship education prior to 1998 was carried out for the Commission on Citizenship in the early 1990s. The survey asked 455 secondary schools about their practice in citizenship education (Fogelman 1990, 1991). The results showed that citizenship education was delivered across a range of curriculum subjects at key stages 3 and 4 with the most frequent form of delivery in personal and social education and form and tutorial time. Students were also most commonly involved in extracurricular activities around community activity or service and school councils.

A further attempt was made to replicate aspects of the earlier survey of citizenship education practices, as part of a national values education survey carried out by NFER at the same time as the setting up of the Citizenship Advisory Group (quoted in Crick Report, 1998). The 173 secondary schools who took part in the NFER survey confirmed the findings from the earlier survey about the range of subjects involved in the delivery of citizenship education in schools and the predominance of delivery through personal and social education. They also reaffirmed the breadth of extracurricular activities involving pupils. These activities included work experience, charity fund-raising, work with school councils and community activities. However, little is known about pupils' actual experiences of such activities outside school, in their neighbourhoods and communities.

There is also a dearth of research in the studies into specific teaching and learning activities in schools which address the topics associated with citizenship education. Kerr (1996), in a survey of 144 primary schools, found that teachers felt the most effective approach to citizenship education was through active strategies, such as discussion and debate. However, this survey was never followed up in either primary or secondary schools. The lack of an established research and practice base for citizenship education in England is an important contextual factor which must be borne in mind when the Longitudinal Study moves to consider the approach of schools to policy and practice in this area.

The fifth contextual factor revealed in the research literature is the identification of common challenges that remain to be faced if the vision of the Citizenship Advisory Group for effective citizenship education for all young people is to be translated into meaningful practice and become a reality. This factor relates to literature published in the period following the publication of the Crick Report. Both those closely involved in the drawing up of the Crick Report (Kerr, 1999a and b; 2000; Crick, 2000; Potter, 2002) and those interested parties looking in from the outside (McLaughlin, 2000; Davies, 2000) identify common issues and challenges that need to be addressed as the policy initiative meets actual practice. They include the challenges of:

- ♦ gaining agreement on the conception or definition of citizenship. McLaughlin (2000) sees the Crick definition as '*a controversial one which is open to challenge*'.
- ♦ bridging the gap between policy intentions and actual practice, including the gap between the Crick Report and the statutory Curriculum Order.
- ♦ curriculum location for citizenship. Frazer (2000) draws attention to the fact that '*sheltering under the umbrella of citizenship education*' are a range of interest groups with '*a range of differing and possibly conflicting interests and concerns*'.
- ♦ Achieving teacher ownership of the aims and teaching and learning approaches associated with citizenship education, what McLaughlin (2000) terms achieving '*taxonomic bite*'.

- ♦ Giving teachers sufficient training and confidence to teach sensitive and controversial issues in citizenship education through active approaches, such as discussion, debate and drama.
- ♦ Agreeing how citizenship education should be assessed, reported and inspected.
- ♦ Helping schools to successfully address the community involvement strand of citizenship education, in partnership with representatives from their local communities (Potter, 2002).

As McLaughlin (2000) notes in his conclusion to a detailed appraisal of the claims and recommendations in the Crick Report '*the extent to which the arguments and recommendations of the Crick Report are successfully implemented remains to be seen*'. This statement neatly sums up the widespread speculation in the current literature about the prospects for citizenship education.

It is important that these common challenges are understood. They offer a series of issues which require further exploration during the course of the Study, particularly in the case study visits to schools. They also provide a backdrop against which the range of policies and practices that will be developed in schools can be considered.

However, the research base for citizenship education in England has begun to improve since 1998, as a direct consequence of the current policy initiative in this area. The introduction of citizenship education in schools has encouraged researcher and government bodies, such as DfES and the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), to try to establish a baseline concerning the state of citizenship education and the levels of readiness of schools and others for its statutory implementation in September 2002. Research and evaluation has been carried out at a number of levels by a range of researchers and government bodies.

By far the most important of these recent studies for the Longitudinal Study is England's participation in the IEA Civic Education Study, known in England as the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2001, 2002). The IEA study, sponsored by DfES, was a two-phase, cross-national study involving 28 countries, including England. The main goal was to identify and examine, in a comparative framework, the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens in democracies. One focus of the study was on schools and a second was on opportunities for civic participation outside the school, especially in the community.

England's participation in the IEA Study was co-ordinated and conducted by the NFER (Kerr, 1999a and b; Kerr *et al.*, 2001, 2002). The experiences and outcomes of this earlier research have proved useful for the Longitudinal Study. The findings which are of particular interest to the Longitudinal Study include (see Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2001 and 2002; Kerr, 2002 for further information):

- ◆ Citizenship education is a **complex enterprise** involving the development of a variety of **citizenship dimensions** (knowledge, skills, concepts, attitudes, engagement and participation) through a range of educational approaches and opportunities for young people both in and out of school
- ◆ Pupils in most countries, including England, have an understanding of **fundamental democratic values and institutions**, but **lack depth** of understanding
- ◆ Young people with **higher levels of civic knowledge** are more likely to expect to participate in political and civic activities as adults. In all countries, including England, there is a **positive correlation** between civic knowledge and participation in democratic life
- ◆ Schools that **model democratic practices and values**, by encouraging pupils to discuss issues in the classroom and take an active role in the life of the school, are **most effective** in promoting civic knowledge and engagement
- ◆ Voting aside, pupils are **sceptical** about **traditional forms** of political engagement but are more open to other forms of involvement in civic life
- ◆ Schools and community organisations have **untapped potential** to influence positively the civic preparation of young people. 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’ action. This sense of ‘**school efficacy**’ identified in the study may be as important a factor in future political behaviour as the broader sense of ‘political efficacy’.

However, it should be emphasised that, though these findings from the IEA Study are of interest, the Longitudinal Study marks the start of new, groundbreaking, research in citizenship education. The Longitudinal Study is unparalleled, in its aims, objectives and scope, not only in England but across the world. Indeed, the countries that participated in the IEA Study are watching the conduct of the Longitudinal Study and awaiting the findings with keen interest.

There are a number of smaller studies and evaluations which are valuable in shedding further light on the state of planning and preparation of schools for citizenship education prior to September 2002. They include a survey by political scientists of the levels of preparation of secondary schools in Hertfordshire for citizenship education in 2000 (Halpern *et al.*, 2002). The survey involved 63 schools and found that over 90 per cent were already doing something on citizenship education in the curriculum, offered extra-curricular activities that contributed to citizenship education, had coverage of certain citizenship topics and had appointed a co-ordinator for this area. Only 17 per cent taught citizenship education as a discrete subject. The overwhelming finding from the survey was of the diversity of practices across the schools, reaffirming the flexible approach enshrined in the Curriculum Order for Citizenship.

The findings from an OFSTED investigation of the implementation arrangements for citizenship education in a sample of 20 schools are also of relevance (OFSTED, 2002). Though the sample is small it revealed considerable variations in schools' responses to the new citizenship education requirements. Over 50 per cent of the schools had made good use of the two-year lead in time for citizenship education and had decided on and built in new approaches. One-third had taken essential first steps but still had considerable work to do. However, in a small number of schools, one in ten, progress towards implementation was unsatisfactory. These findings are of interest if they are replicated across schools nationally.

The NFER research team has already made links to the experiences and outcomes of the IEA Study, in particular, and to the other studies in the framing, conduct, analysis and reporting of the first cross-sectional survey. Where relevant, these links are highlighted in the chapters that follow.

Finally, it should be noted that links have also been established between the Longitudinal Study and the Post-16 Citizenship Education Study. The Post-16 study, funded by DfES and also being undertaken by the NFER, is evaluating the new post-16 citizenship development projects with a view to informing a national roll-out of citizenship in post-16 education and training routes from 2004. The field-based findings from the post-16 evaluation are likely to be of increasing use in informing the design of the Longitudinal Study components in the coming years. The findings will contribute to the on-going literature review and will influence questionnaire design and analysis plans for the longitudinal and cross-sectional surveys, particularly in the survey sweeps after 2004. The findings will also be helpful in informing the conduct of the case-study visits to participating schools, particularly in terms of the links made between pre-16 and post-16 citizenship experiences for young people.

1.4 Aims of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

The aims of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study are heavily influenced by the policy and research contexts in citizenship education. With citizenship education moving rapidly from a policy proposal to a real school subject there is a need to identify, measure and evaluate the extent to which 'effective practice' in Citizenship develops so that such practice can be promoted more widely. Accordingly, the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) has commissioned the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) to undertake a Longitudinal Study in citizenship education over eight years. This will track a cohort of young people who entered secondary school in 2002 and are the first students to have a continuous statutory entitlement to citizenship education.

The overarching aim of the study is to:

- ♦ assess the short-term and long-term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills and attitudes and behaviour of pupils.

This is to be achieved in relation to the three interrelated strands of citizenship identified by the Citizenship Advisory Group, namely the effects of citizenship education on pupils' levels of social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy.

The Study has two subsidiary aims related to the main aim, which are to:

- ◆ 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.

The Study will also collect detailed information in order to meet a number of key research objectives. These include:

- ◆ **Models of provision:**
 - ◆ the identification of the main 'types' of citizenship education being provided nationally
 - ◆ the exploration of the influences on the main 'types' of citizenship education which are developed nationally.
- ◆ **Processes/enabling factors:**
 - ◆ the assessment of the advantages and disadvantages of different types of citizenship education provision on pupil outcomes
 - ◆ the examination of what school, teacher and pupil effects have a significant impact on pupil outcomes
 - ◆ the assessment of whether the impact of these effects varies in relation to different types of provision
 - ◆ the examination of how 'types' of citizenship education change over time and are adapted as experience accrues in schools.
- ◆ **Impact outcomes**
 - ◆ the assessment of the impact of citizenship education on pupils' knowledge, skills and attitudes over time.
- ◆ **Participant views**
 - ◆ the gauging of teachers' views of citizenship education
 - ◆ the exploration of teachers' views on the ways citizenship education is implemented, delivered, received and monitored
 - ◆ the identification of teachers' views on training in terms of availability, quality and applicability
 - ◆ the gauging of pupils' views of citizenship education
 - ◆ the gathering of pupils' views on the types of provision in which they participate

- ♦ the capture of the views of school and college leaders', parents' and community representatives' involved in citizenship education, alongside those of teachers and pupils
- ♦ the establishment of the degree of congruence, or lack of it, between school, teacher and pupil views on citizenship education and to ascertain the reasons for this.
- ♦ **Study outcomes**
 - ♦ an informed evidence-based discussion of potential changes for the delivery of citizenship education to improve its effectiveness.

These aims and objectives have shaped the research design and conduct of the Longitudinal Study, including the design, conduct and reporting of the first cross-sectional survey.

1.5 Research Design of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

The research design of the Longitudinal Study is based on four interrelated components:

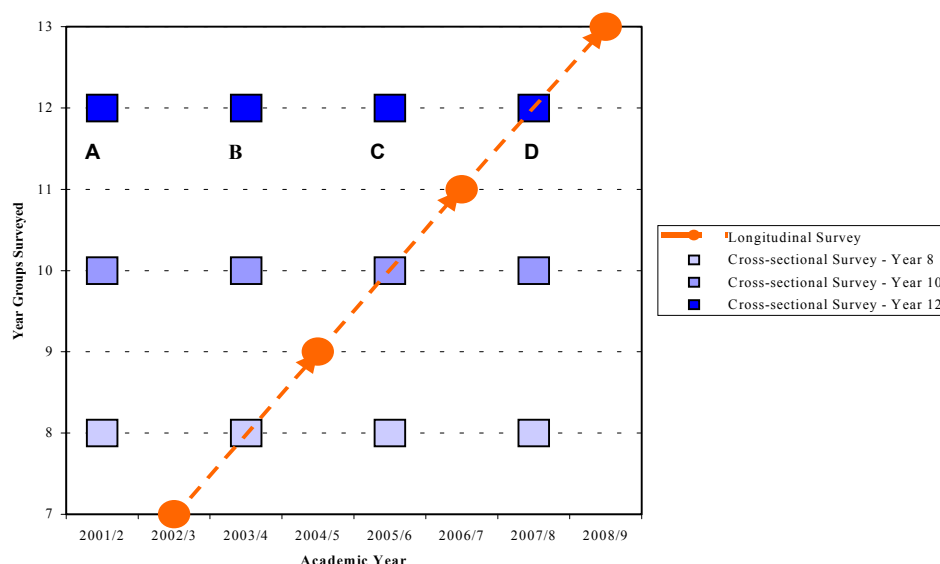
- ♦ **Four cross-sectional surveys of students, schools and teachers.** The first survey took place in 2001-2, the future surveys will be undertaken in school years 2003-4, 2005-6 and 2007-8, with the first survey acting as a pre-compulsory baseline. The student surveys (sent to one tutor group in Years 8, 10 and 12 in each participating school) were accompanied by questionnaires to school and college leaders and teachers in each participating school.³ These surveys, based on representative national samples, will yield a wide range of factual and attitudinal student data, as well as information about developments in citizenship education through the coming years.
- ♦ **A longitudinal tracking survey of a whole year group** of students in a representative sample of 100 schools tracking the student cohort from Year 7, through Years 9 and 11 and 13 (or equivalent when they are aged 18). Schools and teachers will also be asked to complete questionnaires each year up to Year 11 so that links can be made between pupils' experiences, skills, knowledge and attitudes and school characteristics and processes. These surveys will track the way that a particular cohort of students' attitudes and knowledge change over the next eight years and at each stage may be contextualised by data obtained in the cross-sectional survey.
- ♦ **Twenty longitudinal school case studies.** Ten schools will be drawn from the schools participating in the first cross-sectional survey and ten from the longitudinal sample population of schools. School visits will include in-depth interviews with key personnel, lesson observation and student discussion groups. Each school will be revisited once every two years over the duration of the study. The case studies will provide an

³ In the first cross-sectional survey (2001-2) a total of 7500 students and 1500 teachers were targeted.

opportunity for in-depth analysis of the delivery models that schools use to implement citizenship education in a range of different contexts and how these evolve over time. They will also enable detailed follow-up with senior managers, teachers and pupils of questions raised by the survey evidence. They provide a further opportunity to investigate emerging issues and topics of interest to policy and practice.

- ♦ **An ongoing literature review.** An initial scrutiny of key literature on policy and practice in citizenship education and political socialisation will be undertaken to inform questionnaire design and the study's analytical framework. The literature review will be extended and updated each summer thereafter for the duration of the project.

The following schematic diagram illustrates the timing of both surveys. It shows how the first cross-sectional survey, which is the focus of this report, fits with the study's overall research design.



1.6 Analytical Framework

The research team has drawn up an overarching framework to guide the study. This analytical framework binds together the aims and design of the study. In particular, it provides a means of organising and linking the data and information collected in the four components of the study.

The framework provides a way of understanding the implementation of citizenship education. It not only takes into account the school, teacher and student level contexts which may influence the delivery and impact of citizenship education, but recognises the broader societal processes and contexts which may combine to influence young peoples' experience and

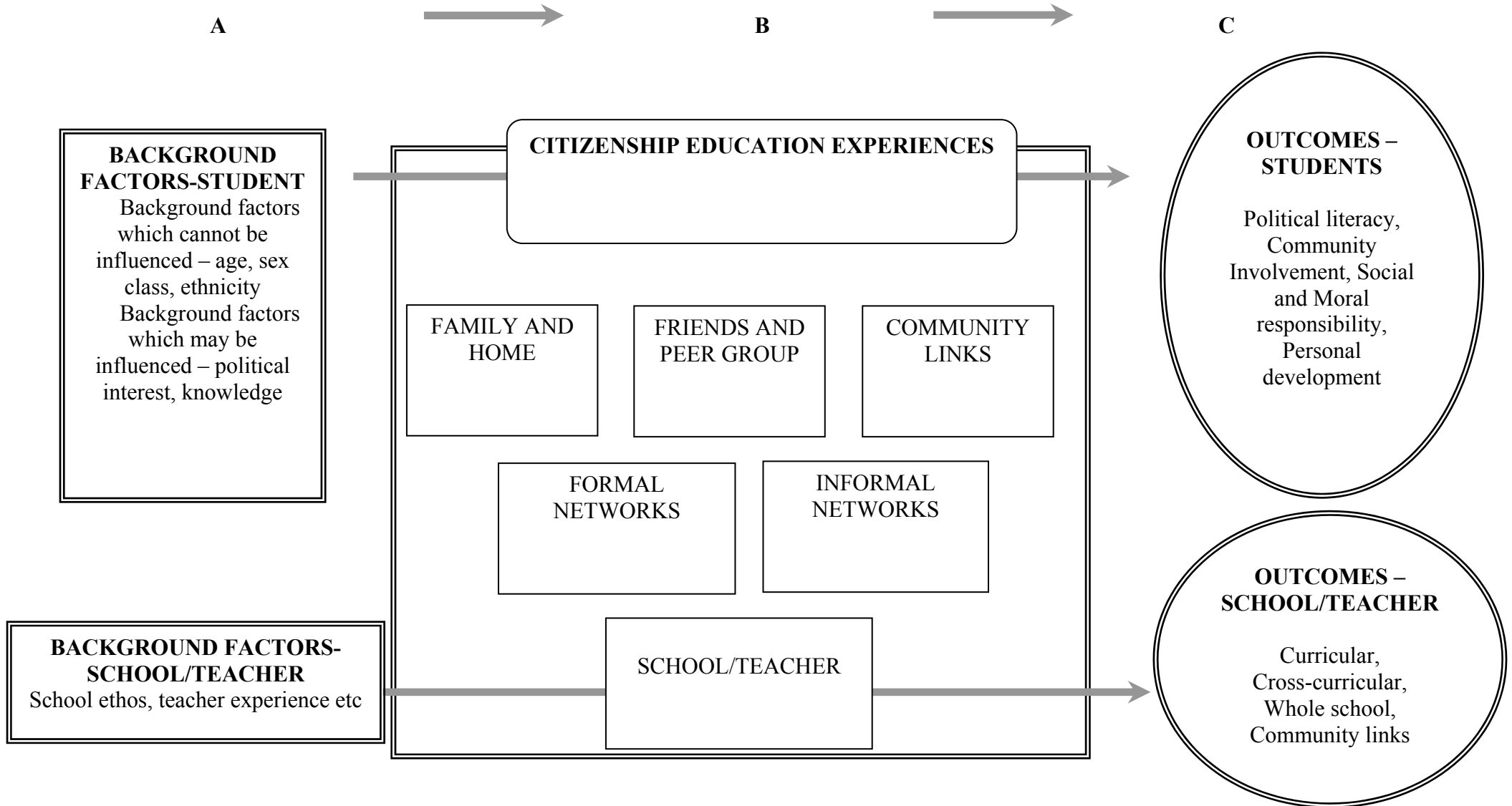
development of citizenship dimensions (knowledge, skills, understanding, concepts, attitudes, engagement and participation).

At the heart of the framework is the individual student and individual school. The framework reflects the recognition that both student and school are influenced by a range of background factors. For students these include a mixture of factors that cannot necessarily be influenced by citizenship education, (such as age, sex and ethnicity)⁴ and those factors that may be influenced by citizenship education (such as political interest and knowledge, political efficacy and civic engagement). At the school-level the influence of institutional size, ethos, management and the attitudes and expertise of staff maybe significant. This is explored in section A.

Student and school factors come together in the context of the citizenship education experiences that students have in school. However, schools are only one of the contexts or ‘sites’ in which young people experience and develop citizenship dimensions. Other important contexts may include home, formal community networks such as religious, cultural and voluntary groups, and informal networks such as youth organisations, leisure and work places. This range of contexts therefore indicates that teachers are only one of the influences on the citizenship education experiences of young people, other potential influences include family, friends and peers and members of local and broader communities. These various factors and their interface are explored in section B.

⁴ While age, sex, and ethnicity cannot themselves be affected by citizenship education some of the socially influenced norms and values reflected in age related, gender specific and ethnic cultures which can influence young people’s attitudes and actions may be affected.

Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study Analytical Framework



The framework also provides an indication of some of the potential outcomes of citizenship education for individual students and schools. For the purpose of this study the framework focuses on two outcomes in particular. First, how young people embrace the three strands of citizenship – social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy – and secondly, how far schools develop effective citizenship education across the whole school, including links with local communities. The study is also interested to explore the extent of the linkage between individual student and school outcomes. These various outcomes and linkages are explored in section C.

The analytical framework is a composite, combining, a range of explanatory models and theoretical frameworks from citizenship education research and the political sciences, which appear to provide valuable insights for this study. In particular, the framework builds on the Octagon Model used to guide the conduct of the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002), the findings of the IEA Study and theoretical frameworks developed by political scientists to explore and explain adult political socialisation and political behaviour. The current study aims to assess how far theories developed from research into adult participation can help us to understand the participation of school-aged young people. Taking this argument further, it aims to assess and measure the extent to which citizenship education may affect participation in ways over and above the participation current citizenship education models explain. Below each of these explanatory models and theoretical frameworks is explored in brief.

Student level models

- ◆ ***The democratic processes model***

This model suggests that schools that model democratic practices by encouraging students to discuss issues in the classroom and take an active role in the life of the school, are most effective in promoting civic knowledge and engagement. This model results from the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002).

- ◆ ***The school efficacy model***

Again drawing on the findings of the IEA Study, this model suggests that the extent to which students believe that they can improve their school and have an impact on their school (school efficacy) may be an important influence on students' sense of political efficacy and as such future political participation. (Torney-Purta *et al.*; 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002)

- ◆ ***Civic knowledge-civic participation***

This model, based on the findings of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, suggests that students' educational background (parental education, expected further years of education, and number of books in the home) has an influence on their levels of civic knowledge. In turn, students' civic knowledge, use of the media (if they watch television news) and political education (if they have learned about voting in school), has an influence on how likely they are to participate in civic life. (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2001, 2002)

Adult level theories

♦ *Theories of cognitive engagement*

Research has found that the higher the levels of political information that individuals are exposed to, the more likely they are to take an interest in politics (Dalton, 2002). Moreover, the better-educated people are, the more likely they are to be able to read, understand and have access to this information. Those who have access to such cognitive resources are more likely to have an opinion on the political process and to participate in political life.

♦ *Theories of civic voluntarism*

This set of theories (see for example Parry *et al.*, 1992; Verba *et al.*, 1996) argues that individuals who are well-educated, middle-class, affluent and feel as though they have plenty of free time are more likely to participate *if* they are interested in politics, support a particular political party (partisanship) and think that what they do will make a difference (political efficacy). A further factor which can influence participation is *mobilisation* – the active request for participation by others.

♦ *Rational actor theories*

This set of theories, drawing on the work of Downs (1957), Olson (1965) and Pattie *et al.*, (2002), argues that an individual's choice to participate will result from a weighing up of the benefits of an action or activity in relation to the costs. If the costs are too great, or the benefits too few, they are less likely to participate.

♦ *Theories of social capital*

The theory of social capital (see Putnam *et al.*, 1994) argues individuals who participate in many organisations within their communities and who are generally trusting of other people and institutions, are more likely to take an active role in political life.

