

# VISION versus PRAGMATISM: Citizenship in the Secondary School Curriculum in England

## Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Fifth Annual Report

David Kerr, Joana Lopes, Julie Nelson, Kerensa White,  
Elizabeth Cleaver, Tom Benton  
National Foundation for Educational Research

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The views expressed in this report are the authors' and do not necessarily reflect those of the Department for Education and Skills.

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# Executive summary

## Introduction

NFER is carrying out a nine year evaluation of citizenship education in England on behalf of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study (hereafter, the Study) began in 2001 and is tracking a cohort of young people from age 11 to 18, who entered secondary school in September 2002 and became the first students to have a statutory entitlement to citizenship education.

The latest research and evaluation evidence suggests that while the potential for citizenship to contribute to recent general education policy drives is in place, in particular *personalised learning* and *participation* in the classroom, school and community, there is still some distance to go if this potential is to be fulfilled in practice.

In recognition of this implementation gap, a number of recent high profile recommendations to policy makers have suggested direct ways forward for citizenship education (see DfES, 2007; OFSTED, 2006). These include the recommendations that citizenship education should:

- be delivered discretely
- be further formalised by the creation of a full subject GCSE
- have clear progression routes from GCSE to AS/A2 courses for 16-19 year olds.

Yet such structural aspects of delivery may not necessarily guarantee the success of citizenship education. Indeed, they could prove counter to the current push to widen schools' understandings of citizenship and the role it can play in facilitating wider policy implementation. The report from which this summary derives outlines in detail why this is the case by addressing 5 key research questions (RQs):

RQ1 What are the main models of delivery of citizenship education and the factors which underpin these delivery models?

RQ2 How far is the delivery process developing and changing as citizenship education becomes more embedded in the curriculum?

RQ3 What are practitioners' views on citizenship education (its implementation, staffing and delivery) and on related training (its availability, quality and applicability)?

RQ4 What are the models or strands of delivery which appear to be most effective?

RQ5 How far can the delivery of citizenship education contribute to the wider educational policy agenda (e.g. *participation* and *personalised learning*)?

Key findings in relation to each of the research questions are summarised in turn below.

### **Summary of findings**

*RQ1 - What are the main models of delivery of citizenship education and the factors which underpin these delivery models?*

An updated typology of school approaches to citizenship education reveals that there are four main types or models of delivery of citizenship education, underpinned by a range of visions and philosophies for citizenship. These are encapsulated in the differing starting-points or key drivers for citizenship in schools. They range from a narrow interpretation of citizenship as being curriculum based and driven, to a broader view which sees citizenship as encompassing participation and promoting student efficacy in and beyond schools, through drivers which are linked to the wider education policy agenda:

**School type 1 – curriculum driven citizenship** – provides a firm grounding of citizenship education in the curriculum but is less strong in the areas of participation and has inconsistent levels of student efficacy.

**School type 2 – student efficacy driven citizenship** – has a sound or high level of student efficacy in the school, but is weak on student take up in extra-curricular activities and its delivery of citizenship through the curriculum.

**School type 3 – participation driven citizenship** – has higher than average levels of student participation but its students feel low levels of efficacy and the importance placed on citizenship as a curriculum subject is average.

**School type 4 – citizenship-rich driven citizenship** – in which students not only express high levels of efficacy and show high levels of participation, but citizenship education is also viewed as a strong and central subject within the curriculum.

Methods of delivery vary within schools, but citizenship is most likely to be delivered through PSHE (used in almost two-thirds of schools), as a dedicated ‘discrete delivery’ timetable slot (used in almost one-third of schools), and/or through a cross-curricular approach involving a range of subjects as well as tutorials and assemblies (used in almost half of schools).

A school’s particular choice of delivery model and method stems from a mixture of vision and philosophy about citizenship combined with pragmatic

decisions about how such vision and philosophy can play out in practice. Each model balances vision and pragmatics.