♦ *Theories of equity-fairness*

This group of theories (see for example Runciman, 1966; Gurr, 1970; Muller, 1979) argues that members of traditionally disadvantaged groups, who feel that they are treated unfairly in comparison to other groups (relative deprivation) and that they cannot make their voice heard through conventional participation (marginalisation), are more likely to turn to protest and revolution.

The development and refinement of the analytical framework is an on-going process. The current version has been developed in parallel with the first cross-sectional survey and will be adapted in light of further analysis and the on-going literature review. This process is examined in further detail in the final chapter of this report. Aspects of the theories and hypotheses outlined in the analytical framework are explored only briefly in the light of data

presented in the current report, but will be returned to in more depth in future analysis.

1.7 Structure of the Report

The main focus of the first cross-sectional survey – an exploration of the attitudes of schools, teachers and students to citizenship and education, prior to the statutory introduction of Citizenship in September 2002 - forms a major part of this report. In addition, the report begins to address some of the key aims and objectives of the Study, and to explore and test some of the explanatory models of participation and engagement that comprise the analytical framework.

This introductory chapter is followed in Chapter 2 by a detailed account of the methods used in conducting the first cross-sectional survey in schools. Chapter 3 provides background information about the schools, teachers and students who participated in the cross-sectional study. This profile of respondents enriches the findings in the other chapters in this report. The next three chapters explore the understanding of, approaches to and preparation for citizenship education of students, schools and teachers in the summer term of 2002. They provide a fascinating national baseline snapshot of the different stages of preparedness prior to the formal introduction of citizenship in September 2002. Chapter 4 examines the ways in which citizenship was already being approached in differing school contexts prior to September 2002. It highlights the range of existing approaches to developing effective citizenship education in schools from school ethos to classroom teaching and learning. Chapter 5 flows naturally from the preceding chapter and focuses, more specifically, on teachers' and school leaders' familiarity with the new citizenship proposals and their levels of planning and preparedness for the formal introduction of citizenship. It highlights professional development strengths and training needs in relation to citizenship education in schools.

The following three chapters focus on the results of the student section of the survey. Chapter 6 contains a short review of students' responses to the open-ended question '*What is Citizenship?*', included to illustrate the range of meanings students attach to the term 'citizenship'. Chapter 7 explores students' political and civic knowledge in relation to a series of citizenship topics. It sets the results against a series of background factors which have been shown to influence students' political and civic knowledge scores. In Chapter 8, students' attitudes toward key civic institutions and groups in society are considered. Chapter 9 focuses on a discussion of students' attitudes to civic engagement and participation in political activities. It includes 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. Each analysis chapter ends with a summary of its key findings.

The final chapter seeks to draw together the differing aspects and findings from the cross-sectional study, as set out in the preceding chapters. First it summarises and collates the main conclusions that can be drawn from the

initial analysis of cross-sectional survey data. These conclusions are set out in relation to the on-going policy, practice and research context of citizenship education in England. Attention is also drawn to any continuities and differences in findings from the first cross-sectional survey with recent research in this area, and, in particular with the findings from England's involvement in the IEA Citizenship Education Study. Secondly, it reflects on the experiences gained during the implementation and analysis of the first cross-sectional survey, and considers how these will inform future progress of the Longitudinal Study. The first cross-sectional survey has played a vital role in shaping the approach to the study's four research components – future cross-sectional and longitudinal surveys, the longitudinal case studies and the literature review – as well as the analytical framework. Potential ways forward for each of these components are considered in turn.

1.8 Summary

Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study aims to assess the short-term and long-term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills attitudes and behaviour of pupils. A key outcome of the study will be to explore, based on the views of teachers and pupils, potential changes to the delivery of the citizenship curriculum in order to improve the effectiveness of citizenship education.

Research Design

The research design for the Longitudinal Study is based on four interrelated components:

- ◆ Four cross-sectional surveys of students, schools and teachers undertaken in school years 2001-2, 2003-4, 2005-6 and 2007-8, with the first survey acting as a pre-compulsory baseline.
- ◆ A longitudinal tracking survey of a whole year group of students in a representative sample of 100 schools, starting in Year 7 in 2002-3, and following them up in Year 9, Year 11 and then in Year 13 (or equivalent when they are aged 18).
- ◆ Twenty longitudinal school case studies that will be revisited at least once every two years over the duration of the study. Ten of these schools will be drawn from the schools participating in the first cross-sectional survey and ten from the longitudinal sample population of schools.
- ◆ An ongoing literature review of key literature on policy and practice in citizenship education and political socialisation that will be extended/updated annually.

Analytical Framework

The Longitudinal Study is guided by an overarching analytical framework. The framework informs and underpins the study's analysis of the extent to

which young people are prepared to undertake roles and responsibilities in contemporary society, and the place of citizenship education in this process. The analytical framework binds together the aims and design of the study and provides a means of organising and linking the data and information collected in the four components of the study.

First Cross-sectional Survey

This report sets out the findings from the first cross-sectional survey of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. The findings need to be viewed within the policy and research context of citizenship education. They also need to be seen within the conduct of the Longitudinal Study as a whole.

The first cross-sectional survey marks the start of the Longitudinal Study. The findings provide continuity with existing research on citizenship education and, in particular, with the findings from England's participation in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2001 and 2002;). However, they also mark out the Longitudinal Study as a separate and distinctive research study. To this end they provide a baseline measure for school, teacher and student attitudes prior to the introduction of the statutory Citizenship curriculum from September 2002.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 The questionnaires

The questionnaires for the first cross sectional survey were designed by the research team at NFER in collaboration with the study's consultants. The questionnaires drew on previous NFER surveys including the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002). The questionnaires also drew on questions used in established surveys in the field of political science, notably the British Election Survey (University of Essex, 2001). Each school was sent: a set of questionnaires for students in either Year 8, Year 10 or Year 12, five questionnaires for teachers and one for Senior Managers. The student questionnaires largely employed identical items across all three year groups surveyed. However in order to make the questionnaire easier for the younger students, a slightly shorter version was created for the Year 8 respondents. Further Education, Tertiary and Sixth Form Colleges were sent the same student questionnaire used for Year 12 students in schools, as well as tutor and senior manager questionnaires adapted from the teacher and senior manager questionnaires for schools. The main differences between school and college questionnaires were in terms of making language relevant to colleges and recognising that colleges would have no obligation to implement the national curriculum for citizenship education.

The questionnaires were trialled with students of all year groups in three schools and with teachers and college tutors, prior to redrafting and final agreement with the DfES. These trials helped to establish the length of the questionnaire and avoid any difficulties with ambiguous or complex wording of individual questions.

2.2 The sample

Three samples totalling 500 schools and colleges with at least 20 pupils in each of the relevant year groups of Years 8, 10 and 12, were drawn randomly from the NFER register of schools in England. Schools were stratified in order to ensure a representative sample based on school size and region of England. A fourth sample of 100 schools was drawn from sixth form, FE and tertiary colleges, targeting students who would have their 17th birthday within the academic year 2001-2. This sample was also stratified by size of college and geographical region.

The schools and colleges in the sample were contacted in early January 2002 by letter, and invited to take part in the survey. In order to achieve the desired sample size, up to two reminder letters were sent and telephone calls made where no reply was received. Faxes were also sent in some cases. A total of

318 schools and colleges finally agreed to take part in the study, of which, 297 returned completed student questionnaires (93 per cent).

Questionnaires were sent in early March and schools/colleges were asked to complete them within a two week period. Although most institutions complied with this request, a number asked to have this period extended. Ultimately, completed questionnaires were received at NFER up to mid-May. Section 3 of this report provides further details about the survey's respondents.

2.3 Analysis

Tables of first run basic frequencies were produced for each question in the cross sectional student, teacher and senior management questionnaires. These data are presented in chapters four, five and six of the report. More in-depth analysis of the student cross-sectional data (across all three year groups surveyed) was also undertaken and this, alongside the basic frequency data, is presented in chapters seven, eight and nine of the report. These chapters explore significant relationships⁵ between:

- ♦ students' background characteristics (i.e. sex, ethnicity, housing tenure etc.) and the levels of civic and political knowledge they hold.
- ♦ students' background characteristics and their attitudes, levels of trust and participation
- ♦ students' level of civic and political knowledge and their attitudes, levels of trust and participation.

In addition, the analysis chapters explore students':

- ♦ attitudes towards the law and conventional and non-conventional participation⁶
- ♦ attitudes towards human and civil rights, civil responsibilities and social justice
- ♦ attitudes towards governmental responsibility
- ♦ attitudes towards the treatment and status of social groups
- ♦ trust in government and other civic institutions
- ♦ trust in the media
- ♦ trust in social groups
- ♦ attitudes towards and participation in discussions about politics
- ♦ future predictions of conventional and non-conventional participation

⁵ Please note: only relationships that are statistically significant are referred to as significant throughout the report.

⁶ Conventional participation refers to activities such as voting in elections or joining a political party. Non-conventional participation refers to participation in non-partisan groups and movements in communities and schools which promote human rights, protection of the environment and community involvement.

- ◆ influences on participation.

2.3.1 Strategies for analysis

Due to the large range of questions in the student questionnaire, it was not feasible to study the effect of background characteristics and level of civic and political knowledge on all responses to all questions. A number of strategies were therefore employed to condense the information:

- ◆ Similar questions were combined to form **opinion** and **attitudinal scales**. For example, students' responses to the statements '*Students have little say in how my school is run*', '*There are opportunities for students to be involved in running this school, through student councils*', and '*Students are often consulted when developing school policies*' were combined to create a scale to measure students' perception of school efficacy. Each students' response to each of the statements, from 0 (answer indicating very low school efficacy) to 4 (answer indicating very high school efficacy) was added to create an overall measure of school efficacy for that respondent. These overall measures were then used in the statistical analysis.
- ◆ The activities which students indicated that they took part in were similarly combined to form overall measures for participation in particular **types of activity**. For example, all students who had indicated that they had been involved in either helping the local community or in raising money for a good cause were grouped as being involved in 'Helpful or Charity' work.
- ◆ Many of the attitudinal questions asked respondents to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with particular statements. Respondents could choose from five possible answers: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree and Don't Know. In order to facilitate manageability, the analysis focused, where appropriate, on the percentage of respondents who *agreed* or *strongly agreed* with a given statement. For other questions it was felt more appropriate to examine the percentage that *disagreed* or *strongly disagreed*. In a few cases the proportion of *don't knows* was of interest.

2.3.2 Identifying 'true' relationships

In order to uncover relationships between students' background characteristics and their attitudes, levels of trust and participation, the research team had to ensure that any significant relationships identified were the result of the variables involved and not due to other linked variables. For example, respondents that have a high number of books in the home may be more likely to say they would probably or definitely vote in a national election in the future. Respondents whose parents went to university may also be more likely to vote. However, it is also feasible that those with a high number of books in the home are likely to have parents who went to university. Whether or not parental education is really linked to likelihood of voting can be revealed by looking for the results for this group and then controlling for books in the

home. If the analysis is restricted to looking at groups with equal levels of books in the home it is possible to tell whether or not there really is a significant relationship between parental education and likelihood of voting.

To identify which background characteristics were significantly related to each outcome of interest, when the other background variables have been controlled for, the research team used two types of regression analysis. Linear regression⁷ was used where the outcomes were continuous, for example a continuous scale of the extent to which the student is taught in an open classroom. Where significant relationships emerged these were compared to students' mean scores on these scales in each group to provide further information about the relationship. Logistic regression⁸ was used to find significant relationships where the outcome was a dichotomous variable, for example, a variable with two possible outcomes such as agree/do not agree. Once significant relationships were identified the research team used tables to compare the responses of different student groups to reveal further information about the relationship between the background variable and outcome.

2.4 Summary

The questionnaires

Three questionnaires: a student questionnaire for Year 8, Year 10 or Year 12 students, a teacher or college tutor questionnaire and a senior manager questionnaire were sent to each school and college that agreed to take part.

The sample

Schools and colleges were selected using a stratified random sample and initially invited to participate in the survey in January 2002. A total of 318 schools and colleges agreed to take part, 302 of which completed questionnaires between March and May 2002.

The analysis

Basic frequency tables of responses for each question were created. Further analysis to investigate relationships between students' background characteristics and their political and civic knowledge, their attitudes, and

⁷ Linear Regression - A method used to examine the relationship between a continuous dependent variable (or predictor) and a number of independent variables (predictors). The method examines how the average value of the dependent variable changes with the independent variables.

⁸ Logistic Regression - A method used to examine the relationship between a binary dependent variable (that is one taking values 1 or 0 as in "yes" or "no") and a number of independent variables (predictors). The method examines how the probability of the dependent variable taking a value of 1 changes with the independent variables.

levels of trust and participation, were conducted using linear and logistic regression.

3. BACKGROUND PROFILE OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the background of the schools and colleges that agreed to take part in the first cross-sectional survey, and the degree of representation of those institutions compared with the total school and college population in England. Background information was also gathered at headteacher, teacher and student level, and is also discussed. Central to the study's analytical framework (as detailed in Chapter 1) is the notion of young people's attitudes and behaviour being 'shaped' by the daily contexts which surround them; their personal backgrounds, their social class, the types of schools they attend and the backgrounds of the teachers who teach them. It is important to gain information about these background factors in order to situate the findings from the first cross-sectional survey within their social context.

The chapter is divided into three parts. The first part examines the types of schools and colleges that participated in the cross-sectional survey. The second part focuses on the personal and professional background details supplied by school and college leaders and teachers. The third and final part explores student background details, including information on gender and ethnicity, and home and family backgrounds. Taken together the background information on the schools and colleges, teachers and students helps to situate the findings presented in the other chapters in this report.

3.2 The Schools and Colleges

3.2.1 The profile of the participating schools and colleges

This section is based on the profile of the schools and colleges that agreed to participate in the first cross-sectional survey, focusing on region, type of institution, student achievement at GCSE, the proportion of pupils speaking English as an additional language (EAL) and take-up of free school meals. In total, 302 schools and colleges participated in the first cross-sectional survey, returning at least one of the three types of questionnaire: student, teacher/tutor or school/college. Table 3.1 below provides a detailed breakdown of the profile of schools and colleges which participated, including a comparison between participating institutions and the total number in each category nationally.

Table 3.1: Comparison of participating schools/colleges and total school/college population

		Participating schools/colleges		Total school/college population	
		Number	%	Number	%
Region	North	71	24	1099	31
	Midlands	121	40	1140	32
	South	110	36	1341	37
Secondary school type	Comprehensive to 16	60	20	1244	35
	Comprehensive to 18	145	48	1560	44
	Other				
	Secondary schools	15	5	188	5
	Grammar	28	9	165	5
	College	54	18	423	12
% of EAL pupils (NOT-Quintiles)	None	100	40	1089	34
	1 – 5%	127	51	1271	40
	6 – 49%	20	8	650	21
	50% +	1	0	147	5
5 pt scale % (taking up) FSM 99	Lowest 20%	47	19	244	8
	2nd lowest 20%	101	41	849	27
	Middle 20%	67	27	856	27
	2nd highest 20%	31	13	746	24
	Highest 20%	2	1	462	15
% pupils aged 15 achieving 5+ A-C GCSE grades 1998	Lowest 20%	19	8	683	22
	2nd lowest 20%	47	19	756	24
	Middle 20%	65	27	741	24
	2nd highest 20%	76	31	689	22
	Highest 20%	37	15	240	8

Since percentages are rounded to the nearest integer they may not always sum to 100. Where Information is not available schools are not included. As a result subtotals may not match throughout the table.

Overall, there was a good regional spread of participating institutions. However, those located in the midlands were slightly over-represented in comparison with the total population, whereas institutions in the north were slightly under-represented. In total, 40 per cent of participating institutions were located in the midlands, 36 per cent in the south and 24 per cent in the north. Participating institutions were broadly represented in terms of type of institution; the majority comprised comprehensive schools with students aged up to either 16 or 18. Fewer grammar schools and other types of secondary school or colleges were represented, though even here the proportions that participated were similar when compared with the total populations in these categories. Schools with less than five per cent of pupils with EAL were more likely than those with higher proportions to respond to the survey. Schools in

the highest free school meals (take up) ranking were slightly under-represented compared with the total population, whilst schools in the lowest free school meals (take-up) rankings were slightly over-represented, as were schools with the highest GCSE achievements.

3.2.2 The types of questionnaires returned by schools/colleges

Although 302 schools and colleges took part in the survey, not all returned each type of questionnaire. Almost all schools and colleges (297) returned completed student questionnaires and most (245) returned completed school/college questionnaires (those completed by headteachers, deputy headteachers or citizenship coordinators). However, less than 30 per cent of schools/colleges (84) sent back completed teacher questionnaires (a total of 884 teacher questionnaires and 166 college tutor questionnaires were received from across the 84 schools/colleges). Overall, 23 per cent of participating institutions returned at least one of all three types of questionnaires.

The low number of schools returning teacher questionnaires is perhaps understandable given that schools were not officially required to be delivering citizenship education at the time of the survey and senior managers may have felt that there were no appropriate members of staff in post at the time. It may also be due to time and work pressures facing teachers; the summer term is a notoriously busy time with the build up to external and internal examinations, exacerbated last academic year by the changes brought by the new A2 examination system at post-16. This low return needs to be taken into account when interpreting the findings from the cross-sectional survey relating to teachers and tutors.

Table 3.2 below shows the number of schools and colleges returning each type of questionnaire and in what combination.

Table 3.2 Combination of completed questionnaires returned

<i>Type of questionnaires</i>	Frequency (number of schools/colleges)	Percentage
All three	68	23
Student and Teacher only	13	4
Student and school/college only	176	58
Teacher only	3	1
School/college only	1	<1
Student only	41	14
Total	302	100

3.2.3 The school and college questionnaires

Schools and colleges have a key role to play in preparing young people for civic participation and engagement. Therefore a primary focus of the first cross-sectional survey was on the background to such institutions and their

approach to citizenship education. Accordingly a school or college questionnaire was sent to all participating institutions. In each school, the questionnaire was completed by either the headteacher, a deputy or the citizenship coordinator, whereas in colleges it was completed by either the principal, a deputy or another senior manager. Respondents were asked to provide background information about themselves, the characteristics of the school or college, current citizenship education provision, and views on the formal introduction of citizenship and its potential impact.

A total of 199 school questionnaires were returned;⁹ the majority were completed by deputy headteachers (34 per cent) or citizenship coordinators (32 per cent). Headteachers (19 per cent), assistant heads (19 per cent), subject heads (13 per cent) and heads of year (6 per cent) also completed questionnaires.¹⁰ An equal proportion of males and females completed the school questionnaires. On average, respondents who completed the school questionnaire had been in teaching for 22 years and in their current posts for seven years. The college questionnaire was completed by 46 respondents, the majority of whom were senior managers. As with the school questionnaire, the college questionnaires were completed by an equal proportion of males and females. On average, respondents who completed the college questionnaire had been involved in teaching for 21 years and in their current posts for five years.

Those responding to the school and college questionnaires were asked about the attitudes of students and parents regarding school and educational achievement. The findings were very positive. Those responding to both school and college questionnaires felt that students had positive attitudes towards both school or college and educational achievement. Parents were also thought to be supportive in terms of students' educational achievement. The majority of respondents believed that students had respect for school or college property, although a minority thought students had negative attitudes (38 schools and five colleges).

These and other issues included in the school and college questionnaire are discussed throughout this report.

3.3 Background of Teachers and College Tutors

A questionnaire for teachers and college tutors was included in the cross-sectional survey, given the influence they can have on the development of young people's citizenship dimensions (knowledge, skills, understanding, concepts, attitudes and behaviours). In each participating institution, up to five teachers who taught citizenship education or related subjects were asked to complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire for college tutors was slightly less detailed than that sent to teachers. Given the statutory requirement from September 2002 for citizenship education to be taught in schools, it was

⁹ A total of 262 school questionnaires were sent out.

¹⁰ Some respondents had more than one role, thus percentages do not sum to 100.

important to ask teachers about their involvement in planning and delivering citizenship, as well as their concerns. Though the NFER team recognised that the introduction of citizenship did not impact directly on colleges, it was felt important not to ignore what happens once students leave compulsory education. Questionnaires were therefore also sent to college tutors to ask about their involvement in citizenship education and their views on its introduction in the pre-16 curriculum. The responses from teachers and college tutors are important in helping to understand approaches to citizenship and how these relate to student outcomes, such as the acquisition of civic and political knowledge and understanding and the development of citizenship skills, attitudes and intended behaviour.

A total of 884 teachers and 166 college tutors responded to the first cross-sectional survey.¹¹ A slightly greater proportion of females than males responded in both schools and colleges.

3.3.1 Subject background

Respondents were asked to list the *main* subjects they taught at the time of data collection. Just under a third (32 per cent) of the teachers in schools said their main subject was PSHE (personal, social and health education), 21 per cent said RE/RS (religious education/religious studies) and 18 per cent taught history as their main subject. A smaller proportion of teachers represented in the survey taught geography (12 per cent), English (11 per cent) and subjects such as science, health and social care and business studies. Given teachers' subject backgrounds, they were most often involved in teaching citizenship-related modules and topics within PSHE, although it was also taught more generally in other subjects such as RE/RS, history, geography and English. Almost a quarter (23 per cent) said they were involved in delivering citizenship within extra-curricular activities, including assemblies, specific theme days, residential experiences and sports events. A fifth (19 per cent) of teachers said they taught citizenship in tutorials. However, only nine per cent (77 teachers) said they taught citizenship in a dedicated slot on the timetable.

Those responding to the college questionnaires came from a wide range of subject backgrounds, most often sociology, history, English and business studies. A total of 81 per cent of college tutors (134 tutors) reported that they taught '*anything that could be broadly classified as citizenship*'. Of those, 41 per cent (55 tutors) were involved in delivering citizenship-related topics within tutorials. More than a quarter (27 percent/36 tutors) taught citizenship within PSHE and a fifth (19 per cent/26 tutors) taught citizenship-related topics in sociology. Other subjects in which citizenship was taught included law, general studies, government and politics, history, English, and geography. Only seven college tutors reported that they taught citizenship as a dedicated slot on the timetable.

¹¹ A total of 1310 teacher questionnaires and 280 tutor questionnaires were sent out.

3.4 Background of the Students

3.4.1 Student Variables

The cross-sectional survey was completed by a total of 6909 students:¹² 2489 in Year 8, 2282 in Year 10 and 2138 in Year 12 or post-16.¹³ An almost equal proportion of boys (48 per cent) and girls (51 per cent) participated in the study with similar proportions evident in each of the three Year groups surveyed. The majority of students classified themselves as White UK (81 per cent). A minority of students (just over 1000) classified themselves as belonging to other ethnic groups (four per cent Asian or British Asian, three per cent White European, two per cent Black or Black British, two per cent mixed ethnic origin and one per cent Chinese). One per cent said they were from other ethnic groups and three per cent preferred not to offer information on their ethnic backgrounds. These groupings broadly reflected the national figures.¹⁴ Again, similar classifications were evident for Years 8, 10 and post-16.

As discussed in Chapter 1, previous studies relating to citizenship education have shown that students' social background and socio-economic status can have an impact on their development of civic knowledge. Students from less affluent homes and less educated families often gain lower scores on tests of civic knowledge than those from more affluent and educated families. The IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002;), The number of books in the home (hereafter referred to as 'home literacy resources') has been used as a successful predictor of affluence (or socio-economic status) and of the emphasis and value that families place on education (see for example Beaton *et al.*, 1996). In addition, studies have shown that a relationship exists between access to home literacy resources and students' civic knowledge (Torney *et al.*, 1975; Kerr *et al.*, 2002): the more books in the home, the higher the student's civic knowledge score. Therefore, a question on the number of books in the home was included in the first cross-sectional survey. Table 3.3 shows the results for all students.

Overall, nearly all students had books in the home. More than half (53 per cent) estimated that there were more than 100 books in their homes, with a third (33 per cent) suggesting that they had more than 200 books. Almost two-fifths (38 per cent) estimated having between 11 and 100 books at home, and only six per cent reported having 'very few' (between one and ten books). One per cent (100 students) reported that they did not have any books in the home. Similar findings were evident for all of the Year groups represented in the survey.

¹² A total of 8494 questionnaires were sent out, 2871 for Year 8 students, 2886 for Year 10 students, 2737 for Year 12 students.

¹³ Half of the post-16 students were surveyed in schools with sixth forms, and the other half were surveyed in colleges of further education, sixth form colleges or tertiary colleges.

¹⁴ The response rate of ethnic groups is broadly representative when compared to the national figures (DfEE, 1999).

Table 3.3 Home literacy resources

<i>About how many books are there in your home?</i>	%
None (0 books)	1
Very few (1-10 books)	6
Enough to fill one shelf (11-50 books)	16
Enough to fill one bookcase (51-100 books)	22
Enough to fill two bookcases (101-200 books)	20
Enough to fill three or more bookcases (more than 200 books)	33
No response	1
N = 6909	

A single response item

Due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100

6870 respondents answered this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross-sectional survey 2002

Students were also asked in the survey to say whether they lived in rented property or whether their home was owned by someone they lived with – another potential indicator of social background and socio-economic status. Overall, the majority of students (81 per cent) responded that their homes were owned by their parents or someone they lived with, with a minority (11 per cent) saying that they lived in rented property. Five per cent did not know whether their homes were owned or rented, and four per cent preferred not to say, perhaps suggesting that they considered the information sensitive. Relationships between student background factors and levels of civic knowledge are explored in Chapter 7.

Students were asked to report the length of time they had been living in their current home. This is used as a potential indicator of students' sense of belonging to a community. Overall, two-thirds (66 per cent) had lived in their current home for more than five years, just over a quarter (26 per cent) had lived there between one and five years, and only five per cent had lived there for less than a year. Any relationships that existed between students' sense of belonging and attachment and their participation are explored in Chapter 9.

3.4.2 Education Variables

Previous studies of citizenship education (including Torney *et al.*, 1975 and Kerr *et al.*, 2002) suggest that students from well-educated families appear to be given more opportunities to develop civic-related knowledge than students from less educated families. Students were therefore asked in the first cross-sectional survey to report on the level their mother and father reached in the education system. Responses ranged from 'left full time education at 16 or earlier' to 'got a degree or similar qualification'.

It should be noted that a quarter of all students did not know how far their mother (25 per cent) or father (27 per cent) went in education. Regarding their mother's education, more than a quarter (29 per cent) reported that their

mother left full-time education at 16 or earlier. Just under a quarter (21 per cent) said that their mother left education after college or sixth form, and the same proportion reported that their mother had a degree or similar. Two per cent indicated that their mother had started university but not finished. A similar proportion of fathers as mothers had left full time education at 16 or earlier (30 per cent). Just under a quarter (24 per cent) of students reported that their fathers had a degree of similar, with only 14 per cent suggesting their fathers left education after college and sixth form. Three per cent indicated that their fathers started university but did not finish. Relationships between parental education and students' civic knowledge are discussed in Section 7.2.4.

Research (see for example, Parry *et al.*, 1992) has shown that the better-educated people are, the more likely they are to take an interest in civic and political life and have access to information of a political nature. Well-educated people have been found to have more of a sense of political efficacy (the feeling that what they do will make a difference) and are more likely to support a particular political party (partisanship). Evidence also suggests that there are relationships between education and civic participation and education and civic knowledge. It was therefore important to gather information in the first cross-sectional survey on students' educational plans in order to explore connections between these and students' expected/potential participation.

Students in Years 8 and 10, still receiving compulsory education, were asked when they thought they might leave full-time education. Fourteen per cent of all students in Year 8 and 10 thought they would leave full-time education at the end of Year 11, after taking their GCSEs. Only five per cent thought they would leave one year after their GCSEs at age 17, with 12 per cent suggesting they would stay in full-time education until age 18 (two years after GCSEs). Almost half (47 per cent) of all students in Years 8 and 10 thought they would remain in full-time education until their early 20s, after taking a university course or similar in higher education. Just more than a fifth (22 per cent) of students were unsure of when they would leave full-time education.

As might be expected, and in part due to the fact that they had already made future-oriented choices such as choosing GCSE and A level options, older students were more sure of when they would leave full-time education. For example, only 17 per cent of students in Year 10 were unsure compared with 28 per cent of students in Year 8. Moreover, of all Year 12 students, who had finished compulsory education, the majority (62 per cent) wanted to go on to university when they finished their current courses, and 16 per cent wanted to take a further course at school or college. Only 12 per cent wanted to finish education and get a paid job. Those remaining wanted to do other things, such as travelling or taking a year out before deciding what to do in the future.

3.4.3 Social activity variables

The amount of time students spend outside the house has been found to be a predictor of risky or anti-social behaviour (Currie *et al.*, 2000). This variable has also been shown, in recent citizenship education research, to have a

relationship with students' civic knowledge. Torney-Purta *et al.*, (2001; see also Kerr *et al.*, 2002) found that the amount of time students spend outside the house in the evening had an impact on their civic knowledge. Students who reported spending most evenings outside the home with their friends had lower civic knowledge scores. Accordingly, students were asked in the first cross-sectional survey about their social activities. Table 3.4 below illustrates that the majority of students (65 per cent) spent time with their friends in the evenings on school days at least several days a week (almost a quarter said they did this every night). Only 12 per cent said they never or hardly ever went out with friends on school nights.

Table 3.4. Time spent socialising with friends

<i>How often do you go out with your friends in the evening, on school/college days?</i>	<i>%</i>
Almost every evening (4 or more evenings a week)	24
A few times each week (1 to 3 evenings a week)	41
A few times each month	22
Never or hardly ever	12
No response	1
N = 6909	

A single response item

Due to rounding percentages may not sum to 100

6863 respondents answered this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross-sectional survey 2002

Post-16 students were the least likely of all three Year groups to go out every night, and were more likely to go out only a few nights a week. A discussion of the relationship between students' social activities and their civic knowledge scores is presented in section 7.2.6.

Students were also asked how much time they spend watching television, DVDs or videos before or after school on a normal school day. This question was asked because previous research shows a relationship between civic knowledge, political activity and exposure to television news (see Putnam, 1996; Norris, 1996 and Hahn, 1998). There is a strong suggestion that students who spend time watching television news have higher civic knowledge scores (Torney-Purta, 2001).

As shown on Table 3.5 below, a third (33 per cent) estimated that they spent between three and five hours on a school day watching television, DVDs or videos, while just over a tenth (11 per cent) spent more than five hours doing so. More than half (54 per cent) spent up to two hours on school days watching television, DVDs or videos; 40 per cent spent between one and two hours and only 14 per cent spent less than one hour a day. Only two per cent said they spent no time on these activities on school days. The findings were similar for each of the three Year groups represented in the cross-sectional survey.

Table 3.5. Time spent watching television

<i>On a normal school/college day, approximately how much time do you spend watching television, DVDs or videos before or after school?</i>	%
No time	2
Less than 1 hour	14
1-2 hours	40
3-5 hours	33
More than 5 hours	11
No response	1
N = 6909	

A single response item

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not sum to 100

6879 respondents answered this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross-sectional survey 2002

3.5 Summary

Background to the schools/colleges

A total of 302 schools/colleges responded to the first cross-sectional survey. A good regional spread of institutions were represented in the survey. The majority of institutions were comprehensive schools with students aged up to either 16 or 18.

Background to the teachers/tutors

A total of 884 teachers in schools and 166 tutors in colleges responded to the survey; slightly more females than males were represented. Teachers/tutors came from a variety of subject backgrounds. In schools, teachers most often taught citizenship within PSHE, whereas in colleges most participating tutors taught citizenship-related topics in tutorials.

Background to the students

A total of 6906 students in Years 8, 10 and 12 (post – 16 in schools and colleges) responded to the survey. There was an equal proportion of boys and girls represented. The majority of respondents classified themselves as White UK in terms of ethnicity.

A number of student variables appear to influence students' development of civic knowledge and participation in civic-related activities. These include home literacy resources, housing tenure, parents' level of education, students' own education plans, and the amount of time spent watching television or socialising with friends. The relationship between these variables and students' civic knowledge and levels of participation are discussed throughout this report.

4. SCHOOL AND TEACHER APPROACHES TO CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

The main purpose of the first cross-sectional survey is to establish a baseline measure of the characteristics of schools prior to September 2002, so that future surveys in the Longitudinal Study can measure the impact of the implementation of the statutory requirement for citizenship education from this date. This chapter investigates the differing school contexts into which citizenship education will be introduced. The final report of the Advisory group on Citizenship, the Crick Report (Crick, 1998, p. 36) states that '*The ethos, organisation, structures and daily practices of schools have a considerable impact on the effectiveness of citizenship education*'. In recognising this fact, this chapter therefore examines the ways in which schools were already approaching citizenship education, in the term prior to the formal introduction of the new subject. The examination extends from school ethos and active citizenship activities across the school, to teaching and learning approaches used in citizenship-related subjects. The main focus is the views of school leaders and teachers. However, there is some overlap of the attitudes of students to their citizenship experiences in school, which are explored in greater detail in Chapter 9.

4.1 School ethos

Through such climate and practice schools provide implicit and explicit messages which can have a considerable influence, both positive or negative, on pupils' learning and development. (Crick, 1998, p. 36)

As already reported in Chapter 3 nearly all school leaders indicated, perhaps unsurprisingly, that the ethos and values of their school were generally positive. Ninety-eight per cent of school leaders agreed or strongly agreed that there were good relationships within the school between staff and the students, as did 96 per cent of teachers. Ninety-eight per cent reported that students had a positive or very positive attitude towards school and 95 percent reported students had a similar attitude towards academic achievement. Furthermore, the majority of school leaders felt that the parental support for student achievement at their school was positive or very positive. The proportion of school leaders that felt that student respect for school property was positive or very positive was only slightly lower at 80 percent.

These figures were reflected in the post-16 college survey. All college leaders and 99 per cent of college tutors surveyed agreed or strongly agreed that there were positive relationships between staff and students. All 46 college leaders also indicated that student attitudes towards academic achievement and the

college were positive or very positive. Forty-two respondents felt that parental support for student achievement was positive or very positive (91 per cent), whilst a slightly lower proportion of college leaders (87 per cent) felt this way about student respect for college property.

4.2 Active Citizenship in Schools

The Crick Report emphasises the role that schools should play in promoting active citizenship, through ‘*learning through action*’ (Crick, 1998, p. 36) within the local community, the school as a whole and in the classroom.

4.2.1 Opportunities for community involvement

Often the schools and its local community provide a perfect context for pupils to examine issues and events and to become involved in active, participatory activities and experiences. (Crick, 1998, p. 37)

Almost all school and college leaders agreed or strongly agreed that there were good relations between their school and college and the wider community (96 per cent of school and college leaders). A slightly lower proportion of teachers and college tutors agreed or strongly agreed with this point – 86 per cent of teachers and 78 per cent of college tutors. Nearly three-quarters of school leaders agreed or strongly agreed that students in their school were taught to contribute to solving problems in the community (74 per cent), whilst a similar proportion of college leaders felt this way (67 per cent). In schools, most of the school leaders indicated that there were opportunities for students to participate in voluntary activities in the local community available through school (80 per cent). All school leaders also reported that in their schools, students were able to raise money for good causes. These findings were mirrored in colleges. Forty college leaders (87 per cent) revealed that there were opportunities to take part in voluntary activities in the local community available through the college, whilst all college leaders indicated that students were able to raise money for good causes, through college.

4.2.2 Opportunities for participation in school

The IEA International Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002, p. 162) found that:

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 addition, the Crick Report (1998, p. 36) states that: ‘*schools should make every effort to engage pupils in discussion and consultation about all aspects of school life*’.

In the schools surveyed, there were marked differences in perceptions about the extent of opportunities for participation. While school leaders were very positive about democratic practices in their schools, the teachers and students were much less positive about such practices. Over three-quarters of school leaders (80 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed that the whole school was involved in discussions and decision making. This figure was similarly high in colleges – 85 per cent of college leaders agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Teachers and college tutors, on the other hand, were considerably less positive about whole school involvement in discussions and decision making. Only 57 per cent of teachers and 38 per cent of college tutors agreed or strongly agreed with this point. It may be that these lower figures reflect teachers' and tutors' sense of personal empowerment and involvement in school or college decision making, rather than the extent to which the students are involved in the process. Indeed, 84 per cent of school leaders agreed or strongly agreed that students in their school were taught to contribute to the decision making process in the school. There is, however, a very marked disparity between the views of school leaders and students concerning decision-making in schools: only just over one-quarter of students surveyed (27 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed that students were often consulted when school policies were developed. The views of students concerning participation in school are examined in greater detail in Chapter 9.

The Crick Report states that although school councils would not initially be a compulsory element of citizenship education they should be viewed in a positive light by OFSTED (The Office for Standards in Education) and by local education authorities (LEAs). The majority of school leaders (94 per cent) indicated that a school council was available to students in their school. Meanwhile, the student surveys revealed that just under two-thirds of students (64 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed that there were opportunities for students to be involved in running their school through student councils, with only one-third of students indicating that they had been involved in electing school council members. This suggests that students may not always take up the opportunities to participate available to them in school, an issue that is explored further in Chapter 9.

4.2.3 Opportunities for participation in extracurricular activities

Most school leaders and teachers agreed or strongly agreed that students in their school were encouraged to participate in extra-curricular activities (97 and 94 per cent respectively). This was reflected in the survey of college leaders – 43 college leaders agreed or strongly agreed that students in their college were encouraged to participate in extra-curricular activities (93 per cent). However, this figure was lower for the college tutors – 76 per cent.

School leaders indicated that there were indeed many extra curricular activities available for students to take part in, as is shown in Table 4.1.

There was a correlation between the responses of school leaders and the participation rates of students. The activities most commonly provided by schools were precisely those in which students most commonly participated, notably sports, raising money for a good cause and art, drama, dance and music groups. However, there was a marked difference between schools providing such activities and their actual take-up by students. Even the two most commonly provided activities – sports clubs/teams and raising money for a good cause – showed take-up by only around half of students.

Table 4.1 Extra curricular activities provided & participated in (pre-16)

<i>Activities</i>	Schools- activities provided	Year 8 students who participated in activity – when provided by school	Year 10 students who participated in activity – when provided by school
	%	%	%
Sports clubs/teams	100	53	41
Raising money for a good cause or charity	100	57	52
Art, drama, dancing or music clubs/groups	99	28	26
Computer clubs/groups	96	13	9
Schools councils	94	9	11
Voluntary activities in the local community	80	16	22
A school or student exchange programme to another country	79	4	7
Peer mentoring or counselling	69	4	7
Preparing a school newspaper/magazine	68	4	4
Religious groups or organisations	62	2	3
Mock elections	60	6	8
Environmental clubs/groups	50	3	2
Debating clubs/groups	44	3	2
Human rights groups or organisations	18	1	1
Political clubs/groups	10	1	1
Scouts/Guides	6	1	3
N =	199	2489	2282

Respondents could give more than one answer, so percentages will not sum to 100

A total of 199 school, 1753 Year 8 and 1422 Year 10 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross-sectional survey 2002

Indeed, the fairly low rate of student participation in the most popular activities in Year 8 had further decreased by Year 10; a decrease that may be partly explained by the increased work-load for Year 10 students. Meanwhile, the low participation rates in activities such as foreign exchange programmes and school newspapers, are not necessarily surprising as these activities may not have been available to all students. Student participation in civic-related activities and organisations, both in and out-of-school, is explored further in Chapter 9.

Most school leaders revealed that their schools were modelling democratic values and processes through school councils, although only a small proportion of students said that they had participated in school councils. A lower proportion of school leaders said that they offered mock elections, and less than 10 per cent of Year 8 and Year 10 students said that they had taken part in mock elections. Environmental clubs and groups were reported to be available at half of the schools involved in the survey, but less than five per cent of students reported being involved. Clubs and groups relating to other aspects of life outside school, such as politics and human rights were reported as available by fewer school leaders, with only one per cent of students reported that they participated in these activities. Forty-four per cent of school leaders indicated that debating clubs and groups were available, a very small proportion of students reported taking part in debating clubs.

The survey responses reveal a considerable gap between the opportunities for student participation provided by schools and their take-up by students. Indeed, there is some evidence that student participation rates may decrease as students progress through the school. The extent of, and reasons for, this discrepancy are areas that require further investigation as the Longitudinal Study progresses, particularly through the case study component.

4.2.4 Opportunities for participation in the classroom

‘Active citizenship’ as defined in the Crick Report encompasses both teaching and learning within the classroom as well as wider school activities and practices. In the schools surveyed nearly all school leaders (99 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed that students in their school were taught to work in groups with other students, whilst 45 college leaders felt this way (98 per cent). Similarly, the vast majority of teachers and college tutors (97 per cent respectively) agreed or strongly agreed with this point.

Table 4.2 below shows the teaching and learning approaches used by teachers (ST) and college tutors (CT) in teaching citizenship related subjects and areas.

Table 4.2 Teaching and learning approaches reported

<i>Students have the opportunity to...</i>	<i>Never</i>		<i>Rarely</i>		<i>Sometimes</i>		<i>Often</i>	
	ST	CT	ST	CT	ST	CT	ST	CT
Listen whilst the teacher/tutor talks	0	0	<1	0	26	23	73	75
Work in groups	<1	0	2	2	41	28	55	67
Work from textbooks and worksheets	1	2	5	5	40	34	53	57
Research and analyse information from different sources	3	2	14	5	51	35	30	56
Explore, discuss and debate issues with other students	1	0	5	19	40	25	52	72
Take notes	2	1	11	7	44	16	39	73
Give presentations	3	0	19	19	59	55	17	22
Watch television and/or videos	2	1	14	15	60	63	23	19
Record their own achievements/compile portfolios	10	15	31	18	39	37	17	25
Participate in role-play and drama	10	19	23	40	49	33	16	5
Use computers or the internet	8	5	26	13	50	50	14	29
N = 166 (CT) N = 884 (ST)								

A series of single response items

Due to rounding percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 876 teachers and 133 college tutors answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross-sectional survey 2002

CT = College tutors

ST = School teachers.

The IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002) found that teachers in England, and in other participating countries, mainly used teacher-centred approaches in their teaching of citizenship-related subjects and topics. This finding was confirmed by the responses of teachers and colleges in this first cross-sectional survey. Teachers and college tutors reported that the most common teacher and learning approaches for students were listening whilst the teacher/tutor talks, taking notes and working from textbooks and worksheets. While students often had opportunities to work in groups there were limited opportunities to participate in more active learning approaches such as role-play and drama.

College tutors indicated that they used active, participatory teaching methods such as group work, discussions, giving presentations and role-play more frequently than teachers. Approximately half of teachers indicated that students often had the opportunity to participate in group work and explore, discuss and debate issues with other students, whilst over two-thirds of college tutors reported these opportunities to be available often. However, college tutors also reported using less participatory teaching methods, such as passive listening, working from textbooks and taking notes, more frequently than teachers.

The preferred teaching and learning approaches of teachers to citizenship related topics, the reasons for such choices and the potential for training and professional development to change existing classroom practices, are areas that require further investigation in the conduct of the Longitudinal Study. Teaching and learning approaches will be an important area of focus in the school case study visits.

4.3 Approaches to citizenship education prior to September 2002

Over a third of school leaders surveyed felt that they were already delivering all or most of the requirements for citizenship education (35 per cent), whilst nearly two-thirds (64 per cent) felt that they were delivering some of the requirements. Almost two-thirds of school leaders (65 per cent) also indicated that they had an existing agreed strategy in their school for teaching citizenship. In contrast, only five college leaders (11 per cent) stated that they had an agreed teaching strategy for citizenship education.

4.3.1 Strategies for citizenship education

Table 4.3 reveals the different types of strategy schools were using to teach citizenship.

Table 4.3 Current approaches to citizenship education

<i>Strategies</i>	<i>%</i>
Citizenship related modules or topics taught in PSHE	90
Citizenship related topics taught more generally in other subjects	75
Citizenship related extra curricular activities and one off events	57
A dedicated citizenship slot on the timetable	15
N =129	

More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100

A total of 128 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

Citizenship education was most commonly taught, at the time of the survey in summer term 2002, through citizenship related topics in PSHE with the majority of school leaders (90 per cent) reported that they used this approach. Three-quarters of school leaders (75 per cent) indicated that they took a cross-curricular approach, with citizenship related topics taught more generally in other subjects. Over half of school leaders (57 per cent) stated that citizenship was taught through extra curricular activities and in one off events. Less than one-fifth of school leaders (15 per cent) reported that they had a dedicated citizenship slot on the timetable, with less than one-tenth of teachers (9 per cent) and college tutors (5 per cent) indicating that they taught citizenship education in this way.

The amount of time schools allocated for teaching citizenship education where they had set aside a timetable slot at key stages 3 and 4, is revealed in Table 4.4:

Table 4.4 Amount of time allocated to citizenship education in a dedicated timetable slot

<i>Minutes</i>	Key Stage 3 %	Key Stage 4 %
Less than 45	26	21
45-75	42	53
More than 75	5	5
No response	26	21
N =	19	19

Due to rounding percentages do not sum to 100

A total of 18 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

Schools most commonly allocated citizenship education between 45 and 75 minutes of curriculum time. However, just over a quarter of schools (26 per cent) at key stage 3 and just under a quarter (21 per cent) at key stage 4 allocated citizenship education a dedicated time-slot of less than 45 minutes.

Of those school leaders that indicated that they did not have an agreed teaching strategy for citizenship education over three-quarters (79 per cent) revealed that the school had not been delivering citizenship education as it was not yet part of the National Curriculum, whilst just under half (45 per cent) stated this was because there was no room on the timetable. A further one-third (30 per cent) indicated that there was a lack of expertise and suitable teaching staff, whilst under one-fifth (15 per cent) revealed that there was a lack of specialist books or other resources.

The teacher and college tutors who responded to the first cross-sectional survey said that they taught citizenship-related modules or topics in PSHE (56 and 27 per cent). Table 4.5 reveals the proportion of teachers and college tutors who indicated that they taught citizenship related topics within other subjects:

Table 4.5 Subjects in which teachers indicated that they taught citizenship-related topics

<i>Subjects</i>	Teachers	College tutors
	%	%
Extra-curricular activities	23	12
Religious Education/Religious Studies	22	5
English	20	10
Tutorials	19	41
History	16	11
Geography	11	8
Business studies/Economics	4	6
Sociology	-	19
Other	20	39
N=	884	134

More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100

A total of 849 teachers and 131 college tutors answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

4.3.2 Teaching citizenship related topics

Table 4.6 reveals the different sources that teachers and college tutors used to help plan their teaching of citizenship-related topics and lessons.