*RQ2 - How far does the delivery process develop and change as citizenship education becomes more embedded in the curriculum?*

Four years after its statutory introduction into the secondary curriculum, policy and practice in citizenship education in schools is still evolving. However, this evolution is not only related to the embedding of citizenship in the curriculum but is also influenced by a range of other factors. The interplay of these factors is complex and multi-layered, dependent on personalities, contexts and policies within and beyond schools. These factors include:

- schools becoming more familiar with the programmes of study;
- staff expertise continuing to develop;
- wider education policy developments such as the National Strategies and initiatives such as personalised learning;
- links with the community;
- school-level factors related to whole-school planning, self-evaluation, target setting and the use of curriculum time, staff and resources.

The updated typology of school approaches to citizenship confirms the evolution that has taken place. It is reassuring in terms of evolution to see that the largest group of schools in the updated typology (over one-third), are those that are attempting to provide a ‘*citizenship-rich*’ school experience which develops citizenship through the curriculum as well as promoting opportunities for students to participate and make a difference in and beyond the school.

Yet while certain elements of citizenship’s infrastructure are clearly improving (namely: growth in assessment planning; less reliance on textbooks; growing staff expertise; increasing whole-school approaches), in other more intangible aspects (such as its status, credibility and visibility, particularly in relation to whole-school policy initiatives) it is falling behind.

Although citizenship is still evolving and its infrastructure is consolidating, it could be in danger of losing ever more ground to wider initiatives as they gather pace, have more resources and incentives attached, demand more staff time and are more explicit priorities for policy makers and, thus, for school leaders and inspectors.

*RQ3 - What are practitioners’ views on citizenship education (its implementation, staffing and delivery) and on related training (its availability, quality and applicability)?*

Teachers tend to associate effective citizenship delivery with a supportive school ethos, assemblies and extra-curricular activities. Case study interviews reveal the importance of an enthusiastic teaching team with subject and teaching and learning expertise.

While practitioners recognise the importance of training for citizenship, and value training when they receive it, they are also realistic about the challenges of accessing and applying quality training in the current school climate.

The Study confirms that four years on from the introduction of statutory citizenship over half of teachers teaching citizenship have still not received any citizenship-related training.

This lack of training impacts on their levels of confidence in relation to assessment and reporting, teaching methods and subject matter. It is no coincidence that there is some correlation between the topics teachers feel least confident teaching about (such as the European Union (EU) and voting and elections), and those topics that students report as least relevant to their lives and interests. Similarly, there is a correlation between those topics teachers feel most confident teaching about (such as rights and responsibilities and different cultures and ethnic groups) and those topics that students report as most relevant to their lives and interests.

*RQ4 - What are the models or strands of delivery which appear to be most effective?*

If effectiveness is measured in relation to **coverage of the national curriculum programme** of study, all the case-study schools report that they are stronger in covering some topics in the citizenship programmes of study than others. Political literacy is an area of particular weakness due to teachers' lack of confidence in the subject matter and the fact it is perceived to be dry and difficult to teach.

Schools that have chosen to follow the GCSE short-course in citizenship report that they are more likely to cover more elements of the citizenship programmes of study than those schools that do not follow the course. But the planned nature of the GCSE examination syllabus can make it more difficult to introduce varied and interactive teaching and learning approaches at Key Stage 4.

If effectiveness is measured in terms of **status, visibility and credibility amongst staff and students** then teaching citizenship as a discrete subject succeeds in meeting many of these challenges face on. It increases the status and visibility of the subject; encourages the use of a team of specialist teachers to teach it; improves the coverage of the National Curriculum programmes of

study; increases the chance of using the citizenship GCSE short course, and encourages the development of assessment plans and practices.

If effectiveness is measured according to **student experience and skills development** students report that the best form of delivery is as a discrete element of the curriculum: as a separate subject or through modules in PSHE. These delivery methods are more likely to provide opportunities for active and interactive teaching and learning approaches based around discussion, debate, group work and the use of ICT.

The **least effective delivery method**, reported by teachers and students, is where citizenship is delivered through a cross-curricular approach, involving a range of subjects as well as tutorials and assemblies. This can lead to uneven and inconsistent delivery because larger numbers of non-specialist staff are involved by default. Teaching therefore often has to involve materials prepared by others to use in lessons.

Although delivery of citizenship as a discrete subject appears to have many natural advantages to recommend it as a preferred model for all schools, it should be recognised that it can:

- encourage more traditional teaching and learning approaches that limit the ability to introduce active/interactive methods;
- promote more traditional assessment practices based around tests and examinations that limit opportunities for self-assessment and peer assessment and;
- limit flexibility, through the topics covered, to be able to respond to current and topical events as they arise.