Table 4.6 Sources used to plan citizenship-related topics and lessons

	Teachers %		College Tutors %	
	Sometimes	Often	Sometimes	Often
Your own ideas/self produced material	38	50	37	56
Media	53	39	34	58
Original sources	42	23	40	34
Textbooks	42	25	38	41
Materials (other than textbooks published by commercial companies, public institutions or private foundations)	47	16	34	28
Official curricular guidelines or frameworks	33	17	18	19
National standards for citizenship education	25	11	10	5
N=	884		134	

More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100

All those who indicated that they taught citizenship-related subjects

A total of 849 teachers and 131 college tutors answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

Both teachers and college tutors were largely reliant on their own ideas and self produced material in planning citizenship related topics and lessons, although the media were also frequently used. Official curricular guidelines and national standards for citizenship education were used less frequently than other sources.

Over half of teachers and college tutors who responded (59 and 51 per cent respectively) said that they had used individuals and groups from the local community in school when teaching citizenship related topics. Table 4.7 reveals the people most commonly used.

Table 4.7 External people involved in teaching citizenship education

<i>People</i>	Indicated by teachers	Indicated by college tutors
	%	%
Police	65	27
Voluntary groups/charities	62	49
Local businessmen/women	31	19
Local politicians/councillors	24	37
Parents	23	9
Lawyer/judges	15	24
National politicians	7	22
Journalists	5	10
Others	26	29
N =	517	68

More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100

All those who indicated that external people had been involved in teaching citizenship related module

A total of 511 teachers and 68 college tutors answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

4.3.3 Assessing students in citizenship education

The Crick Report (1998, p. 39) states that: ‘*day-to-day assessment will take a number of forms, including observation, listening and appraising pupils written work*’. However, less than one-fifth of teachers (17 per cent) and college tutors (18 per cent) said that they attempted to assess students specifically in relation to their progress in citizenship related studies. However, the teachers who responded that they did attempt to assess students reflected the sentiments in the Crick Report. Table 4.8 reveals the sources used by teachers to assess students in citizenship education. The most common sources of assessment were responses from students in class, observation of students, written tasks and essays and group tasks.

It will be interesting to use the data from the first cross-sectional survey to monitor the extent of the changes in the ways that schools approach statutory

citizenship in terms of curriculum strategies, use of staff, amount of curriculum time provided, sources of support and external visitors used and assessment procedures.

Table 4.8 Sources used to assess students for citizenship-related topics

Assessment	Teachers %	College tutors %
Responses from students in class	78	79
Observation of students	69	75
Written tasks and essays	55	66
Group tasks	54	71
Students self-assess their own progress	33	42
Portfolio of evidence	27	38
Tests	19	50
Peer assessment	18	17
Other form of assessment	8	33
N=	144	24

More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100

A total of 143 teachers and 24 college tutors answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

4.4 Summary

School ethos

Those responding to the school and college leaders questionnaires were very positive about parental support for student achievement and students' attitudes to school, academic achievement and school property. The vast majority also felt that there were good relationships between staff and students in their schools.

Active Citizenship in schools

The majority of school and college leaders felt that there were good relationships between their school and the wider community. Most felt their school or college provided opportunities for involvement in the community and that students were encouraged to take up these opportunities.

School and college leaders were generally satisfied that the whole school was involved in discussion and decision making. However, fewer teachers felt this way and less than a third of students felt they were consulted when developing school policies.

School councils were reported as widely available by both school leaders and students, however only one-third of students reported participating in school council elections.

Although school leaders widely reported that extra curricular activities were available to their students, a fairly small proportion of students took part. Citizenship-related activities such as mock-elections, environmental, political, human rights and debating clubs had a particularly low up-take. Student take-up rates showed signs of a decrease as students progressed through the school.

Teachers and college tutors reported that teacher-led approaches to citizenship-related topics were predominant in the classroom, with more participatory, active approaches less commonly used.

Approaches to citizenship education prior to September 2002

Most school leaders indicated that agreed strategies for teaching citizenship education were in place and felt they were already delivering some of the requirements for citizenship education.

Citizenship education was most commonly taught through citizenship-related modules in PSHE. Other subjects in which citizenship-related topics were taught, included religious studies, English, History, Geography. It was also taught in extra-curricular activities and tutorials.

In planning citizenship-related topics, teachers and tutors most commonly used their own ideas and the media. Police and voluntary groups and charities were most frequently reported as being involved in citizenship-related lessons. The majority of teachers and college tutors did not attempt to assess students' progress in citizenship education.

5. TEACHER AND SCHOOL PREPAREDNESS AND PLANNING FOR STATUTORY CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

This chapter sets out to explore further the variety of school contexts, as described in Chapter 5, into which statutory citizenship education will be introduced. The chapter is divided into two parts. The aim in the first part is to establish baseline data on the levels of existing knowledge and expertise that school teachers and college tutors possessed prior to the implementation of the statutory requirements of the National Curriculum Order for Citizenship. This is followed in the second part by an exploration of school and college level preparedness and planning for the implementation of citizenship education in September 2002. Taken together the two parts of the chapter provide a fascinating snapshot of the levels of teacher and school readiness for the introduction of statutory citizenship education

5.1 Teacher Background Knowledge and Preparedness

5.1.1 Teachers' Familiarity with the Citizenship Curriculum

While almost three quarters of the school teachers (74 per cent) surveyed stated that they understood the aims and purposes of citizenship education, almost two-fifths (38 per cent) remained unclear about types of issues that were to be covered by the citizenship curriculum, and around half (48 per cent) were unclear about the requirements of the National Curriculum Order for Citizenship. Around half of the teachers sampled stated that they had seen and/or were familiar with the main citizenship documents such as the National Curriculum Order for Citizenship and QCA key stage 3 and 4 schemes of work for Citizenship. However, the reverse of this is that around half of the teachers surveyed had not yet seen these documents. Interestingly, the majority of teachers surveyed (72 per cent) had not yet seen the Crick Report from which the new citizenship curriculum has been developed, and less than one-tenth (8 per cent) expressed any familiarity with the report. Moreover, over four-fifths of the teachers (89 per cent) in the sample had not yet used the DfES website to view Citizenship curriculum information.

The findings from the first cross-sectional survey reveal a dichotomy in teacher familiarity with citizenship. While, on the one hand, the majority of teachers express familiarity with the aims and purposes of citizenship education, on the other, they claim to have not seen or be familiar with the official reports and curriculum documents upon which the new citizenship curriculum is based. This raises the question of the grounds on which teachers base their judgement of their familiarity with citizenship. If it is not founded on existing reports and curriculum documents what is its basis?

Table 5.1 Teacher confidence in teaching citizenship topics

<i>Please rate how confident you feel/would feel about teaching the following topics</i>	% Not confident		% Confident		% Very confident		% No response	
	ST	CT	ST	CT	ST	CT	ST	CT
Human rights	25	14	54	46	20	18	1	22
Laws and responsibilities	33	30	50	31	15	17	2	22
Crime and punishment	25	27	51	27	22	25	2	22
Different cultures and ethnic groups	28	15	46	43	25	22	2	21
Parliament, government and the courts	45	26	38	31	15	22	2	21
Voting and elections	35	19	46	40	18	21	2	21
The economy and businesses	58	44	31	19	10	15	2	22
Consumer rights	41	36	46	31	11	11	2	22
Rights and responsibilities at work	35	26	48	36	15	16	2	22
Voluntary groups	34	25	50	40	15	13	2	22
Resolving conflict	27	24	50	38	22	17	1	22
The media	21	16	57	37	20	26	1	21
Global community and international organisations	44	33	39	27	15	19	2	21
The European Union	49	31	34	23	15	25	1	21
The environment	18	21	52	37	29	21	1	21
N = 166 (CT)								
N = 884 (ST)								

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

881 teachers and 131 college tutors answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

CT = College tutors

ST = School teachers.

Table 5.1 above outlines the particular topics included in the Citizenship Education Order that school teachers (ST) and college tutors (CT) stated that they would feel confident, or unconfident, to teach. In all but two topic areas (the economy and businesses and the European Union) over 50 per cent of teachers stated that they felt confident or very confident about teaching the topics which citizenship education will cover. However, college tutors felt far less certainty about teaching the topics in the citizenship curriculum.

The apparent lack of detailed knowledge of the new citizenship initiative, both in its national and local manifestations, as described above, may be explained by the fact that only just over two-fifths of responding schools (42 per cent) stated that they had sent members of staff to consultation conferences on the

National Curriculum for citizenship education. Meanwhile, almost two-thirds of teachers (61 per cent) stated that they had not been involved in planning school level implementation and organisation of citizenship education. Moreover, of this group, around two-thirds (64 per cent) stated that they had not been fully informed about their school's plans for the implementation of citizenship education.

5.1.2 Teachers' Training Requirements and Professional Development Opportunities

When asked what would help them to develop a better understanding of citizenship education, around three quarters of teachers favoured specific training on the issue. Interestingly, 71 per cent of school teachers stated that they had not received any training in relation to citizenship education; a situation which was also reported by college tutors.

For the quarter of teachers in the sample who stated that they had received training, the most useful training came from external sources, most particularly from the LEA. Other useful training was seen to be delivered through INSET and, informally, through staff meetings. Overwhelmingly, teachers called for additional training in preparation for delivering the Citizenship curriculum (80 per cent) and of this group, preference was shown for training on the subject matter of Citizenship and on suitable teaching methods for its delivery. College tutors were less receptive to the idea of Citizenship curriculum training, with 64 per cent stating that they needed additional training in this area.

5.1.3 Schools' Familiarity with the Citizenship Curriculum

As stated earlier, respondents to the school questionnaires largely came from the senior management team (heads, deputy or assistant head teachers and subject heads) or were Citizenship education coordinators. This group of staff appeared the most prepared for the advent of the Citizenship curriculum, with the majority of the school questionnaires stating that respondents were familiar with the National Curriculum Order for citizenship education (82 per cent) and the key stage 3 and 4 schemes of work for citizenship (70 per cent and 62 per cent respectively). However, familiarity with the Crick Report, the Advisory Group report on Citizenship for 16-19 year olds and citizenship education information available on the DfES web-site was less common.

5.1.4 The View from the Colleges

In FE colleges tutors were equally, if not more, uncertain about the content of, and background to, the new Citizenship curriculum; a factor which most probably results from the current focus on implementing a pre-16 citizenship curriculum. In total only 10 per cent of colleges, tutors stated that they were familiar with the National Curriculum Order for citizenship education (pre-16), with slightly more stating that they were familiar with the Crick Report (13 per cent), while 90 per cent of college tutors stated that they had not accessed the DfES website to view Citizenship curriculum information.

As would be expected the colleges surveyed appeared to have less background knowledge of, and to be less prepared for, the new citizenship curriculum. Overall, senior members of staff in post-16 colleges were more likely not to have seen, or to be unfamiliar with the following documents and information sources, than to have a knowledge and familiarity with them: the National Curriculum Order for citizenship education; the Crick Report and citizenship education information on the DfES website. Unfamiliarity with the Advisory Group report on Citizenship for 16-19 year olds was also more common than not. Thirty-three members of senior management staff responding on behalf of their colleges stated that they had either not seen this document, or were unfamiliar with its contents.

5.2 Planning and Preparing for Citizenship Education

5.2.1 Preparations and plans for delivery

In preparation for the implementation of citizenship education schools had most commonly carried out an audit of current activities (75 per cent) and had discussed plans with their governing body (60 per cent). Less schools had consulted students (29 per cent), parents (12 per cent) and community groups (15 per cent). More surprising was the low number of schools who had consulted their own staff (eight per cent) and their feeder primary schools (13 per cent) who have been following the, albeit non-statutory, key stages 1 and 2 Citizenship scheme of work since September 2000. School leaders indicated that, at the time of the survey, a slight majority of schools were still in the process of planning how the Citizenship curriculum would be implemented from September 2002 (56 per cent) while a further 46 per cent had a clear plan for citizenship education.

The Crick Report (1998, pp. 22-23) states that schools should ‘*consider combining elements of citizenship education with other subjects... [to] encourage flexibility in schools, so long as the statutory requirement to deliver citizenship education as an entitlement for all pupils is met*’. In line with this recommendation, the majority of schools indicated that they planned to use existing expertise to deliver the curriculum, with 76 per cent indicating that subject teachers in areas such as PSHE and RE would take on key roles. However, delivery was additionally planned in tutorial periods in over half of the sample, with 48 per cent also stating that all staff would have some responsibility in this area. The use of existing staff expertise was further reflected in the fact that the vast majority of schools had neither recruited (87 per cent) nor aimed to recruit (84 per cent) new staff to deliver citizenship education.

School leaders stated that the citizenship curriculum would be delivered through selected subject areas and through PSHE. In addition, 21 per cent of schools envisaged dedicated time slots being used for citizenship related teaching. Extra-curricular activities and assemblies were also deemed central to the delivery of citizenship education. Generally speaking, the proposed delivery routes were those that teacher’s felt would be the most effective. Sixty-two per cent of teachers believed that the most effective way to deliver

Citizenship education would be through PSHE, while 46 per cent believed that it would be through subjects such as RE and history. Teachers were also supportive of teaching Citizenship as a discrete subject area (27 per cent) and as an extra curricular activity (44 per cent).

5.2.2 Potential challenges to delivery

While the potential benefits of Citizenship education were certainly recognised and reported, respondents were also keen to stress some of the key challenges that they foresaw for the successful delivery of citizenship education in their schools. Teachers highlighted a lack of curriculum time, a lack of training, uncertainty about teaching resources and assessment strategies and difficulties in engaging and maintaining students' interest as potentially challenging.

The challenges highlighted by teachers were also reflected in school leaders responses. Eighty per cent of schools had concerns over the implementation of citizenship education. Of those that stated that they had concerns, these were most likely to relate to the assessment of students (76 per cent), the training of staff (73 per cent) and a lack of curriculum time (73 per cent).

5.2.3 Coordination and curriculum development

While three quarters of all schools in the sample had already appointed a coordinator for citizenship education, only four per cent of such coordinators were external appointments. Individuals chosen to undertake co-ordination roles had been chosen for the following reasons: due to their previous experience of teaching citizenship education (28 per cent); due to their previous experience of teaching other relevant subjects (67 per cent); and due to their knowledge of the requirements of citizenship education (66 per cent). However, 25 per cent of schools also stated that they had selected their coordinator due to the fact that they volunteered for the post; perhaps reflecting the fact that senior management staff in schools are increasingly reluctant to ask often already overworked staff to undertake additional duties. Despite this, less than ten per cent of schools felt that their choice of coordinator was restricted to the only person suitable or the only person available.

Seventy-eight per cent of school responses stated that responsibility for developing the curriculum for citizenship would lie with citizenship education coordinators, with 45 per cent stating that some responsibility would remain with the senior management team of the school and/or would lie with the teachers delivering citizenship education. Other individuals or groups highlighted were heads of year (33 per cent), PSHE coordinators (six per cent) and staff working groups (two per cent).

5.2.4 Assessment strategies and target setting

The Crick Report (1998, p. 28) states the belief that '*assessment and reporting of pupils' progression, as in existing National Curriculum subjects, [is]*

inappropriate for citizenship'. However, rather than being a 'soft option', the report goes on to state that assessment in citizenship should be structured by '*tightly defined learning outcomes*' (Crick, 1998, p. 29) in order that progress and progression in citizenship learning can be monitored and reported.

While few schools had definite policies for recognising achievement over three quarters planned to develop this. Of the schools that had developed definite policies in this area, the most common assessment strategies were the use of written tasks and essays, of student portfolios, of observation and of students' self assessment. While around a quarter of the schools sampled used their own certificates and/or community service awards to recognise achievement in citizenship, only 12 per cent stated that they definitely planned to use the GCSE short course in citizenship studies, with 38 per cent remaining undecided, and 49 per cent stating that they would not.

Despite the potential challenges to the implementation of Citizenship education highlighted above, and the fact that many schools were merely at the planning stages of implementation at the time of data collection, schools were generally positive about the future. Indeed, 89 per cent of the sample stated that they were confident that they would be able to meet the requirements for citizenship education from September 2002.

5.2.5 The view from the colleges

The Crick Report (1998, p. 28) states that '*Since post-16 education has not fallen within our remit, we have not made detailed recommendations in this area*'. However, it goes on to recommend that provision should continue beyond the age of 16. This certainly appeared to be the case in our sample of schools where 37 per cent stated that provision for Citizenship education would continue post-16. Colleges, in the main, were less geared up for the teaching of citizenship. Only five of 46 post-16 colleges stated that they had a subject head for citizenship education, and directly taught citizenship-related topics (although no specific citizenship slot existed in their curricula). Citizenship was largely taught as part of PSHE, General Studies and other subjects and activities.

Of the five colleges that answered the question: *Have you agreed a policy for recognising achievement in citizenship education?* two stated that they had not yet agreed a policy but planned to do so, and two stated that they left the devising of such strategies to individual tutors. Two colleges also indicated that they planned to use awards and certificates that recognise achievement in citizenship in post-16 education.

5.3 Summary

Familiarity with the Citizenship Curriculum

While the majority of school teachers understood the aims and purposes of citizenship education, many were uncertain about the curriculum that would be introduced in September 2002. College leaders and tutors were more uncertain about the content of and background to the citizenship curriculum.

Any familiarity with the curriculum was largely found in responses to the school-level questionnaire (filled in by head teachers, deputy heads and citizenship coordinators).

Moving Forward

In order to develop a better understanding of citizenship education, teachers favoured greater training opportunities; the majority of school teachers and college tutors surveyed stated that they had not received any training in relation to citizenship education.

Delivery Plans

A variety of delivery plans were found amongst the sample schools. Three quarters of schools had appointed a coordinator for citizenship education. However, rather than teaching citizenship in dedicated timeslots, the majority of schools indicated that they planned to use existing expertise to deliver the curriculum through subject areas such as RE and PSHE, and through tutorial periods. Just under half of the sample stated that all staff would have some responsibility for delivering the curriculum

Some potential challenges to delivery were highlighted by respondents. These included:

- ◆ a lack of curriculum time
- ◆ a lack of training
- ◆ potential difficulties in engaging and maintaining students' interest
- ◆ uncertainties about the assessment of students.

Recognising Achievement

Few schools had definite policies for recognising achievement at the time of the survey. However, three quarters of the sample stated that they planned to develop this. Commonly used assessment strategies in those schools with assessment already underway included: written tasks and essays; student portfolios; observation and self-assessment.

The View from the Colleges

Colleges were less certain about delivery and assessment strategies. In general delivery was planned through subject areas such as PSHE and general studies, and very few plans for assessment were included in responses.

6. 'WHAT IS CITIZENSHIP?' – THE VIEWS OF YOUNG PEOPLE

The student questionnaire for the first cross-sectional survey asked students in Years 8, 10 and 12 at the end of the questionnaire to answer an open-ended question, namely '*What is citizenship?*'. This chapter sets out to gauge how students, the majority less than a term away from the start of their statutory entitlement to citizenship education, perceived this new subject area. The purpose of such an open-ended approach was to provide students with the opportunity to describe, in their own words, any understandings they currently held of the term citizenship. As would be expected, the responses of Year 12 students are more detailed and complex than those of the younger age groups.

A range of quotations are presented in the analysis below in order to provide an indication of the various ways in which students from each of the year groups conceptualised the term 'citizenship'. While reading this chapter, it should be borne in mind that the quotations are not representative of all responses to the question '*What is citizenship?*' and thus are used solely for illustrative purposes. However, they do point to the range of student conceptions of citizenship that schools and teachers will need to be aware of as they introduce statutory citizenship education to all students.

6.1 Conceptions of Citizenship

Given that 'citizenship' was not yet a statutory subject at the time of the first cross-sectional survey, it is probably unsurprising that 14 per cent of young people who participated stated that they did not know what the term 'citizenship' meant, while two per cent of the sample indicated that they did not care what citizenship meant. However, students were not entirely dismissive of the subject. Indeed, as the following quotation indicates, a willingness to learn existed:

'To me it doesn't mean anything!! But, later when I'm older, I will know' (Year 8 student).

Responses from students who felt able to provide a definition of citizenship have, for the purpose of this analysis, been grouped into four thematic categories:

- ◆ Community belonging and involvement.
- ◆ National, European and global identity.
- ◆ Political awareness and literacy.
- ◆ Social and moral responsibility.

Further details of the responses in each of these categories are outlined below.

6.2 Community Belonging and Involvement

‘Citizenship to me is not really on a national scale, it should start at home and in the community, giving help when asked and helping if you see they need it. Start small and work your way up the scale. Every little helps.’ (Year 12 student)

The Crick Report lists ‘learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of ...communities including learning through community involvement and service to the community’ (Crick, 1998, p. 40) as one of the three core strands at the heart of citizenship education. While four per cent of students simply stated ‘community’ in answer to the question ‘*What is Citizenship?*’, others were more explicit in identifying activities and meanings similar to those highlighted in the Crick Report. The following quotation is taken from a Year 8 student, who had a clear community-oriented approach to the definition of citizenship:

‘Citizenship means being part of a town or community. It means working together in times of trouble and supporting each other. It also means that people work together to help stop: Litter, crime, vandalism, and pollution.’

As can be seen from this quotation, when speaking of community belonging students often also referred to community involvement. Community involvement was defined in a number of ways from helping to improve the community, playing an individual role in the community, being proud of the community, to fighting for community rights:

‘Citizenship means being nice to people around you and taking care of the environment and community you live in’ (Year 8 student);

‘I think this is different people helping others in the community and for old people helping in different ways’ (Year 10 student);

‘[Citizenship means] ...Being an active part of a community to make your views heard while listening to other people so that a safe and fair environment can be provided for everyone. It involves putting something back into the community because if everyone does this, it helps it to run more smoothly’ (Year 12 student).

6.3 National, European and Global Citizenship

Some young people felt that the term citizenship should not merely define, or be defined in terms of, immediate localities and communities. A small number of students indicated that citizenship referred to a sense of belonging and commitment to the nation state:

'[Citizenship means]... *Be a good citizen of the United Kingdom.*'
(Year 10 student);

'[Citizenship]... *means being a citizen of the country. To me, it means being part of it*' (Year 10 student);

'*I think that citizenship is all about being British, and doing our best for our country*' (Year 10 student);

'[Citizenship] ...*Means that I am British and that my parents before me were as well*' (Year 12 student);

'[Citizenship means] ... *A formal membership of a country or unity of countries allowing you to claim the rights of a citizen and conform to the laws of that country*' (Year 12 student).