Ultimately, the experiences of our Study schools suggest that delivery model is not the only determining factor as to the effectiveness of citizenship. Rather, any model of delivery, whether it be discrete, through PSHE modules or cross-curricular, is likely to be effective if citizenship:

- is taught by small, dedicated teams
- has strong and clear leadership and direction
- is well supported through up-to-date, accessible lesson plans and resources.

*RQ5 - How far can the delivery of citizenship education contribute to the wider policy agenda (e.g. participation and personalised learning)?*

The potential links between citizenship education and wider policy initiatives is not exploited to the full. Indeed, these wider initiatives may be increasing the challenges facing citizenship, as in some schools such links may not be

recognised, resulting in a perception that they are in competition with each other for scarce resources.

What links there are, tend to be implicit rather than explicit, and teachers, students and citizenship co-ordinators may not be consciously aware of them. The implicit nature of the contribution of citizenship to these wider policy initiatives is evidenced through some of the subtle shifts that are taking place in approaches to the citizenship delivery which dovetail with their tenor and direction. Such developments showcase the contribution that citizenship can make to such wider initiatives, including:

- a move to more active teaching and learning approaches based around discussion, debate and small group work;
- increased opportunities for student voice in and beyond classrooms;
- increased use of ICT;
- the use of a wider range of assessment techniques involving self-assessment, peer assessment and presentations.

To offset any competition between citizenship education and general educational policy initiatives it is imperative that the connections between them are made explicit to all involved.

### **Final comment**

An emphasis on increased discrete delivery, more specialist teachers, stronger leadership, more active and interactive teaching and learning approaches and clearer standards, will contribute to, but not necessarily guarantee, the effective delivery of citizenship in schools.

Also required is recognition of the need to address the structural challenges facing citizenship in schools. Without this, any proposed revisions to the delivery of citizenship education will merely exchange the current set of implementation challenges with a different set. Schools would then be left to find a new balance between vision and pragmatism as they approach any proposed revisions from the starting point of their current delivery model.

### **Design and methods**

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

- a longitudinal survey of a cohort of Year 7 students tracking the whole year group through Years 9 and 11 and 13 (or equivalent when they are aged 18), their schools and their teachers

- four cross-sectional surveys of Year 8, 10 and 12 students, their schools and their teachers
- longitudinal school case studies
- a literature review.

The findings in this summary are from the third sweep of the Study's cross-sectional survey. A nationally representative sample of 212 schools and 43 colleges in England completed the survey during the spring term of 2005-6. Visits were also made to 12 case-study schools in the spring and summer terms of 2006. The case-study schools, whilst not nationally representative, are illustrative of the range of different approaches to, and experiences of, citizenship education.





# 1. Introduction, context and report focus

## 1.1 Background to the study

NFER is carrying out a nine year evaluation of citizenship education in England on behalf of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). The *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study* (hereafter, the Study) began in 2001 and is tracking a cohort of young people from age 11 to 18, who entered secondary school in September 2002 and became the first students to have a statutory entitlement to citizenship education<sup>1</sup> (QCA, 1999). The research design of the Study is based on four interrelated components<sup>2</sup>:

- A longitudinal survey of a cohort of Year 7<sup>3</sup> students tracking the whole Year 7 group through Years 9 and 11 and 13 (or equivalent when they are aged 18), their schools and their teachers
- Four cross-sectional surveys of Year 8, 10 and 12 students, their schools and their teachers
- Longitudinal school case studies
- A literature review.

Being longitudinal in nature, the study has a number of advantages compared to other reports on citizenship in England, particularly those from OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education) and QCA (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority) which are often based on one evidence sweep. These advantages include:

- Rich and deepening sources of evidence as the study progresses based on a number of sweeps of a nationally representative sample of schools.
- A mixture of quantitative (survey) and qualitative (school case-study) data sources that enable the exploration of what is happening, at a national level, supplemented by evidence of some of the reasons why, at a local, school level.

<sup>1</sup> Citizenship is currently part of a non-statutory framework for personal, social and health education (PSHE) and citizenship at Key Stages 1 and 2 (pupils age 5-11) and a new statutory foundation subject at Key Stages 3 and 4 (students age 11 to 16). Schools have therefore been legally required to deliver citizenship education for all 11 to 16 year olds from September 2002.

<sup>2</sup> See Appendix 1 for further details about the aims and outcomes (to date) of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study.

<sup>3</sup> In terms of age of students and year groups the following classification applies in schools in England. Year 7 students age 11-12, Year 8 age 12-13, Year 9 age 13-14, Year 10 age 14-15, Year 11 age 15-16, Year 12 age 16-17, Year 13 age 17-18.

- A chance to return to schools on a regular basis to survey and interview school leaders, teachers and students.
- A broad definition of citizenship, in line with the Crick Report (Advisory Group, 1998), that encompasses approaches to citizenship in the curriculum as well as to active citizenship in the school and wider community.
- An opportunity to determine the focus of each annual report, in order to meet the study's aims and objectives, while remaining relevant to on-going policy debates and initiatives.
- A chance to build up a record or picture over time, of changes to the approach and delivery of citizenship in schools from 2001 to 2006. This enables the latest findings to be situated in, and commented on, in relation to this broader timeframe.

It is hoped that these advantages increase the usefulness of the study and its outcomes to policy-makers, practitioners and researchers as the study progresses to its conclusion in 2010.

This is the study's fifth annual report and it adds to, and builds from, the findings in the previous four. The first annual report (Kerr *et al.*, 2003) provided a baseline of knowledge about the provision of citizenship education in 2001, prior to its statutory implementation in 2002. The second annual report (Kerr *et al.*, 2004) established a baseline of the attitudes of students, teachers and school leaders to citizenship education in the first year of statutory citizenship in 2002. It also provided a typology of initial school approaches to the new statutory subject. The third annual report (Cleaver *et al.*, 2005) focused specifically on students' experiences, understandings and views of citizenship and wider citizenship issues. Finally, the study's fourth annual report (Ireland *et al.*, 2006) had a particular focus on active citizenship and young people. This was a direct response to a growing recognition of the link between citizenship education in schools and wider policy initiatives which attempt to increase the participation and engagement of children and young people in society. In particular the report focused in on one of the five key outcomes of the *Every Child Matters: Change for Children* programme (HM Government, 2004): that whatever their background or circumstances, children should have the support they need to *make a positive contribution*.

This latest report, the fifth annual report, draws on a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data from two study components. The quantitative data is drawn from the **third sweep of the cross-sectional survey** involving 6360 students in Year 8, 9 and 10, 915 teachers and tutors, and 258 school leaders from 287 schools and colleges. It provides the latest update on citizenship education developments in secondary schools in England. The qualitative data comes from in-depth interviews with key stage 3 and 4 students (age 11 to 16), teachers and senior managers in **twelve longitudinal case-study schools**. The

interviews enable a more in-depth probing of the reasons and factors that lie behind citizenship education developments in schools. Reference is also made, for the purposes of comparison over time, to quantitative data from the second sweep of the cross-sectional survey (2004) of students in Years 8, 10 and 12 (Cleaver *et al.*, 2005). Further details about the survey methodology, sample information and characteristics of the case-study schools, are provided in Appendix 2.

## 1.2 Evolving policy context and evidence base

One of the challenges in conducting the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study is to ensure that it continues to take account of, and to be informed by, relevant policy developments and the growing evidence base for citizenship education. The policy context includes both the general education policy agenda as well as that more specifically related to citizenship education. The evidence base for citizenship encompasses a range of review, research and evaluation evidence which situates some of these key policy thrusts within wider developments in the practice and implementation of citizenship education.

### 1.2.1 The policy context

The policy context within which citizenship education is approached in schools in England in 2007 is somewhat different from that in 2001, when the study commenced. This changing context affects not only curriculum delivery, but also whole-school approaches and links between schools and their wider communities. Policy has continued to evolve rapidly in the year since the publication of the fourth annual report. To contextualise this latest report, relevant policy documents, guidance, programmes and agendas are outlined briefly below.