In total, three per cent of students indicated that the term citizenship implied the 'civil rights' conferred on citizens of a nation state. Examples of such definitions included '[getting] ...*a house and a job without a problem*' (Year 12 student), having the right to '*education and health*' (Year 10 student) and '*to live and work in the UK [and to] be protected by my citizenship in other countries*' (Year 12 student). However, students also recognised that rights were often matched by responsibilities. Three per cent of young people indicated that active participation was a necessary element of citizenship, while a further two per cent of students spoke of taking responsibility and carrying out duties. In this particular instance, most focused on the part that citizens can (and should) play in maintaining the political and social welfare of the country:

'*Citizenship means to me that I must play my part towards the nation's political and other states of the nation's welfare. I like to think I do as much as possible to help our country.*' (Year 12 student)

In a handful of cases, students also referred to citizenship in relation to the European Union, and made reference to citizenship as a global concept. In particular, those who made reference to citizenship on a global scale, stressed the importance of being aware of international problems and world issues, working towards equal rights, equal treatment, and the equal distribution of resources, and taking on environmental responsibilities:

'*Citizenship means to me that we should all be civilised people. And, not destroy the world or each other*' (Year 8 student);

'*Citizenship means to me, people who want to make the world a nicer and better place to live, join together to try and make it happen*' (Year 8 student);

'[Citizenship]... *means talking about things which go on in the world, e.g., poverty, starvation, and wars*' (Year 8 student).

'[Citizenship means]...Being acknowledged by a country that you are a member of their wider community. Involves being open to its languages, culture, and history, but not patriotic about it or imperially forcing our views on others.' (Year 12 student);

'Citizenship is your rights and responsibilities in relation to your community, England, and Europe and your general environment. It is also related to how you act in each of these places.' (Year 10 student).

6.4 Political Awareness and Literacy

The Crick Report states that citizens should *'...make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values'* (Crick, 1998, p. 13) thereby understanding and contributing to public life in its broadest sense. In line with this definition, a number of students highlighted citizenship as encompassing both political literacy and awareness. More particularly, students focused on the need for citizens to understand and participate in the democratic process, and wider current affairs of state and beyond:

'Citizenship means taking part in elections and preparing yourself for adult life' (Year 8 student);

'Citizenship means knowing about politics, and having views on important issues' (Year 12 student);

'A citizen should be politically aware of national and international events and vote in elections according to their views' (Year 12 student);

'[Citizenship means having]... The freedom to vote in free elections (local and nation-wide), to help shape the development of the country I live in. To obey the laws of this country if I think them just, and in return to take such rights due to a democracy such as, the freedom of speech to be guaranteed, along with the law to protect me in return when appropriate' (Year 12 student).

Perhaps, most importantly students recognised that voting and contributing to democracy was not simply about conformity, or about following the lead of government. Instead, they recognised the importance of participation in the democratic process:

'[Citizenship is about]... Feeling involved in the country and having a say in what happens instead of happily going along with the government's decisions' (Year 12 student);

'[Citizenship means] ...A nation that works together in a democracy' (Year 12 student).

6.5 Social and Moral Responsibility

The Crick Report (Crick, 1998, p. 11) states that responsible citizens should behave in a socially and morally responsible manner '*...both towards those in authority and towards each other*'. In line with this definition, the students who responded to the question stated that citizenship could be defined in terms of individual and group social and moral responsibilities to, and respect for, families and friends, local communities, the state and society at large. Hence, while being a citizen endowed an individual with certain rights, it also meant that individuals had to take on responsibility for protecting the rights of others. In particular, students highlighted the importance of caring for and respecting others and reflecting on the consequences of particular actions in order that, in the words of one Year 12 student, individuals can '*...be allowed to live freely in my society, without fear*' (Year 12 student). The following quotations further illustrate definitions of citizenship in relation to social and moral responsibility towards individuals, society and the environment:

'Citizenship involves being socially aware of how your actions will effect other people, take an interest in local and national issues and stand up for your beliefs and ideals while obeying the law' (Year 10 student);

'I have certain rights but, I have to follow certain laws and unwritten social rules' (Year 12 student);

'Citizenship means being a good person like helping the sick' (Year 8);

'[Citizenship involves] ...Being part of a country, obeying the laws and looking after people and the environment in that country' (Year 12 student).

In turn, students reflected on the fact that such social and moral responsibility could contribute to the reduction of inequalities in society; inequalities of status and wealth often associated with sexual, class and racial discrimination:

'Citizenship is where everyone gets along, and if there are matters to discuss, everyone will listen to them. Everybody is equal and no one is higher up and more important than the others' (Year 8 student);

'Citizenship is helping others who are less fortunate than yourself, in many ways, and ultimately ensuring that nobody is less or more fortunate than yourself, through the law and politics. Citizenship is changing society for the socialist future so that society benefits and helps all, not just the fat cat bourgeoisie' (Year 12 student).

'[Citizenship refers to] ...How people are treated throughout England, whether they are male or female, old or young, British or non-British. Everyone deserves to have one right to have a happy and fulfilled life

obeying the rules of the land. No one should have to suffer as a result of prejudice, or be ruled by a nasty person who doesn't care about what the people really want' (Year 12 student).

6.6 A Critique of Citizenship

Year 12 students, unlike the younger students in the sample, were less likely to restrict themselves to a simple definition of the term 'citizenship', and were more likely to discuss both positive and negative implications of 'citizenship' in each of its various dimensions. While some students merely dismissed the concept of 'citizenship' as a label with no real everyday meaning or relevance in their lives:

'To me, it means living inside the bounds of a country. I don't think it's more important than this. It's just a label with no meaning behind it' (Year 12 student);

'Nothing, because to me, it is not important to belong to one particular 'circle.' It would not bother me if I were refused citizenship, I don't think' (Year 12 student);

Others were able to provide a more in depth critique. In particular, some Year 12 students expressed reservations with regard to the influence of citizenship on equality and race relations, freedom of expression, and fair democratic national ballots:

'Citizenship is the term given to define a theory of the qualifications needed for a person to be a 'good' member of their society and political system. For the government to promote citizenship, money would be needed which could well be spent on a more worthwhile cause as I feel citizenship may result in a more nationalist point of view being adopted, thus damaging our standing with the EU and the rest of the world. We have coped without it so far and can become more socially minded via other methods' (Year 12 student);

'Citizenship is a word that politically correct fearing politicians have invented to get ethnic minority votes' (Year 12 student);

'I think its bullshit. We are all the same. To believe in citizenship is racist' (Year 12 student);

'I am able to be silenced by our government when I have a citizenship' (Year 12 student).

6.7 Looking Forward

It will be interesting to gauge, in the future conduct of the Study, the extent to which teachers are aware of the differing conceptions of citizenship that students hold. It will also be useful to monitor the extent to which teachers and schools address the differing student conceptions of 'citizenship' when introducing citizenship as a statutory curriculum subject, and to investigate, over the duration of the study, how far student conceptions are reinforced or altered in the light of their experiences of statutory citizenship in schools.

6.8 Summary

Defining Citizenship

Though not all students knew what citizenship meant, those who were able to define it did so in terms similar to the three interrelated strands of citizenship education as set out in the Crick Report (1998). Citizenship, in students' responses, had four dimensions:

- ◆ Community belonging and involvement.
- ◆ National, European and global identity and belonging.
- ◆ Political awareness and literacy.
- ◆ Social and moral responsibility.

The following answer, from a Year 12 student, neatly encompasses all four of these dimensions:

- [Citizenship involves....]
- *Belonging to a country and community*
 - *Having rights that are weighed up with responsibilities.*
 - *Obeying the laws.*
 - *Helping others less fortunate.*
 - *Voting and standing up for what I believe in.'*

A Critique of Citizenship

Not all students felt that 'citizenship' in its many manifestations was wholly positive. Some respondents felt citizenship had the potential to encourage racism and xenophobia, to stifle free speech and to serve a range of undemocratic political agendas.

7. STUDENTS' POLITICAL AND CIVIC KNOWLEDGE

The results of the section of the student survey which examined students' political and civic knowledge are analysed and discussed in detail in this chapter. It has been argued that a certain degree of civic and political knowledge is necessary for young people to be able to play an active role in democracy and society. In particular, Dalton (2002) has put forward the concept of cognitive engagement, which stresses the importance of political and civic knowledge in motivating political participation. In line with this, the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002) found that students with higher levels of civic knowledge were more likely to intend to participate in political and civic activities in the future.

The first cross-sectional survey tested respondents' political and civic knowledge in order to gain an understanding of students' levels of political literacy before the formal introduction of citizenship education in September 2002. As such it was not expected that students should be familiar with the topics covered in the survey. The Crick Report (1998, p. 42) emphasises that the acquisition of political and civic knowledge should not be the rote learning of key dates and facts characteristic of the 'civics' lessons of the past, but rather '*embedded in issues, events and activities of significance*'. While detailing certain areas of knowledge as key stage 3 and 4 learning outcomes, the report stresses that the manner and depth of such knowledge acquisition should be left to the professional discretion of teachers. This flexible definition of citizenship education, means that citizenship-related knowledge should be wide ranging and general and appropriate to the teaching and learning approaches being used. Although the survey did not attempt a comprehensive examination of students' civic and political knowledge, the content of the survey items broadly reflected the key stage 3 and 4 learning outcomes specified by Crick (which were incorporated into the Citizenship Order for key stage 3 and 4). As such, the results provide an indication of citizenship topics and areas in which students are informed and where there are potential gaps in knowledge and understanding.

The Year 10 and Year 12 surveys comprised 20 questions relating to the civic knowledge dimension. Of these four related to civic skills and the rest related to knowledge about rights and responsibilities, politics, democracy and the government, the media and international organisations. The Year 8 survey was shorter than those for Year 10 and 12, in order to take account of the reading speed and abilities of the younger students. It comprised ten questions covering identical issues to the Year 10 and 12 questionnaires.

7.1 Students' political and civic knowledge

The results from the survey of students' civic knowledge show that students have a good knowledge of equal opportunities and age-related rights, but are less confident when answering questions about democracy, the European Union and systems underlying elections.

All year groups comfortably answered a question relating to sexual discrimination, thereby supporting the finding of the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002) that students' in England are knowledgeable about equal opportunities. A high proportion of all year groups correctly answered a question relating to the age a young person can apply for a passport, and the Year 10 and Year 12 students were well-informed about ages at which young people can vote and purchase cigarettes. The Year 10 and Year 12 students also mostly answered a question about civil rights correctly.

All year groups did less well in answering questions about political censorship and corruption, with between 50 and 70 percent of students overall answering these questions correctly. The Year 10 and Year 12 students also had some difficulties in answering questions about censoring of the media, what constitutes a free election, the role of the United Nations and Britain's relations with Europe.

The greatest gaps in knowledge for all students related to what constitutes democracy. The Year 10 and Year 12 students were also particularly weak in answering questions relating to the European Union and the British electoral system (Year 8 students were not asked these questions). This again reflects the findings of the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002) which found that the students' involved in the study were weakest in their knowledge of the processes and practices of democracy, government and elections.

Students' strengths and weaknesses in civic knowledge are to some extent reflected in teachers' and college tutors' levels of confidence in teaching certain subjects. Approximately two-thirds of teachers and college tutors felt confident or very confident about teaching topics relating to rights, reflecting students' knowledge in this area. However, teachers and college tutors were less confident about teaching topics about the European Union, which was similarly one of the students' weakest areas. Most teachers and college tutors felt confident teaching about voting and elections. However, Parliament, government and the courts were one of the students' weakest areas in terms of knowledge. This disparity between teachers' confidence and students' knowledge may be explained by the fact that, prior to the formal introduction of citizenship education, there was no requirement for students to learn about these topics, though they may have come across them in the course of their studies in subjects such as history, RE and PSHE. Indeed, this conclusion is supported by the finding that over a third of students did not know, or were not sure if they had learned about, government, voting and elections in school.

7.2 Background factors and civic and political knowledge

Studies of both adults and young people have found that socio-economic factors have an impact on political knowledge (Torney *et al.*, 1975; Pattie *et al.*, 2002). Although citizenship education cannot change socio-economic factors, it is important for the study to investigate the link between these factors and civic and political knowledge for two reasons: first, so future surveys can ascertain any impact citizenship education has over and above these factors; and secondly to find out whether or not citizenship education is able to level out the differences in students' knowledge that may result from socio-economic differences.

7.2.1 Age

As might be expected students' political and civic knowledge improved with age, with Year 12 students gaining the highest average score and Year 8 students gaining the lowest.

7.2.2 Gender

The first IEA Civic Education Study (Torney *et al.*, 1975) found that boys scored higher in tests of civic knowledge than girls, and as they got older this disparity increased. However, in the most recent IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002), girls and boys were found, both in England and internationally, to have largely similar civic knowledge scores. It is interesting therefore to note that the first cross-sectional survey found that overall girls' scores were slightly, but significantly higher than boys. This suggests that, as in other areas of educational performance girls have not only closed the gender gap, but are actually beginning to overtake boys. However, although there was no significant gender difference in scores for those in Year 8 and Year 10, Year 12 girls performed slightly worse than Year 12 boys. This is a phenomenon which will require further investigation during the course of the Study.

7.2.3 Ethnicity

There were no conclusive affects of ethnicity on political knowledge scores.

7.2.4 Educational background

Studies of students have found that educational background can affect levels of civic knowledge (Torney *et al.*, 1975; Kerr *et al.*, 2002). Studies of adults have similarly found that education and economic background are important in predicting both political knowledge and political behaviour (Pattie *et al.*, 2002).

The cross sectional survey found a correlation between students' home literacy resources and civic knowledge supporting the findings of the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002). In the current study, the number of books in the home was one of the most important

predictors of students' political and civic knowledge scores, suggesting that students with greater home literacy resources have more opportunity to develop their political and civic awareness. The relationship between educational background and political and civic knowledge is further confirmed by the correlation between parental education and students' knowledge scores. Students who indicated that their mother or father had gained a degree had higher political and civic knowledge scores than those that indicated that their parents had been to college or left school at 16.

Students' predictions of their age on leaving full-time education were some of the most important predictors of civic and political knowledge. The cross-sectional survey found that those students from Years 8 and 10 who intended to leave at 16 or 17 years old gained the lowest civic and political knowledge score, whilst those who intended go to university, gained the highest scores. Similarly, Year 12 students who intended to get a job or stay in school or college gained the lowest scores, whilst those that intended to go onto university gained the highest.

For Year 12 students the type of course they were doing also appeared to affect their political and civic knowledge scores. Those doing AS and A-level courses had significantly higher score than other respondents, whilst those doing GNVQ Intermediate, scored significantly lower than other respondents.

7.2.5 Home background

As stated earlier, students' housing tenure may provide one indication of their socio-economic background and status. The cross-sectional survey revealed that there was a significant relationship between parental home ownership and students' civic and political knowledge scores. Overall, and in all year groups those students' whose parents owned their home, gained higher civic and political knowledge scores than those who did not. As housing tenure has been associated with important economic, political and cultural differences¹⁵ (see Gurney 1999; Saunders, 1989) this may provide one possible explanation as to why.

7.2.6 Leisure time

The way in which students spent their free time was also linked to their political and civic knowledge. Those that spent a moderate amount of time with friends in the evening and watching television, were found to have the highest civic knowledge scores. Overall, and for all year groups, students' who went out with friends almost every school night had the lowest political and civic knowledge scores, whilst those who went out on school evenings less frequently, gained higher scores.

¹⁵ Gurney (1999, p. 63) states that while '...important economic, political and cultural differences undoubtedly do exist between owners and tenants in contemporary British society... it may well be the case that the sources of these distinctions comes, in part, from the way in which they consume housing' (see also Rowlands and Gurney, 2001). The authors of this report therefore recognise the contested nature of 'housing tenure' as an indicator of socio-economic status and will explore these connections further in future analysis.

Those students who indicated that they watched television more than five hours a day, had the lowest political and civic knowledge scores overall and in all year groups. However, those that watched no television had similarly low scores, with those that watched up to five hours a day having the highest score. The finding that there is a relationship between moderate television watching and political and civic knowledge, may support Dalton's (2002) finding that those that have a high exposure to the media, have more opportunities to acquire political knowledge. Those students that watched no television may have more limited opportunities to acquire political knowledge, whilst those who watched over five hours of television a day, may have less time to acquire political knowledge through other means, for example by reading newspapers and doing homework. In addition, the type and quality of the television programmes watched may be of significance to students' civic knowledge scores. In support of this, Norris (1995) argues that those that watch the news and current affairs programmes may be more informed than those who watched other types of programme. This qualitative difference in media exposure will be investigated in more detail in the longitudinal survey.

7.3 Summary

Political and civic knowledge

Students have a good knowledge of equal opportunities and age-related rights, but are less well-informed about democracy, democratic institutions, the European Union and the electoral system. Students' levels of civic knowledge may be related to teachers' levels of confidence in teaching political and civic topics.

Background affects on civic and political knowledge

As would be expected students' political and knowledge scores increased with age. Girls achieved slightly higher scores than boys though this varied within year groups.

There was a significant relationship between educational background and knowledge. Those with the highest number of books in the home, those whose parents' had degrees and those who intended to go on to university themselves gained the highest political and civic knowledge scores. For the Year 12 students those doing the most academic courses gained the highest knowledge scores.

Students' housing tenure was also linked to knowledge, with those whose parents' owned their home gaining the highest scores.

How students' spent their free time was also linked to political and civic knowledge. Students who socialised least on week nights and were moderate television viewers gained the highest scores.

8. STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO CONVENTIONAL AND NON- CONVENTIONAL CITIZENSHIP AND LEVELS OF TRUST

This chapter sets out to chart students' attitudes towards the law, conventional participation activities (for example, voting in elections or joining a political party) and non-conventional participation activities and groups (for example, involvement with non-partisan groups and movements in communities and schools which promote human rights, protection of the environment and community involvement). In addition, the chapter records students' attitudes towards human and civil rights, civil responsibilities and social justice and their trust in key civic and social institutions and a range of social groups in society.¹⁶ Each section focuses first on the attitudes of the total student sample highlighting, where significant, any differences between the responses of each of the three year groups sampled (Year 8, Year 10 and Year 12). In addition, the analysis considers whether any relationships exist between these various attitudes and both students' background characteristics and the level of civic knowledge they hold,¹⁷ detailed in Chapters 3 and 7 of this report.

For the purposes of this chapter, in questions where students were presented with the option of ticking one box along a five point scale – strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree and don't know - the discussion generally groups positive (i.e. *agree* and *strongly agree*) and negative (i.e. *disagree* and *strongly disagree*) answers together. The five point scale – not at all, a little, quite a lot, completely and don't know – is similarly reported in terms of positive (*quite a lot* and *completely*) and negative (*not at all* and *a little*) responses. The percentages presented in the discussion are therefore the sum of these combined positive or negative responses, unless otherwise indicated.

¹⁶ As outlined in the analytical framework (Chapter 1), Putnam *et al.* (1994) argue that adults who are generally trusting of other people and institutions are more likely to be politically active. This chapter begins to investigate this hypothesis by considering students' levels of trust.

¹⁷ In this chapter civic knowledge scores of students are presented in two different ways. Where civic knowledge scores are related to questions asked of all three year groups, civic knowledge scores are ranked on a scale of 0-10 (where 0 = low civic knowledge and 10 = high civic knowledge). Where civic knowledge scores are analysed in relation to questions asked only of Year 10 and Year 12 students, they are ranked on a scale of 0-20 (where 0 = low civic knowledge and 20 = high civic knowledge). The two ranking scales reflect the number of common civic knowledge questions that were asked of the all students (10) and Years 10 and 12 only (20).

8.1 Attitudes towards the law, conventional participation and non-conventional participation

In all three year groups, students' attitudes towards the law, conventional participation and non-conventional participation were measured using an eight-item attitudinal scale. Students were asked to state whether they strongly disagreed, disagreed, agreed or strongly agreed with the eight items listed in Table 8.1. In addition, students were offered the possibility of choosing a 'don't know' option.

Table 8.1 Students' views of the duties of good adult citizens

<i>It is important that a good adult citizen...</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
obeys the law	4	4	46	40	4	3
Joins a political party	17	55	9	2	14	3
Follows political issues in newspapers, on the radio or on TV	11	41	28	3	14	3
Supports a football club	26	39	13	10	8	3
participates in activities to benefit people in the community	5	18	50	10	14	4
hands in a £10 note found in the street	16	26	32	13	10	3
writes to a Member of Parliament (MP) if they feel strongly about something	8	16	45	17	12	3
picks up litter in a public place	10	22	40	13	13	3

N = 6909

A series of single response items

Due to rounding percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6742 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

As can be seen, the highest percentage of students agreed with the statement that a good citizen obeys the law (86 per cent). The majority of students were also in agreement that writing to an MP (62 per cent) and participating in activities that benefit the community (60 per cent) were important elements of citizenship. In contrast, students were least likely to agree that a good adult citizen joins a political party, with only 11 per cent stating that they agreed with this statement.

Clear relationships existed between students' civic knowledge scores and their attitudes towards the law, conventional participation and non-conventional participation. Those with the highest civic knowledge scores (on a scale of 0-

10 where 0 = low civic knowledge and 10 = high civic knowledge) were most likely to agree that a good citizen *obeys the law, participates in activities to benefit the community, writes to their MP, picks up litter, follows political issues in the media, or hands in £10 found in the street*. For example, while 95 per cent of students with a knowledge score of 10 agreed that *a good citizen obeys the law* only 61 per cent of students with a civic knowledge score of one indicated the same. In contrast a negative relationship was found to exist between level of knowledge score and the belief that *a good citizen supports a football team or joins a political party*. For example only eight per cent of students with a civic knowledge score of 10 stated that they agreed that a good citizen joins a political party compared to 20 per cent with a knowledge score of one.

Similar relationships existed between students' attitudes towards the law, conventional participation and non-conventional participation and three other factors: the age that students predicted that they would leave full time education; the number of books in their home; and the amount of weekday evenings they spend out with friends. As a general rule of thumb, the students who expected that they would stay on longer in education, who had more books in their home and who spent less time out with friends on week nights, were more likely to agree that a good citizen: *obeys the law, participates in activities to benefit the community, writes to their MP, picks up litter, follows political issues in the media, or hands in £10 found in the street*.

Another factor influencing support for the law, conventional participation and non-conventional participation was students' gender. Female students were more likely than male students to agree that a good citizen *obeys the law and hands in £10 found in the street*, but were less likely to agree that a good citizen *joins a political party, supports a football club, and follows political issues in the media*.

Interestingly, those students who stated that they spent *less than five hours* watching television per day were more likely than those students who did not watch television at all, or watched more than five hours per day to agree that a good citizen *participates in activities to benefit the community, writes to their MP and obeys the law*.

8.2 Attitudes towards human and civil rights, civil responsibilities and social justice

Students in the Year 10 and Year 12 samples were additionally asked to comment on a set of seven items relating to human and civil rights, civil responsibilities and social justice. Table 8.2 sets out the total percentages of all students in Years 10 and 12 who responded to these seven statements.

Table 8.2 Year 10 and Year 12 students' views on rights, responsibilities and social justice

<i>How much do you agree or disagree with each of the statements below?</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
It is every adult's duty to vote in every election	12	38	29	11	7	3
Newspapers should be able to print whatever they like	22	41	19	10	5	3
People should have the right to express racist views	29	28	21	9	9	3
People should obey a law even if it violates human rights	21	40	15	5	15	3
Government leaders should be trusted without question	37	38	10	3	9	4
People should protest peacefully against a law that they believe to be unjust	7	13	45	19	12	4
Terrorism is never justified	7	10	22	42	15	4

N = 4420

A series of single response items

Due to rounding percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 4291 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

The table shows that students in these year groups largely disagreed with the right to free speech and freedom of action, particularly where other's human and civil rights might be affected negatively. For instance, 63 per cent of the sample disagreed with the statement that *newspapers should be able to print whatever they like*. A further 57 per cent disagreed with the statement *people should have the right to express racist views*. However, it is interesting to note that 30 per cent of the student sample agreed with this statement. This appeared to be affected by two other factors:

- ♦ **Civic knowledge:** Year 10 and Year 12 students who had a lower political knowledge score (using a 20 point scale where 0 = low knowledge and 20 = high knowledge) were more likely to agree.
- ♦ **Gender:** boys were more likely to agree than girls.

Perhaps most striking is the fact that despite 64 per cent of students stating that they agreed with the statement that *Terrorism is never justified*, 17 per cent of the sample stated that they disagreed. And of this 17 per cent, just under 40 per cent chose the option *strongly disagree*. Boys were significantly more likely to be part of the group who disagreed with this statement (22 per cent of boys chose either the *disagree* or *strongly disagree* option compared to only 12 per cent of girls).

8.3 Governmental Responsibilities

The responsibility of government in relation to social and economic issues was measured using a nine item attitudinal scale. Table 8.3 below shows the percentages of all students in all year groups surveyed who felt that the government should have responsibility for issues ranging from providing healthcare to controlling car pollution.

Analysis reveals that students in the Year 10 and Year 12 samples were less likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement that *the government should provide a decent standard of living for the unemployed* than Year 8 students. The likelihood of agreeing with the statement *the government should guarantee a job for anyone who wants one* was also influenced by age with Year 10 and 12 students less likely to agree than those in Year 8. Perhaps unsurprisingly, due to the potential imminence of the transition to post-18 education, students in Year 12 were more likely to agree that *the government should provide a free university education*.

Table 8.3 Students' views on governmental responsibility

<i>The government should...</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
guarantee a job for anyone who wants one	4	21	43	18	10	3
make those who can afford to pay for their own health care	18	42	20	6	10	4
provide a decent standard of living for the unemployed	5	14	51	18	9	4
make wealthy people provide for their own retirement	11	34	26	11	14	4
reduce differences between people's wealth	10	25	31	13	18	4
provide free university education	2	7	36	43	8	4
ensure equal opportunities for men and women	3	3	25	61	5	4
restrict car driving to control pollution	15	27	28	12	15	4
provide refugees with a house to live in	21	17	28	12	18	4
N = 6909						

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6700 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

Other variables that appear to impact significantly upon the likelihood of students to agree with the statements listed in Table 8.3 are:

- ♦ **Gender:** girls were significantly less likely than boys to agree that the government should reduce economic differences by making those who could afford to pay for their healthcare and retirement. In contrast they were significantly more likely than boys to agree that the government should ensure equal rights through providing homes for refugees, a decent standard of living for the unemployed and ensuring equal opportunities for men and women.
- ♦ **Tenure:** those living in rented accommodation were more likely than those students whose parents were owner occupiers to agree that the government should house refugees and make those who can afford to pay for their healthcare.
- ♦ **Time out with friends:** those students who spent 4 or more evenings out with their friends during the week were less likely to agree or strongly agree that the government should house refugees, ensure equal gender opportunities, provide free university education and ensure a decent standard of living for the unemployed.
- ♦ **Home literacy resources:** those with high numbers of books in their home were generally more likely to be supportive of refugees rights to a home, of equal gender opportunities, of free university education, of the right of the unemployed to a decent standard of living, of restricting car driving to control pollution and of reducing differences between people's wealth.

8.4 Trust in Government and Other Civic Institutions

Students in all three year groups were asked to indicate how much they trusted a list of civic and political institutions, groups and broadcast media, choosing from the following options: *not at all*; *a little*; *quite a lot*; *completely* and *don't know*. The list included government related institutions on a local, national and international scale and other public institutions such as the courts and the police. Table 8.4 below lists the various levels of trust that students associated with these institutions. Overall, the levels of trust that young people granted Government-related institutions was low, with under one-fifth of students stating that they trusted the Government and their local council quite a lot or completely and less than one-tenth stating that they trusted politicians. International political organisations did not fair much better, with just over one-fifth of students stating that they trusted the European Union either *quite a lot* or *completely*, and just under one third stating similar levels of trust in the United Nations. The criminal justice system appeared, in contrast, to be regarded as more trustworthy. The majority of students indicated that they had higher levels of trust in the police (59 per cent), while 46 per cent stated that they had similarly high levels of trust in the courts.

Table 8.4 Students' levels of trust in institutions

<i>I trust...</i>	Not at all	A little	Quite a lot	Completely	Don't know	No response
The police	13	23	40	19	3	2
Courts	13	30	38	8	9	3
the United Nations	13	23	22	8	32	3
the European Union (EU)	16	26	18	4	32	3
the government	26	44	16	2	10	2
the local council	21	46	17	1	12	2
Politicians	39	35	8	1	14	3

N = 6909

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6804 respondents answered at least one item in this question

A number of age related trends were in evidence. Older students were less likely than Year 8 students to state that they trusted the government quite a lot or completely; a trend which is also evident in relation to local councils. And while trust in the courts appeared reasonably stable across the year groups, students appeared less likely to trust the police the older they were. Sixty-two per cent of Year 8 students, 56 per cent of those in Year 10 and 53 per cent of Year 12 students stated that they trusted the police either *quite a lot* or *completely*. This trend was less starkly evident in answers relating to trust in international political organisations, with Year 8 students showing only slightly more trust in the EU and the UN than their Year 10 or Year 12 counterparts.

Levels of trust were higher for those with higher political knowledge scores. Almost without exception, those with scores of eight and over (on a scale of 1-10 where 0 equals no knowledge, and 10 equals high knowledge) were more likely than those with lower knowledge scores to trust governmental institutions, both national and international, and to trust the criminal justice system. However, those with high scores were *less* likely to trust politicians.

Other factors which appeared significant in affecting levels of trust were:

- ♦ **Gender:** females were less likely to trust their council, the government, the EU, and politicians.
- ♦ **Time watching television:** As a general rule of thumb, people who watched high levels of TV each day were generally less likely than those who were moderate to low television viewers to trust government and civic institutions and the criminal justice system. However, interestingly, moderate TV watching behaviour of under 1 hour to 2 hours a day appeared to raise trust in two institutions: the UK government and the police.
- ♦ **Home literacy resources:** People with more books in home were more likely to trust their local council, the EU and the UN.

- ♦ **Time out with friends:** those students who spent 4 or more school evenings out with friends per week were less likely to state that they trusted the criminal justice system.
- ♦ **Ethnicity:** none white students were significantly less likely to trust the police than those who indicated that their ethnicity was *White UK*.

In addition, Year 10 and Year 12 students were asked to comment on the following statement: *Government leaders should be trusted without question*. Only 13 per cent of respondents from these two year-groups stated that they strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. The data also show that certain groups of students were more or less likely to agree with this statement:

- ♦ Year 10 and Year 12 students who had a higher political knowledge score (using a 20 point scale where 0 = low knowledge and 20 = high knowledge) were less likely to support the statement.
- ♦ Girls were less likely than boys to agree with the statement.
- ♦ Students with less books in their home were more likely to agree with the statement.

8.5 Trust in the Media

The media plays a major role in transmitting information or news about democratic processes and institutions in modern democratic societies. Research on exposure to the media, particularly the broadcast media, has shown positive effects of such exposure on levels of political knowledge and political involvement among adults and young people (Comstock and Paik, 1991; Hahn, 1998; Linnenbrink and Anderman, 1995; Norris, 1996). In order to measure levels of trust in the media, students were asked to respond to three items that asked young people about their trust in the news in the papers, on the radio and on television. Table 8.5 shows the percentage of students in all year groups who reported that they trusted each media source on a scale from *not at all* to *completely*. Table 8.5 shows that news broadcasts on the television were the most trusted followed by news on the radio. Students show very low levels of trust of news reports in the papers.

Table 8.5 Students' levels of trust in media

<i>I trust...</i>	Not at all	A little	Quite a lot	Completely	Don't know	No response
news on television	8	30	43	13	3	3
news on the radio	14	49	27	4	4	2
news in the papers	32	48	12	2	3	3

N = 6909

A series of single response items

Due to rounding percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6804 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

The following variables were also seen to increase or decrease the likelihood of students trusting the three examples of news media:

- ♦ **Age:** trust in television news and the newspapers appeared to increase slightly with age.
- ♦ **Gender:** girls in the sample were generally less trusting of the news media than boys.
- ♦ **Educational plans:** those students who stated that they planned to stay on in education into their early twenties were also more likely to state that they trusted television and radio news broadcasts.
- ♦ **Housing tenure:** students whose parents were owner occupiers were more likely to state that they trusted television or radio news broadcasts than those who lived in a rented property, were unsure of their housing tenure, or preferred not to say.
- ♦ **Time out with friends:** those who spent more time out with friends on school evenings were less trusting of TV news broadcasts.
- ♦ **Time watching television:** perhaps unsurprisingly, those who spent longer each evening watching the television were significantly more likely to trust the TV news.

8.6 Trust in Social Groups

In addition to questions asking about trust in governmental institutions and the media, the cross-sectional survey asked students to relate how much they trusted four key social groups in society with whom they were likely to interact on a daily basis: people of their own age; their neighbours; their family; and their teachers or tutors. Full results are presented in Table 8.6 below, which shows that family was accorded the greatest levels of trust by students, with 89 per cent stating that they trusted their family *completely* or *quite a lot*. No other group on the list was accorded this very high level of trust. However, it is interesting to note that students' trust in their immediate social groups was, in the main, higher than their trust in the news media, the criminal justice system and governmental institutions.

Some clear age-related differences were evident in responses to this question. For example students in the Year 12 sample were less likely to trust people of their own age and their neighbours than Year 10 students who, in turn, were less likely to trust these groups than Year 8s. In contrast, trust in teachers appeared to rise with age with 49 per cent of Year 8 students stating that they trusted their teachers compared to 64 per cent of the Year 12 sample.

Table 8.6 Students' levels of trust in social groups

<i>I trust...</i>	Not at all	A little	Quite a lot	Completely	Don't know	No response
my family	2	5	22	67	1	2
people of my own age	6	32	50	9	2	2
teachers in my school	14	30	40	11	3	2
my neighbours	15	34	35	9	4	2

N = 6909

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6789 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

What, then, can the data tell us about the varying levels of trust in the social groups listed in Table 8.6? Which students, for example, are more likely to state that they trust these groups either *quite a lot* or *completely*? Clear relationships existed between students' political knowledge scores and their levels of trust they accorded key social groups. On the whole, those with knowledge scores of 6 or over (on a scale of 0-10 where 0 equals no knowledge, and 10 = high knowledge) consistently showed a greater propensity for trust across all social groups. Girls, were more likely to trust their friends than boys. Less surprising were the findings that those who spend more school evenings out with their friends are more likely to show higher levels of trust in people of their own age, and less likely to state that they trust their teachers, and that those who had lived in an area for more than five years were more likely to state that they trusted their neighbours and family members. However, trust in neighbours was found to be less likely amongst those whose parents rented their homes or who preferred not to disclose their housing tenure.

8.7 Attitudes Towards the Treatment and Status of Social Groups

Students in the Year 10 and Year 12 sample were asked to comment on a further set of 5 items relating to the treatment and status of minority groups, immigrants and women in contemporary society. Table 8.7 sets out the responses of Year 10 and Year 12 students to the 5 statements.

As the table reveals, 55 per cent of students in both year groups indicated that they were concerned about the number of refugees that Britain received. However, girls were significantly less likely to agree with this statement (47 per cent) than boys (64 per cent), along with those students whose parents had stayed on in full time education until university.

Table 8.7 Year 10 and Year 12 students' attitudes towards social groups

<i>How much do you agree or disagree with each of these statements?</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
Britain does not have room to accept any more refugees	9	20	24	31	14	2
People who were not born in the UK but live here now, should have the same rights as everyone else	6	11	42	30	7	3
If there are not enough jobs for everybody, they should go to men rather than women	62	20	5	4	6	2
People who were not born in the UK but who live her now, should be required to learn English	5	16	37	31	9	3
A good education is more important for men than for women	68	17	3	5	5	3

N = 4420

A series of single response items

Due to rounding percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 4328 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

A higher level of support was shown for the rights of first generation immigrants with 72 per cent of students across the year groups stating that they believe that *people who were not born in the UK should have the same rights as everyone else*. However, the following groups were more likely to agree or strongly agree with the above statement about immigrants rights:

- ♦ Those students with a political knowledge score above 13 (using a 20 point scale where 0 = low knowledge and 20 = high knowledge).
- ♦ Female students.
- ♦ Those students whose parents had stayed on in education to university level.
- ♦ Those students who had higher home literacy resources.

While the number of students in Years 10 and 12 who expressed what could be termed sexist views was comparatively low, it is important to draw

attention to this small minority of students. In practice, this group were expressing support for activities that are against European and/or UK laws. Overall, Year 10 and Year 12 students were strongly supportive of equal employment and educational rights for women. However, 394 students of a total of 4420 students (nine per cent) in Years 10 and 12 agreed or strongly agreed with the statement ‘*if there are not enough jobs for everybody, they should go to men rather than women*’. Closer analysis of the data reveals that boys were more likely than girls to agree with this statement (13 per cent of boys compared to 5 per cent of girls), while those who described themselves as *Asian or British Asian, Chinese*, a member of an unspecified *Other Ethnic Group* or who preferred not to specify their ethnicity also appeared most likely to state that they agreed or strongly agreed. Details are provided in Table 8.8 below.

Table 8.8 Ethnicity of Year 10 and Year 12 students’ who agreed with the statement ‘if there are not enough jobs for everyone, they should go to men rather than women’

Ethnicity	Agree/Strongly Agree %
Chinese	35 ¹⁸
Other Ethnic Group	19
Prefer not to say	18
Asian	17
Black	14
Mixed	8
White UK	7
White European	6
N=	394

A cross-tab so percentages will not add to 100

A total of 370 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

8.8 Summary

Attitudes towards the law, conventional participation and non-conventional participation

Young people clearly felt that citizenship hinged on obeying the law and contributing towards their communities. They were, however, less likely to support conventional participation activities such as joining a political party. Those with higher civic knowledge scores, higher predicted school leaving ages and higher levels of home literacy resources were, in the main, more likely to show support for the law and citizenship related activities.

¹⁸ Please note: only a very small number of pupils indicating that they were Chinese were involved in the survey, so these figures should be treated with some caution

Attitudes towards human and civil rights, civil responsibilities and social justice.

Support for human and civil rights was tempered by students' recognition of their impact on others. For example, students were more likely to disagree with the rights to freedom of speech and action if they impinged on other human and civil rights.

Governmental responsibilities

Ensuring equal opportunities for men and women, and providing a decent standard of living for the unemployed were seen as the two key responsibilities of government.

Trust in government and other civic institutions

Overall, the level of trust the young people granted politicians, government-related institutions and international political organisations was low. Students showed higher levels of trust in the criminal justice system: the police and the courts.

Trust in the media

Television and radio news broadcasts were trusted more than news reports in the papers. However, girls generally showed less trust in the news media than boys.

Trust in social groups

Family was accorded the greatest levels of trust by students. Students' trust in their immediate social groups (family, neighbours, teachers and peers) was, in the main, higher than their trust in the news media, the criminal justice system and governmental institutions.

Attitudes towards the treatment and status of social groups

While high levels of support were shown for the human and civil rights of first generation immigrants, just over half of students in Years 10 and 12 indicated that they were concerned about the number of refugees that Britain was receiving.

A small but significant minority of students showed support for the prioritisation of men's working rights over women's; an action which would breach UK and European employment laws. Male respondents and those from non-white ethnic backgrounds were more likely to support this view.

9. STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS CIVIC ENGAGEMENT AND PARTICIPATION

One of the main aims of citizenship education is to prepare young people for participation in civic and political life; preparation which is founded on the development of interest in politics and the discussion of civic and political issues with others. This chapter explores the level of interest young people have in politics and the extent to which they have discussions about political issues. It also examines students' intention to participate in political activities in the future. Students' confidence in the effectiveness of participation at school – the extent to which they think they can make a difference by participating in school activities – is also discussed. The chapter concludes with an investigation of whether students' experiences of open classroom environments (for instance, characterised by opportunities to participate in discussions about their own opinions), has the potential to influence the outcomes of citizenship education, including the intention to participate in political activities.

9.1 Attitudes towards Politics

Students in all Year groups were asked to respond to the statement '*I am interested in politics...*' on four-point a scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The findings were similar to those evident from the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002): less than one-quarter (23 per cent) of all students in the cross-sectional survey agreed that they were interested in politics. Conversely, almost two-thirds (63 per cent) of students disagreed that they were interested in politics. Those remaining either said that they did not know whether they were interested in politics, or did not respond to the statement. The lack of interest in politics could explain why only a small proportion of students reported that they discussed political issues with others (see Section 9.2).

Interest in politics appeared to increase with age: post-16 students were more likely than those in the other year groups to be interested in politics (31 per cent compared with 19 per cent of Year 10 students and 18 per cent of Year 8 students). Post-16 students were less likely than those in Years 8 and 10 to be unsure of their attitude towards politics.

Overall, there was a positive relationship between civic knowledge and interest in politics: students with the highest knowledge scores (on a scale of 0-10 where 0 = low civic knowledge and 10 = high civic knowledge) were most interested in politics. For instance, 15 per cent of students with a knowledge score of one said they were interested in politics, compared with 42 per cent of those with a knowledge score of ten.

Another predictor of political interest was how far students' fathers had gone in their education (used as a measure of family education and socio-economic status): students whose fathers had gone furthest in their education (achieved a degree or equivalent) were most interested in politics. For instance, 21 per cent of students whose fathers had left education at 16 said they were interested in politics, compared with a third (33 per cent) of students whose fathers had achieved a degree.

Home literacy resources, used as a potential indicator of family education and socio-economic status, were also found to be a predictor of interest in politics. For example, 11 per cent of students who reported having 1-10 books agreed '*I am interested in politics*', compared with 31 per cent of students with more than 200 books.

Students who said they were taught about citizenship in school either a lot or a little were more likely than those who said they were not taught about citizenship, or did not know if they were, to report being interested in politics.

9.2 Participation in Discussion about Politics

In order to explore whether opportunities for participation in discussion about politics can impact upon civic knowledge and participation in civic-related activities, students were asked to respond on a four-point scale (ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree) to the following statements about political discussions: '*I often discuss politics with other people*' and '*when political issues or problems are discussed, I usually have something to say*'. Responses to these items were also used to indicate general interest in politics (see Section 9.1), but are used here to indicate the level of participation in political discussions.

The findings largely mirror those from the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002), in that students appeared to be involved in little discussion about politics. Although students report being given opportunities to discuss political issues in class (see Section 9.7), less than one-fifth (18 per cent) of all students agreed that they often discussed politics with other people. Post-16 students were more likely than those in Years 8 and 10 to discuss politics with others, although the proportions were still small (26 per cent of post-16 students compared with 15 per cent of those in Year 8 and 14 per cent in Year 10). A greater proportion of students (44 per cent) agreed that they usually had something to say during political discussions, although a similar proportion disagreed that they spoke out in discussions (41 per cent). Again, a slightly greater proportion of post-16 students than those in Years 8 and 10 agreed that they usually had something to say during discussions about politics.

In a general question about what happens in their school/college, just over one third (36 per cent) of all students agreed that '*students bring up current political events for discussion in class*'. A slightly greater proportion of post-16 students than those in the other year groups agreed that students initiated discussions about political events in class. However, despite being given the

opportunity to discuss political issues in class (see Section 9.7), the extent to which this opportunity was taken up was limited. One potential answer lies in the fact that only a small proportion of students reported being interested in politics (as discussed in Section 9.1).

9.3 Future Political Participation

9.3.1 Participation in political activities

Table 9.1 Participation in activities

<i>In the future I will...</i>	Definitely not do this	Probably not do this	Probably do this	Definitely do this	Don't know	No response
vote in national elections	8	11	42	24	12	5
vote in local elections	6	17	45	17	11	5
vote in European elections	11	26	29	12	17	5
join a political party	38	34	7	3	13	5
volunteer time to help other people	8	22	40	10	15	5
get involved in local politics	26	42	10	3	15	5
collect money for a good cause	6	14	45	18	14	5

N = 6909

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6643 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

All students were asked whether they thought they would participate in the following political activities in the future:

- ◆ Vote in national, local and European elections
- ◆ Join a political party
- ◆ Volunteer time to help other people
- ◆ Get involved in local politics
- ◆ Collect money for a good cause.

The results for students overall are illustrated in Table 9.1 above. Voting in national elections was found to be the most popular intended activity: 66 per cent of all students reported that they would definitely or probably vote in

national elections. This finding is identical to that in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002). The IEA study reported that voting in elections was the most popular intended political activity with 68 per cent of 14 year olds reporting they would definitely or probably vote in the future. However, the results in the first cross-sectional survey are more revealing than the IEA study. They suggest that the type of election has an influence on the readiness of students to vote. While 66 per cent of students reported they would definitely or probably vote in national elections that figure drops slightly to 62 per cent in relation to local elections but more markedly for European elections, with only 41 per cent reporting they would definitely or probably vote in such elections.

Significant differences also emerged when the relationship between the intention to vote in national elections and other factors was explored:

- ◆ Students with the highest scores for civic knowledge were more likely than those with lower scores to say they would vote in the future.
- ◆ Students whose parents owned their homes/property were most likely to intend to vote in the future, compared with students whose parents rented their property, or those who did not know their housing tenure or preferred not to comment.
- ◆ There was a positive relationship between fathers' educational achievement and students' intention to vote: students whose fathers went furthest in their education (achieved a degree or similar qualification) were most likely to intend to vote in national elections in the future.
- ◆ Students with high home literacy resources were more likely than students with fewer books to intend to vote in national elections in the future.
- ◆ Students who reported they had been taught about citizenship were more likely than those who had not to intend to vote.

The second most popular intended activity was collecting money for a good cause: 63 per cent of all pupils said they would definitely or probably do this in the future. The figure is considerably higher than that in the IEA study, where only 41 per cent of 14-year olds reported that they would definitely or probably collect money for a social cause in the future. The following significant findings emerged when other factors were considered:

- ◆ Students in Year 10 were significantly *less* likely than the other groups to intend to collect money for charity.
- ◆ There was a positive relationship between civic knowledge and the intention to collect money in the future: students with the highest scores were most likely to intend to participate in this activity.
- ◆ Girls were significantly more likely than boys to intend to collect money for a good cause.

- ◆ There was a significant positive relationship between home literacy resources and the intention to collect money: those with the most books were most likely to intend to collect money for charity.
- ◆ In general, the intention to collect money for a good cause declined as students watched more television in their free time.
- ◆ Students who had been taught about citizenship were more likely than those who had not to intend to collect money for a good cause.

Sixty-two per cent of all students intended to vote in local elections in the future. Within this figure, certain students were more likely to indicate an intention to vote than others:

- ◆ As students' civic knowledge scores increased, their intention to vote in local elections increased.
- ◆ There was a positive correlation between home literacy resources and the intention to vote in local elections.
- ◆ Students who spent a considerable amount of time out with their friends in the evening on school/college days were less likely than those who went out irregularly to intend to vote in local elections.
- ◆ Students who said they had been taught about citizenship were more likely than those who had not to intend to vote in local elections in the future.

Only half of all students said they intended to volunteer to help other people in the future. This is more positive than the finding in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002) where only 41 per cent of students said they would volunteer such help. However, in line with the findings of the IEA study, very few students in the cross-sectional survey reported that they intended to get involved in conventional political activities (other than voting), including participation in local politics (13 per cent) or joining a political party (10 per cent). The majority of students responded that they would definitely or probably *not* participate in such conventional activities in the future, with 38 per cent of the sample stating that they would definitely not join a political party, and a quarter (26 per cent) stating that they would definitely not get involved in local politics. One potential explanation for this certainty may lie in the fact that only a minority of students reported that they were interested in politics (see Section 9.1 of this report).

Although the proportion of students reporting that they intended to participate in these conventional activities was, on the whole, small. Students who said they had been taught about citizenship were slightly more likely to intend to participate than those who had not. For instance, 23 per cent of students who said they had been taught about citizenship 'a lot' intended to get involved in local politics, compared with 12 per cent of those who said they had not been taught about citizenship at all.

A total score for ‘future participation’ was devised, based on students’ intention to participate in the five political activities listed at the beginning of section 9.3. Students in Year 10 had the lowest average score for ‘future participation’. As civic knowledge increased, scores for ‘future participation’ also increased. Moreover, girls scored significantly higher than boys, suggesting that girls had a greater intention than boys to participate in political activities in the future. There was also a relationship between students’ mothers’ and fathers’ education and their own ‘future participation’: the greater their parents’ educational achievements (both mother and father), the greater their own intention to participate in political activities in the future. In addition, as home literacy resources increased, the greater the intention to participate became. Moreover, students who socialised with their friends frequently on school/college days were less likely than those who socialised infrequently to intend to participate in the future. Similarly, in support of the findings of Putnam *et al.*, (1994) those who watched television often (more than five hours per school/college day) were less likely than those who watched television only once in a while to intend to participate.

9.3.2 Participation in forms of protest

Year 10 and Year 12 students were asked whether they thought they would take part in a number of forms of protest in the future if they were confronted by something they thought was wrong. The sample were asked to respond on a four-point scale ranging from ‘*definitely will do this*’ to ‘*definitely not do this*’. The findings are illustrated on Table 9.2 below.

As the table shows, students were more likely to intend to participate in peaceful protests than to take direct action of a more violent nature. However, as was evident in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002), the overall proportion of students who intended to take part in any form of protest, even peaceful, was relatively small. The most likely form of peaceful protest was contacting a Member of Parliament (MP), although only mentioned by two-fifths (40 per cent) of students as a definite or probable intended action in the future. Almost two-fifths (39 per cent) reported that they thought they would take part in a non-violent protest march or rally if they were confronted by something they thought was wrong. Just over a third (35 per cent) of all students said they would contact a newspaper to protest about an issue, and just under a third (30 per cent) said they would take part in a radio phone-in. However, fewer students reported that they would take part in more violent demonstrations. Only 19 per cent said they would block traffic as a form of protest, and only 15 per cent said they would take part in a violent demonstration. It is nevertheless interesting to note that seven per cent of students said they *definitely would* take part in such direct action.

Table 9.2 Participation in forms of protest

<i>If confronted by something I thought was wrong I would...</i>	Definitely not do this	Probably not do this	Probably do this	Definitely do this	Don't know	No response
contact a newspaper	15	34	29	6	12	5
take part in a radio phone-in programme	15	39	25	5	11	5
take part in a non-violent protest march or rally	16	29	30	9	12	5
block traffic as a form of protest	26	39	12	7	11	5
take part in a violent demonstration	42	27	8	7	10	5
contact my Member of Parliament (MP)	18	24	30	10	13	5
N = 4420						

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 4211 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

The responses to these items were combined to devise scores for 'peaceful protest' (non-violent action, such as contacting a newspaper or MP or participating in a radio phone-in) and 'direct action' (such as blocking traffic or violent demonstrations). Variables that appear to impact significantly upon the likelihood of students to opt for peaceful protest or direct action are detailed below:

- ♦ **Gender:** girls were more likely than boys to think they would participate in a peaceful protest in the future. Boys were more likely than girls to report the possibility of participating in direct action of a more violent or destructive nature, if they were confronted by something they thought was wrong.
- ♦ **Civic knowledge:** students with high scores on the civic-knowledge test were more likely than those with low scores to suggest they might take part in peaceful protests. Conversely students with low scores on the civic-knowledge test were more likely than those with high scores to think they might take part in destructive forms of protest.
- ♦ **Father's education:** the further students' fathers had gone in their education, the more likely they were to think they would participate in peaceful protests.

- ♦ **Home literacy resources:** as the number of books in the home increased, the likelihood that students would protest peacefully in the future also increased.
- ♦ **Time out with friends:** students who socialised with their friends frequently on school/college nights were less likely than those who socialised infrequently to expect to participate in direct action.

9.4 Civic-Related Participation

9.4.1 Participation in Civic-related organisations and activities

The first cross-sectional survey sought to investigate the range of opportunities provided for student participation in civic-related clubs and groups, and the take-up of such opportunities. A list of organisations and activities was therefore included in the school-level questionnaire, in order to assess what activities were actually on offer to students (see Chapter 5 for a fuller discussion of this information). The same list was presented to students in order to assess whether they were participating in the activities and clubs on offer. This section is concerned primarily with the take-up of activities by students, as illustrated in Table 9.3 below.

Table 9.3 Participation in clubs and groups

<i>In the last year have you taken part in...</i>	In school %	Out of school %
Sports clubs/teams	41	47
Art, drama, dancing or music clubs/groups	24	24
School/college councils	10	-
Computer clubs/groups	9	5
Environmental clubs/groups	4	5
Debating clubs/groups	4	2
Religious groups or organisations	3	9
Political clubs/groups	2	2
Human rights groups or organisations e.g. Amnesty International	2	2
Student Union	2	-
Scouts/Guides	1	9
Youth clubs	-	25
No response	39	27
N = 6909		

More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100

A total of 4226 respondents answered at least one item in this question.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

The findings from the first cross-sectional survey mirror those evident from the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002), in that the activity in

which students reported the highest participation rate (in and out of school) was a sports organisation or team: more than two-fifths (41 per cent) of all students said they participated in sports in school, and almost half (47 per cent) did so out of school. Around a quarter of students reported that they participated in art, drama, dancing or music clubs/groups in and out of school (24 per cent respectively). Overall, a quarter (25 per cent) of all students said they participated in a youth club out of school (most popular with Year 10 students and least popular with Year 12 students).

Student participation rates in other civic-related organisations or activities were low. Only nine per cent of students who responded to the cross-sectional survey said they were involved in scouts or guides out of school, which is a considerably smaller proportion than was reported in the national report from England's participation in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002). However, when the Year groups are taken separately, scouts and guides were most popular with the younger age groups: 16 per cent of Year 8, nine per cent of Year 10 and only one per cent of the post-16 students.

Only ten per cent of students overall had participated in a school council (similar proportions in each Year group). However, this could have been interpreted to mean 'acted as a council member', which is likely to be an activity only offered to a small number of students at any one time. It should be noted that 64 per cent said that they were given the *opportunity* to run their school through school councils, and a third (33 per cent) had elected council members.

Meanwhile, actual participation in civic-related organisations linked to conventional and non-conventional citizenship (see Chapter 8 for a definition of these two forms of citizenship) was particularly low. Only two per cent of all students reported participating in a political group or club out of school, and two per cent participated in such clubs in school. Similar proportions were involved in human rights organisations or clubs: two per cent out of school and two per cent in school. Slightly greater proportions of students were involved in religious groups (nine per cent out of school and three per cent in school) and environmental clubs (five per cent out of school and four per cent in school) although numbers were still small.

It should be noted that a considerable number of students did not respond to the question on participation in clubs and groups, as shown on Table 9.3 above, which could suggest they did not participate in any of the activities listed.

9.4.2 In-school citizenship-related activities

Students were asked whether they had participated in civic-related activities in school in the last year, such as mock general elections, electing council members and peer counselling or mentoring. Half of all students (51 per cent) had been involved in raising money for a good cause or charity: 57 per cent in Year 8, 52 per cent in Year 10 and 44 per cent of Year 12 students. Just over a

third (34 per cent) of all students had elected school council members in the last year (more often in Years 8 and 10 than Year 12).

A fifth (21 per cent) of all students had helped in the local community in the last year, although the level of involvement increased with age (possibly because of involvement in work experience): 16 per cent in Year 8, 22 per cent in Year 10 and 26 per cent post-16. Student participation rates in other school-based activities were low. For instance, eight per cent of students had taken part in peer mentoring, seven per cent had participated in mock elections, five per cent had been involved in student exchange programmes and four per cent had worked on a school newspaper (involvement in these activities increased very slightly for the older age groups).

Table 9.4 In-school citizenship-related activities

In the last year, have you taken part in any of these activities?	%
Raising money for a good cause or charity	51
Electing school/college council members	34
Helping in the local community	21
Counselling or mentoring other students	8
Mock general elections in college	7
A school or student exchange programme to another country	6
Working on the school/college newspaper/magazine	5
No response	28
N = 6909	

More than one answer could be given so percentages do not sum to 100

All those who were working for qualifications.

A total of 5055 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

9.4.3 The most important activity

Students were asked to suggest which organisation, activity or group that they had participated in was the most important one for them. Given the level of participation in activities, it was not surprising that by far the most important activity for students was sports clubs or teams (32 per cent of students overall). As expected, the second most important activity was art, drama, dancing or music clubs (15 per cent) followed by raising money for a good cause or charity (12 per cent). Other organisations and activities, such as political groups, human rights organisations, environmental clubs, school councils and helping in the community, were rarely chosen as the most important to students, which reflects the level of take-up in those activities.

9.5 Personal Benefits and Costs of Participation

In order to explore theories of rational action¹⁹ outlined in Chapter 1 of this report, and to determine whether the benefits of participation can affect likelihood of participation, the cross-sectional survey sought to investigate whether students felt there were personal benefits and/or costs of participating in voluntary activities. The **personal benefits** and **personal costs** associated with participation were assessed by exploring the responses to a number of statements, as illustrated in the tables below.

Table 9.5 Personal benefits of participation

<i>How much do you agree or disagree with each of these statements?</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
Doing voluntary work may help me to get a better job in the future	6	16	51	14	11	2
Doing lots of optional activities in school may help me to get into university	5	19	46	14	13	3
Taking part in optional activities is a good way of meeting interesting people	4	8	56	19	10	3
N = 6909						

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6766 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

Students appeared to believe that there were personal benefits associated with participation in voluntary activities. For instance, three quarters (75 per cent) of students thought that they could meet interesting people if they took part in optional activities and 65 per cent felt that doing voluntary work could help them get a job. Sixty per cent felt that participation could help them get into university. However, a greater proportion answered 'agree' than 'strongly agree'. It is also worth noting that a small minority strongly disagreed that there were personal benefits of participating.

¹⁹ Based on the work of Downs (1957) and Olson (1965), Pattie *et al.*, (2002) suggest that adults will only participate in political activities when the benefits of participation outweigh the costs. In addition, how effective their participation is in achieving the desired benefits has an important impact on whether or not the person chooses to participate.

Table 9.6. Personal costs of participation

<i>How much do you agree or disagree with each of these statements?</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
I am too busy to take part in optional activities in school or outside	15	43	25	7	8	3
My friends laugh at people who do voluntary work	20	38	18	9	13	3
Most of my friends think that doing voluntary work is a waste of time	13	34	22	10	18	3

N = 6909

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6766 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

As revealed in Table 9.6, a greater proportion of students disagreed than agreed that there were personal costs of participating. More than half disagreed that they were too busy to participate or that their friends laugh at people who do voluntary work, and almost half disagreed that their friends thought voluntary work was a waste of time. However, it is worth considering that around a third of students agreed with the statements, suggesting they thought there were personal costs associated with participation.

While it is impossible at this early stage to assess rational actor theories to any great extent, it is interesting to note that the cross-sectional survey found that the benefits, and to a lesser extent costs, of participation in voluntary activity are therefore important for young people. The longitudinal survey will go on to investigate students' perceptions of the costs, benefits and efficacy of different types of participation further.

9.6 School Efficacy

The cross-sectional study aimed to investigate the level of students' confidence in the effectiveness of participation at school – the extent to which students thought they could make a difference by participating in school activities. This notion was recognised in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002) and is termed *school efficacy*. This was important as students' sense of efficacy may impact on whether they choose to participate in school activities (or in activities generally). Responses to three items in particular were used to measure school efficacy, as illustrated in Table 9.7 below.

Table 9.7 School efficacy

<i>How much do you agree or disagree with each of these statements about your school/college?</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
Students have <i>little</i> say in how my school/college is organised and run	7	31	35	17	10	1
There are opportunities for students to be involved in running this school, through student councils	7	15	50	14	13	1
Students are often consulted when developing school policies	13	25	23	4	34	2
N = 6909						

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6850 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

Almost two-thirds of all respondents (64 per cent) agreed that students are given the opportunity to be involved in running their school through student councils (a slightly greater proportion of post-16 students than the other groups responded positively). However, only a third of students (33 per cent) reported that they had participated in electing council members. Moreover, only ten per cent of students reported that they had taken part in school councils, which is likely to have been interpreted to mean 'acted as council members'. However, it should be considered that acting as a council member is usually an activity only available to a small number of students at any one time. Nevertheless, it appears that the opportunity to participate in school councils exceeds take-up.

More than half of all students (52 per cent) agreed that students have *little* say in how their schools are organised and run, and just over a quarter (27 per cent) agreed that students are often consulted about the development of school policies. Interestingly, over one-third of students answered 'don't know' to the question about consultation on school policy, which suggests a considerable lack of awareness about student consultation.

The responses to the three items were combined in order to devise a total score for 'school efficacy'. Younger students (Year 8) appeared to have a stronger sense of school efficacy than the older ones. Moreover, girls seemed to have more confidence than boys had in their ability to make a difference to decision-making in school. Students who socialised with their friends on school/college days only occasionally (a few times a month at the most) had a stronger sense of school efficacy than was the case with students who socialised more regularly (at least once a week). Similarly, students who watched television relatively infrequently on school/college days had a

stronger sense of efficacy than was the case with students who watched television on a more regular basis.

9.7 Classroom Climate

A number of research studies have confirmed a link between opportunities for students to be involved in classroom discussion and levels of civic knowledge and trust (Torney *et al.*, 1975; Hahn, 1998; Ichilov, 1991). Student perceptions that they have opportunities to be involved in classroom discussion has been shown as an important predictor of civic knowledge and of participation in political activities both in and out of school (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002). Five items were used in the cross-sectional survey to investigate classroom climate. Students were asked to respond to each item on a four-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Table 9.8 Classroom climate

<i>What happens in your school/college?</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know	No response
Teachers/tutors respect our opinions and encourage us to express them during class	6	15	52	18	7	2
Teachers/tutors encourage us to discuss issues about which people have different opinions	4	14	54	13	13	3
Teachers/tutors present different sides of an issue when explaining it in class	3	10	58	14	12	3
Students bring up current political events for discussions in class	12	32	30	6	18	3
Teachers/tutors encourage us to talk in class about issues that are important to the local community	12	34	28	6	18	3

N = 6909

A series of single response items

Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always sum to 100

A total of 6802 respondents answered at least one item in this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, cross sectional survey 2002

Overall, the findings were positive, in the sense that students generally agreed that their classrooms were open environments. There was a strong belief among all groups of students (72 per cent agreed overall) that teachers present

different sides of an issue when explaining it in class. Post-16 students responded particularly positively to this statement (81 per cent of students in schools and 75 per cent in colleges agreed that teachers present different sides of issues). Teachers were also thought to respect students' opinions and to encourage them to express them during class (70 per cent of all students agreed with this, although post-16 students in particular, with 80 per cent of that age group agreeing). Moreover, more than two-thirds (67 per cent) of students overall (and post-16 students in particular) agreed that teachers encouraged them to discuss issues about which people have different opinions.

However, although the findings appear to be very positive, it should be noted that the proportion of students responding with 'strongly agree' was much smaller for each item than those responding with 'agree'. Moreover, although students reported that they were given the opportunity to discuss issues openly in class, there was little take-up of that opportunity. For instance, only just over a third of respondents agreed that students bring up current political events for discussion in class (36 per cent), as discussed further in Section 9.2.

Again, the responses to these items were combined to produce a score for 'open classroom climate'. Post-16 students were significantly more likely than other groups to respond that their classrooms were open environments in which they were encouraged to discuss their opinions. There was also a positive correlation between civic-knowledge and attitudes towards classroom climate: students with the highest knowledge scores were most likely to think of their classrooms as open environments. Moreover, girls appeared to be more positive than boys about the 'openness' of their classrooms. In addition, the more time students spent socialising with their friends on school/college days, the less likely they were to think their classrooms were open environments. Similarly, students who watched television for a number of hours per school/college day (more than five hours) were less likely than students who watched television infrequently to think of their classrooms as 'open'.

9.8 Summary

Political interest

Young people were only moderately interested in politics. Only a quarter agreed or strongly agreed with the statement '*I am interested in politics*'.

There was a positive relationship between political interest and civic knowledge. Background factors, such as home literacy resources, family education (particularly of fathers) and socio-economic status influenced levels of political interest, with those students scoring highest in these factors having the highest levels of political interest.

Discussions about politics

Students appeared to be involved in little discussion about politics, despite reporting that they received the opportunity to discuss political issues in class. The lack of discussion could be the result of a lack of interest in politics.

Expected participation in political activities

Voting in national elections was by far the most preferred intended form of participation, followed by collecting money for charity and voting in local elections. There was a correlation between civic knowledge and participation with students with the highest civic knowledge scores indicating they were more likely to participate in the future than other students. Background factors, such as home literacy resources, family education and home ownership, also impacted on rates of participation.

The majority of students do not intend to participate in conventional political activities (other than voting), such as joining a political party or becoming involved in local politics.

The proportion of young people who reported the intention to participate in any form of protest was small, although the likelihood of students participating in peaceful protest was greater than the likelihood of them participating in violent forms of protest. Boys were more likely than girls to intend to participate in violent protests.

Participation in clubs and groups

The most popular activity by far was sports, followed by participation in arts, drama, dancing or music clubs.

Participation in civic related organisations linked to conventional or non-conventional citizenship was low.

School efficacy

Students reported that they were given the opportunity to be involved in running their school through school councils, although participation was low. There was little student involvement in the development of school policies.

Classroom climate

Despite students reporting that their classrooms were relatively open environments, with the opportunity to discuss issues and opinions granted, there was little take-up of political discussion by students.

10. CONCLUSIONS AND WAYS FORWARD

10.1 First Cross-Sectional Survey in Context

This final chapter draws together the differing aspects and findings from the first cross-sectional survey, as set out in the preceding chapters. The primary aim of the survey was to find out about the situation concerning the development of citizenship education in schools in the academic year 2001-2002. The findings provide a unique baseline, concerning as they do the attitudes and practices of school leaders, teachers and students in the term prior to the formal introduction of citizenship. They highlight how schools and teachers were already approaching citizenship education, their degree of specific preparation and planning for September 2002 and how students conceived citizenship. This final chapter sets out the main conclusions from the analysis of the cross-sectional survey data.

In order to situate the findings from the first-cross sectional survey more closely with the context of policy and practice in citizenship education in England, links are made in this chapter to two particular kinds of research literature. The first literature type concerns research that speculates on the challenges that remain to be faced as the citizenship education policy initiative meets actual practice in schools (McLaughlin, 2000; Davies, 2000; Kerr, 2000; Crick, 2000; Potter, 2002). This research literature is highly pertinent because it addresses the cycle of policy reform that the Longitudinal Study is attempting to map, measure and assess. What is interesting is that the majority of the challenges identified by researchers and policy-makers, and discussed in Section 1.3 of this report, have been shown in the findings from the first cross-sectional survey to be real and highly topical for school leaders, teachers and young people. As the findings highlight, there are considerable issues that remain unresolved concerning: agreement on the definition, aims and purposes of citizenship education; its location in the curriculum; how citizenship education should be assessed and the relationship between schools and their local communities.

The second literature type to which links are made is research and evaluation studies carried out in the period from 1998 to 2002. (Halpern *et al.*, 2002; OFSTED, 2002). The aims of such studies are similar to those of the first cross-sectional survey in attempting to establish a baseline concerning the state of citizenship education practice and the preparedness of schools and teachers for statutory citizenship education from September 2002. There are particular references to the continuities and differences in findings between the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002; Kerr, 2002), which established an earlier baseline, and the first cross-sectional survey.

The chapter goes on to discuss the lessons learnt from the conduct of the cross-sectional survey and how these, combined with the main conclusions, will be used to inform the future progress of the Longitudinal Study. The first cross-sectional survey has played a vital role in shaping the approach to the study's four research components – future cross-sectional and longitudinal surveys, the longitudinal case studies and the literature review – as well as the analytical framework. How each of these components will be developed in the light of the first cross-sectional survey is considered in turn. Taken together this chapter sets out a clear agenda for taking the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study forward.

10.2 Main Findings and Discussion

10.2.1 Existing approaches to citizenship education in schools and colleges prior to September 2002

- ◆ Almost two-thirds (65 per cent) of school leaders had an existing agreed strategy for teaching citizenship education. They claimed to take a whole school approach and felt they were already delivering some of the new requirements for citizenship education. This approach encompassed school ethos and values as well as teaching and learning approaches in the classroom. Only just over one-tenth (11 per cent) of college leaders reported having an existing strategy for citizenship education.
- ◆ Citizenship education was most commonly taught, as reported by 90 per cent of school leaders, through citizenship-related modules in PSHE. Three-quarters of school leaders said they took a cross-curricular approach, with citizenship-related topics taught through religious education (RE), English, history, and geography. Over half of school leaders (57 per cent) stated that citizenship was taught through extra-curricular activities and one off events.
- ◆ Teachers and college tutors reported that teacher-led approaches to citizenship-related topics were predominant in the classroom, with more participatory, active approaches much less commonly used. Teachers relied on their own and media sources in their planning and had little or no experience of assessing student outcomes in relation to citizenship education. Just over four-fifths of teachers (83 per cent) and just under four-fifths of tutors (79 per cent) said they did not assess students in citizenship education.
- ◆ Schools provided many opportunities for students to be involved in active citizenship activities, such as school councils and clubs, both in and out of school. However, student take-up rates of these activities were low, with only 10 per cent of students having participated in a school council, and showed signs of decreasing with age as students moved through the school. Less than one-third of students (27 per cent) felt they were consulted when school policies were being developed.

The findings provide a unique baseline of the state of citizenship education in schools just prior to the formal introduction of statutory citizenship. They add immeasurably to the research base about existing approaches and practices in schools. The findings match those in other studies about the diversity of approaches to citizenship education taken by schools (Halpern *et al.*, 2002) and the different locations of citizenship in the curriculum. The strong links to PSHE, the range of subjects in which it is taught and the use of tutorial time and extra-curricular activities tally with earlier studies (Fogelman, 1990, 1991). They underline the fact that citizenship education is not new and that many schools were already doing something in this area prior to September 2002. However, this positive position needs to be set against the OFSTED judgement on the preparedness of schools for citizenship, based on a small sample of school inspections in 2001-2002 (OFSTED, 2002). The inspection findings, though small, led OFSTED to counsel schools not to be complacent about the extent to which their existing practice was sufficient to meet the new statutory requirements for citizenship.

The whole school approach mirrors the advice given by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) and DFES to senior managers in schools as to how to develop effective citizenship education practice and supports those who call for the promotion of citizenship schools (Alexander, 2001). However, the extent of the depth and coherence of such an approach in practice requires further investigation.

The reliance of teachers on teacher-led, didactic approaches was also highlighted in the IEA study (Kerr *et al.*, 2002; Kerr, 2002). This raises concerns as to how far students will gain experience of active citizenship, including discussion and debate, in schools and colleges (Potter, 2002). As Bernard Crick has made clear such active approaches are the lifeblood of effective citizenship education in engaging with and involving young people (Crick, 2000, 2002). The extent to which teachers can be encouraged and trained to use more active, participatory approaches in citizenship in the coming years remains to be seen.

10.2.2 Active citizenship in schools and colleges prior to September 2002

- ♦ The majority (95 per cent) of school leaders and all college leaders felt that there were good relationships between their school and the wider community. Almost three-quarters of school leaders (74 per cent) and two-thirds of college tutors (67 per cent) believed that students in their institutions were taught to contribute to solving problems in the community.
- ♦ School and college leaders were satisfied that the whole school was involved in discussion and decision making about school matters. However, only just over half the teachers (57 per cent) felt this way and less than a third of students (27 per cent) felt they were consulted when developing school policies.

- ♦ School councils were reported, by school leaders and students alike, as being widely available in schools. However only one-third of students reported participating in school council elections.
- ♦ Although school leaders widely reported extra curricular activities to be available to their students, only a small proportion of students took part. Citizenship-related activities such as mock elections, environmental, political, human rights and debating clubs had a particularly low up-take, with around five per cent of students participating in such activities. Student take-up rates showed signs of a decrease with age as students progressed through the school.

The findings support those in the IEA study in confirming that schools provide many existing opportunities for students to get involved in active citizenship experiences but that student take up rates of these opportunities is low (Kerr *et al.*, 2002). However, they reveal considerably more about the nature of those experiences and the levels of student take-up across the 11 to 18 age range than in any previous research. The reasons for the low level of student take up of participative opportunities requires further investigation, particularly with young people. The finding that student participation rates in school activities may decrease with age is particularly worrying. This has potential implications for the conduct and outcomes of the Post-16 Citizenship Education national evaluation, which is currently underway.

The disparity of views between school and college leaders and teachers and students concerning involvement in developing school policies also requires further investigation. It goes to the heart of the notion of *school efficacy* uncovered by the IEA study. *School efficacy* is the sense that students will participate in solving problems in schools that matter to them if they feel that their participation will help to improve things in school (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2001). Developing this notion of *school efficacy* among young people through their school experiences may be an important factor in their future civic and political behaviour. The extent to which the perceived lack of real consultation is weakening the current development of *school efficacy* in schools requires further exploration. It may be linked to the potential decrease in student participation in schools with age.

10.2.3 School, college and teacher preparedness and planning for the introduction of statutory citizenship education.

- ♦ While the majority of teachers (74 per cent) claimed to understand the aims and purposes of citizenship education, over one-third (38 per cent) were uncertain about the detail of the new curriculum that would be introduced in September 2002. There was limited familiarity with the key citizenship curriculum documents, such as the Curriculum Order and QCA schemes of work, and little or no familiarity with the key policy texts, notably the Crick Report and Post-16 report. College leaders and tutors were even more uncertain about the content of and background to the citizenship curriculum.

- ♦ A variety of delivery plans were found amongst the schools and colleges surveyed. Three quarters of schools (75 per cent) had already appointed a coordinator for citizenship education. However, rather than teaching citizenship in dedicated timeslots (reported by 15 per cent of schools), the majority of schools indicated that they planned to use existing expertise to deliver the curriculum through a range of subjects and areas such as RE and PSHE, and through tutorial periods. Just under half of the sample (48 per cent) stated that all staff would have some responsibility for delivering the citizenship curriculum.
- ♦ The majority of teachers (71 per cent) and college tutors (81 per cent) had not received any training in relation to citizenship education. In order to develop a better understanding of citizenship education, teachers favoured greater training opportunities, particularly concerning subject knowledge (89 per cent) and teaching and learning approaches (65 per cent).
- ♦ Few schools had definite policies for recognising student achievement at the time of the survey (11 per cent at key stage 3 and 8 per cent at key stage 4). However, three quarters of the sample stated that they planned to develop this in the future. Commonly used assessment strategies in those schools with assessment already underway included: written tasks and essays; student portfolios; observation and self-assessment.

These findings are new and add an extra dimension to the existing literature on citizenship education policy and practice in schools in England. They establish a strong, clear baseline concerning the attitudes and actions of school and college leaders and teachers just prior to the formal introduction of citizenship. They highlight continuities with findings from other recent studies (Halpern *et al.*, 2002; Kerr *et al.*, 2002; OFSTED, 2002). They confirm the suspicions of many researchers in this area about the diversity of understandings in schools and colleges as to what citizenship education is and how it should be approached (Frazer, 2000). The findings suggest the existence of a wide range of meanings and associated models of citizenship education in schools and colleges (Rowe, 1997; Scott and Lawson, 2001). Many of these meanings and models, given the lack of familiarity of school leaders and teachers with both the detail of the new citizenship curriculum and supporting policy documents, clearly pre-date the three strand definition of citizenship in the Crick Report (Crick, 1998).

The lack of knowledge and understanding of the key curriculum and policy documents by school and college leaders and teachers will be of concern to policy-makers. It underlines the considerable gap that exists between the policy aims for citizenship and the actual practice in schools. The gap between policy and practice is even more marked in post-16 education and training.

That plans were drawn up by school leaders with little or no consultation and cascaded down to teachers and students suggests that considerable challenges remain in facilitating teacher and student understanding and ownership of citizenship education. This is what McLaughlin terms achieving '*taxonomic bite*' in getting teachers to develop citizenship in line with the existing beliefs

and practices (McLaughlin, 2000). This lack of teacher ownership and understanding is compounded by a lack of training and development in relation to citizenship education for the majority of teachers. Teacher demands for more training highlight a number of priority areas where there is a need for short and medium term support and development.

The main challenges identified by school leaders and teachers match those researchers speculated would face the citizenship policy initiative as it met actual practice in schools and colleges (McLaughlin, 2000; Davies, 2000; Kerr, 2000; Crick, 2000). However, the potential difficulty of engaging and maintaining student interest is a new one that requires deeper exploration. The findings underline the major difficulty that schools currently face in deciding how, if at all, to assess and record student achievement. It will be interesting to monitor in the course of the Longitudinal Study the extent to which this and the other challenges remain short or long-term ones for citizenship education. Further investigation is also required into the relationship between these challenges and the competing definitions and models of citizenship education which currently exist in schools and colleges.

10.2.4 Attitudes to citizenship prior to September 2002

- ◆ Not all students knew what citizenship meant, however those who were able to define it did so in terms similar to the three interrelated strands of citizenship education as set out in the Crick Report. Citizenship, in students' responses, had four dimensions: community involvement, national, European and global identity, political literacy and awareness and social and moral responsibility.
- ◆ School leaders, teachers and college tutors recognise the importance of citizenship education for students and agree that schools have a central role to play in developing students' citizenship dimensions. They also support citizenship as a part of the formal curriculum.
- ◆ There is a considerable gap between the attitudes and experiences of school leaders, teachers and students to citizenship education. These groups all have noticeably different perceptions and experiences in relation to citizenship education. Students are much less positive about their experiences than teachers, and teachers less positive than school leaders. This gap may be related to the extent or lack of consultation about citizenship education policies and practices in schools, with control of such development resting largely with school managers at present.

The probing of what citizenship and citizenship education means to young people is a new and innovative feature of the survey. The findings add considerably to the sparse research literature, which focuses largely on adult and teacher perceptions of citizenship (Ichilov, 1991; Anderson *et al.*, 1997). They provide the opportunity in future surveys to gauge the extent to which student perceptions of the meaning of citizenship change with time and age. The findings suggest that, at present, students attribute a wide range of meanings to citizenship. This is in line with research findings into what

citizenship means to adults (Prior, 1999; Davies *et al.*, 1999). What influences student meanings of citizenship, the implications of such meanings for how students react to the introduction of citizenship in schools, and the extent to which teachers address student meanings in their planning and teaching of citizenship, are areas that require further investigation.

The findings concerning teacher attitudes to citizenship are similar to those that emerged from England's participation in the IEA Citizenship Education Study. They confirm continued school leader, teacher and college tutor support for the introduction of citizenship and recognition of the role that schools and colleges can play in preparing students to be active and informed citizens (Kerr *et al.*, 2002). The gap in perceptions about citizenship experiences in schools was also highlighted by the IEA study. However, the possible relationship of this gap to a lack of consultation in schools is something that requires further investigation. It would seem to support research that calls for schools to become more democratic and inclusive if meaningful citizenship education practices are to be developed (Alexander, 2001; Osler, 2000a and b; Potter, 2002).

10.2.5 Students' political and civic knowledge

- ◆ Students' political and civic knowledge is variable. For example, students have a good knowledge of equal opportunities and age-related rights, but are less well informed about democracy, the working of democratic institutions, the European Union and the electoral system.
- ◆ There was a significant relationship between educational background and civic knowledge. Those students with the highest number of books in the home, those whose parents' had degrees and those who intended to go on to university themselves gained the highest political and civic knowledge scores. For the Year 12 students those doing academic courses, gained the highest knowledge scores
- ◆ Students' home situation was also linked to civic knowledge, with those whose parents' owned their home gaining the highest scores.
- ◆ How students' spent their free time was also linked to political and civic knowledge. Students who socialised least on week nights and were moderate television viewers gained the highest scores.

The findings reinforce those from the IEA study but also add to the existing research base. They report on student attitudes across the 11 to 18 age range rather than just the attitudes of 14 year olds (as was the case in the IEA study) (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002). The findings raise the issue of the extent to which the introduction of the new citizenship curriculum will address gaps in students' existing political and civic knowledge and improve the depth and range of that knowledge over time. This is related to factors such as age and gender and it will be interesting to monitor any differences between girls and boys in this respect. The findings confirm the strong influence of social and economic contexts beyond schools on student development of citizenship dimensions such as knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour. They add to understanding of the nature of the relationship

between civic knowledge and predictors of such knowledge. They suggest, in particular, that it is not just socialising with friends and watching television news which predict civic knowledge but the frequency of involvement in such activities.

10.2.6 Attitudes to civic institutions and groups in society

- ♦ Young people clearly felt that citizenship hinged on obeying the law and contributing towards their communities. They were, however, less likely to support conventional participation activities such as joining a political party and writing to a newspaper.
- ♦ Overall, the level of trust the young people granted politicians, government-related institutions and international political organisations was low, though students showed higher levels of trust in the criminal justice system: the police and the courts.
- ♦ Television and radio news broadcasts were trusted more than news reports in the papers. However, girls generally showed less trust in the news media than boys.
- ♦ Family was accorded the greatest levels of trust by students, with the majority stating that they trusted their family completely or quite a lot. Students' trust in their immediate social groups (family, neighbours, teachers and peers) was, in the main, higher than their trust in the news media, the criminal justice system and government institutions.
- ♦ In particular, a small but significant minority of students showed support for the prioritisation of men's working rights over women's; an action which would breach UK and European employment laws. Male respondents and those from non-white ethnic backgrounds were more likely to support this view. This raises the issue of how schools deal with this significant minority and the circumstances which give rise to such views.

These findings are in line with those in the IEA Citizenship Education Study concerning low student interest in conventional participation, and levels of trust and engagement with the media. They underline the high levels of trust that students' have of their families. The relationship between family and school influence on students' development of citizenship dimensions is an area that requires further exploration. The concerns about the discriminatory views held by a minority of students, echo those in the IEA study, but offer greater insights into the background of these students. This is an area that needs to be followed up in future surveys.

10.2.7 Student attitudes to civic engagement and participation

- ♦ Young people were only moderately interested in politics. Only a quarter agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'I am interested in politics'. However, there was a positive relationship between political interest and civic knowledge.

- ◆ Students were involved in little discussion about political and topical issues in their lives, despite reporting that they received the opportunity to discuss political issues in class. This lack of discussion could be linked to a lack of interest in politics.
- ◆ Voting in national elections was by far the most preferred intended political activity, with two-thirds of all students saying they would vote in national elections, followed by collecting money for charity (63 per cent of all students) and voting in local elections (62 per cent). However, over two-thirds of students do not intend to participate in conventional political activities (other than voting), such as joining a political party or becoming involved in local politics.
- ◆ The proportion of young people who reported the intention to participate in any form of protest was small, although the likelihood of students participating in peaceful protest was greater than the likelihood of them participating in violent forms of protest. Boys were more likely than girls to intend to participate in violent protests.
- ◆ The most popular activity for student participation in voluntary organisations by far was sports, followed by participation in arts, drama, dancing or music clubs. However student participation in civic related organisations linked to conventional or non-conventional citizenship was low, with less than one-fifth of students reporting such participation.
- ◆ Students reported that they were given the opportunity to be involved in running their school through school councils, although participation was low. There was also little student involvement in policy development in schools and colleges, with just over one-quarter of students (27 per cent) reporting such involvement.
- ◆ Despite students reporting that their classrooms were relatively open environments, with the opportunity to discuss issues and give opinions, only 36 per cent of students stated that students brought up political events for discussion in class.

Many of these findings correspond with those from the IEA study. Above all, they confirm a number of key assumptions which underpin the conduct of the Longitudinal Study. These key assumptions include a recognition that young people's development of citizenship dimensions – knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, beliefs and behaviour – is a complex process which is influenced by a myriad of contexts, factors and actors, and that the contexts of school and community are particularly powerful influences on such development. The findings underline the scepticism of young people not only about traditional forms of civic and political engagement but also about involvement in other types of civic and social activities. This scepticism and low levels of interest and participation applies both in school and community settings. It confirms the need for the Longitudinal Study to investigate the reasons for these current attitudes and behaviours and to evaluate the extent to which the introduction of the new citizenship curriculum in schools brings about any changes.

10.3 Ways Forward

Having now completed the first cross sectional survey of the Longitudinal Citizenship Education Study, it is useful to take stock and reflect on the study's overall aims and objectives, and how these can best be achieved in practice. The cross-sectional survey has played a vital role in informing the development of the analytical framework and has provided the research team with greater insight into the roles of the different components of the Longitudinal Study. It has therefore performed a central role in the process of reflecting on and rethinking the ways forward for the study.

The analytical framework, outlined in Chapter 1, provides a means of modelling the overall process of citizenship education. The framework was designed to help to explore how the four research components of the Longitudinal Study – the cross-sectional surveys, the longitudinal surveys, the case studies and the literature review - can improve our understanding of the short and long term effects of citizenship education. It has helped the NFER research team, with the assistance of the study's consultants, to begin to unpack and explore the complex and diverse contexts in which young peoples' experiences of citizenship education are positioned. While the Longitudinal Study will be able to gain considerable insight into the differing ways in which schools, teachers and young people approach and experience the introduction of the statutory requirement to citizenship education, an important function of the analytical framework is to draw attention to the fact that many of the factors which are found to affect young peoples' perceptions of, attitudes to and experiences of citizenship, may not be influenced by, or have the potential to be altered by, citizenship education.

The analytical framework does not provide a set formula for how citizenship education works. It is a flexible and constantly developing framework which will adapt and change as the research team's understanding of citizenship education, and its wider social contexts, improves over the duration of the study. At the time of the design of the first cross-sectional survey, the analytical framework was very much in its infancy; indeed the survey has been fundamental to the framework's development. The design, implementation and the analysis of the cross-sectional survey has greatly informed the analytical framework. The research team, in collaboration with the study's two consultants, examined the ways in which the variables and potential outcomes of the cross-sectional survey fit with models used by political scientists to understand citizenship and political participation for adults. The emergent hypotheses, were then positioned within the current educational context using the shared experience and expertise of the NFER's research team and the study's consultants. The research team has begun to explore these hypotheses in this report and they will be tested and developed further in future analysis and surveys.

Having established the role that the first cross-sectional survey and the analytical framework have played in each other's development, it is now possible to move forward to consider the ways in which both components have framed and guided our reflections on future research strategies.

The first cross-sectional survey and the analytical framework have helped to clarify the focus and design of the first longitudinal survey (currently underway in schools), and will, in turn, impact on future survey instruments. Most significantly, our experience of using both components has revealed some of the unforeseen limitations of survey instruments and has contributed towards their improved design. Details are presented below:

10.3.1 Longitudinal and future cross-sectional survey variables

Survey variables which have been developed:

- ♦ *School efficacy* (the extent to which young people feel they have a voice in their school). This concept was first examined in the IEA Citizenship Education Study and the cross-sectional survey included one question on school efficacy which worked well. The first longitudinal student questionnaire will examine this variable in greater detail using revised items.
- ♦ *Political efficacy* (the extent to which young people feel they have a voice in society). One question in the first cross-sectional survey looked at this concept. The first longitudinal survey uses a revised version of this question.
- ♦ *Interest in politics*. Only one item in the first cross-sectional survey examined political interest. The first longitudinal survey uses a series of questions to address this variable.
- ♦ *Media use and exposure*. One question in the first cross-sectional survey addressed television, video and DVD use. The first longitudinal survey addresses additional types of media use.
- ♦ *Costs and benefits of participation*. The first cross-sectional survey examined the costs and benefits of participation in voluntary activities. The first longitudinal survey will look at the costs and benefits of other types of participation.

Survey variables which have been added:

During the development of the analytical framework it became evident that future surveys would benefit from the collection of information on additional variables. This was necessary in order to test some of the key political participation models developed in the study of adults. The variables that have been included in the first longitudinal survey, and are likely to be included in future research instruments are:

- ♦ Previous educational achievement.
- ♦ Parental occupation.
- ♦ Community/neighbourhood characteristics.
- ♦ Feelings about free time (i.e. whether young people feel they have too much or too little).

- ◆ Partisanship (i.e. the extent to which young people support a political party).
- ◆ Marginalisation (i.e. the extent to which young people feel they are able or unable to make their voices heard).
- ◆ Policy dissatisfaction (i.e. the extent to which young people feel that the way their schools and society are run is satisfactory or not satisfactory).

10.3.2 Practical questionnaire design issues

The ways in which the first cross-sectional questionnaire informed the practical design of the first longitudinal questionnaire related to two issues: length and question format/content:

Length

The Year 8 cross-sectional survey provided the research team with an indicator of how well the younger Year 7 students, that will complete the first longitudinal survey, would be able to cope with such involvement. During the design of the cross-sectional questionnaire there were concerns that it would be too long for the Year 8 students. Although there was a drop off towards the end of the questionnaire in the number of questions that students completed, this was not much greater for the Year 8 respondents than for the Year 10 or Year 12 students. Nevertheless, due to the fact that the longitudinal questionnaire was necessarily longer (in order to incorporate new variables), the team continued to monitor the length of the new questionnaires at all times.

Question format/content

In addition to question modification and in order to include the new variables that the NFER team wished to investigate in the first longitudinal survey, certain questions from the cross-sectional questionnaire were modified. For example, several knowledge questions were removed due to potential concerns about ambiguity of meaning. The wording of a number of questions was also changed in order to make them more accessible to younger students.

10.3.3 Case study design

The first cross-sectional survey and the analytical framework have additionally informed the case study design. The analytical framework has helped the research team to recognise the range of individual level, school level and societal level contexts that affect the process of citizenship education. The results of the first cross-sectional survey provide an initial indication and exploration of this process in action. Information from the responses of the school and college leaders, the teachers and college tutors and the students who took part in the first cross-sectional survey have been collated in order to create a profile of each school. The case studies, which will explore a range of issues and phenomena in greater depth at the individual school level, will therefore be nested within, and informed by, these findings and insights.

10.3.4 Literature review

The literature review will be further developed in the light of the first cross-sectional survey findings and will be used both to inform the development of the analytical framework and future research instruments. It will help to situate the longitudinal study and, in particular, the findings from the first cross-sectional survey, within a wider base of evidence about policy, practice and research in citizenship education.

10.4 Concluding Comments

Citizenship education in England has come a long way in a remarkably short space of time. The current Citizenship initiative has set itself the far-reaching goal, namely 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’. (Crick Report, pp. 7-8)

The introduction of Citizenship as a new statutory National Curriculum subject for students age 11 to 16 in schools in England from September 2002 marks an historic step in this process. Citizenship seeks to make a significant contribution to the conditions necessary for this change in political culture to take place. Bernard Crick, chair of the Citizenship Advisory Group, has stated publicly his belief that Citizenship is a ‘radical agenda’, and one that will take many years, and perhaps a generation of students, before it is possible to judge the extent of its success (Crick, 2000, 2002).

This is where the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study comes into its own. The study has been commissioned specifically by DfES to investigate the short-term and long-term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour of pupils. This report on the first cross-sectional survey marks an important milestone in terms of both the Longitudinal Study, and the on-going context of policy, practice and research in citizenship education. The report is important in three respects. First, it signals that the Longitudinal Study is truly underway with real instruments, data and findings, which both build from and enhance the existing research and knowledge base. Secondly, it provides a unique baseline of student, teacher and school leader attitudes and actions just prior to the formal introduction of Citizenship into the curriculum in September 2002. The value of this baseline will become more apparent as the study progresses. It has already revealed some interesting findings in relation, for example, to levels of teacher awareness about the citizenship initiative and existing school approaches to citizenship education and student conceptions of citizenship. Thirdly, it establishes strong foundations upon which the future conduct of the

study can be taken forward with growing confidence. The analytical framework, in particular, provides an important anchor for the study's four research components. It enables the identification of the models and theories about civic knowledge, engagement and participation which can be tested through the study.

Though the findings from the first cross-sectional study need to be treated with some caution at this stage, they nevertheless provide important pointers for the development of effective policy and practice in citizenship education in both pre and post-16 contexts. As such, the findings need to be made more widely available so that they can be considered and acted upon immediately by policy-makers, practitioners in schools and colleges and researchers.

It is perhaps fitting to leave the last word in this report to a student. For ultimately, through their experiences and actions, it is young people who will determine the degree of success of the current Citizenship initiative. As a Year 8 student (age 12 or 13) replied when asked '*What is citizenship?*':

'To me it doesn't mean anything!! But later when I'm older, I will know'.

This sentiment encapsulates the essence of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. It will be fascinating to follow this student and to discover what his/her answer to the same question is when in Year 12 or equivalent (i.e. when aged 17 or 18). The study affords the unique opportunity to follow up such student sentiments in the coming years and to ascertain precisely what the words '*I will know*' turn out to mean in practice. But the study goes beyond this. It also looks to explore what has influenced student conceptions and the extent to which they impact on young people's engagement with and participation in civic and political life. The conduct and findings of the first cross-sectional survey offer some important pointers in this respect.

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