- The *Every Child Matters: Change for Children* (HM Government, 2004) programme seeks to achieve five outcomes in ensuring that all children and young people ***be healthy, stay safe, enjoy and achieve, make a positive contribution*** and ***achieve economic well-being***, through more integrated children's services, and support for change, particularly at a local level. The programme of change is based on a multi-agency partnership between government and statutory, voluntary, private and community sectors.
- The *Personalised Learning* (DfES, 2004) agenda promotes the development of five components: ***assessment for learning; effective teaching and learning; curriculum entitlement and choice; organising the school*** and ***beyond the classroom***; in order that education can be tailored to individual need, interest and aptitude, 'to ensure that every pupil achieves and reaches the highest standards possible' (DfES, 2007).

- The *5-Year Strategic Plan and National Strategies Programme* (DfES, 2006) sets out an ambitious programme of change in education, including schools. The programme has four key aims: *raising standards of achievement for children and young people; improving quality of teaching and learning in all schools; improving the leadership and management of schools* and *ensuring that Local Authorities exercise effectively their strategic school improvement functions*. There is a specific *Secondary National Strategy* designed to support schools to address the learning needs of 11 to 14 year olds. Though a whole-school strategy addresses issues such as pupil participation, particular emphasis is placed on the core subjects of English, mathematics, science and ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) rather than the foundation subjects such as citizenship. The strategies programme also focuses on continuing professional development (CPD) for school leaders and their staff and promotes the notion of '*blended learning*' in CPD. This involves complementing traditional face-to-face development with access to on-line learning and web-based materials.
- *Working Together* (DfES, 2004) guidance which advises schools on the ways in which children and young people can be involved in, and consulted on, many school issues. This is closely related to the notion of developing *student/pupil voice* in schools and providing real opportunities for students to participate in decision-making processes.

A closer inspection of the policy agenda reveals considerable overlap between the various initiatives. These overlaps centre around: enhancing pupil voice and participation; encouraging whole system programme change; focusing on curriculum review and revision; improving teaching and learning approaches; strengthening initial teacher training and CPD and using research and evaluation evidence to inform the policy process.

However, there are also potential disconnections between the initiatives and the development of citizenship education which could lead to competing priorities for action in schools. Most obvious, perhaps, is the lack of explicit mention of citizenship in general education policy. Rather, the emphasis is on implicit aspects of citizenship concerning participation, pupil voice, whole-school issues, diversity, community cohesion and community links. It is, more often than not, left to schools to make the connection between citizenship education as a National Curriculum subject, and these aspects of general education policy and then to determine the extent of citizenship's contribution to these broad policy thrusts, and vice-versa.

### **1.2.2 The Growing Evidence Base**

The fourth annual report of this Study (Ireland *et al.*, 2006) concluded that the evidence base for citizenship education '*is being strengthened all the time. Many of the previous gaps in knowledge and understanding are rapidly being filled*' (p. 3). This has continued apace over the last year. Since this statement

was made in 2006, a series of reviews of citizenship education have been completed and published. Each of these reviews has a different starting point, and as such collates and provides evidence on different elements of citizenship education. Taken together, these documents help to establish a growing knowledge and evidence base on the reality of citizenship education in schools. They therefore form a useful starting point for the Study's fifth annual report. Key reviews concerning citizenship education are outlined below:

- The *Secondary Curriculum Review* (QCA, 2007) suggests changes to the National Curriculum at Key Stage 3 in all subjects in order to make the curriculum *more flexible, less prescriptive* and *more tailored to the needs of individual students*. The review is currently underway and will lead to the issue of new statutory programmes of study in all subjects in Autumn 2007 to be taught in schools from September 2008. In particular it outlines a more streamlined programme of study for citizenship at Key Stage 3, including an *importance of citizenship* statement and the identification of a number of:
  - **key concepts** – democracy and justice, rights and responsibilities, identities and diversity: Living Together in the UK, critical thinking and
  - **key processes** – critical thinking and enquiry, taking informed and responsible action and advocacy and representation.

Proposals for the new curriculum include three overarching aims for all young people through citizenship to become:

- successful learners who enjoy learning, make progress and achieve
- confident individuals who are able to live safe, healthy and fulfilling lives
- responsible citizens who make a positive contribution to society.

They also outline the *range and content* that the subject should cover and the *curriculum opportunities* for such coverage.

- The *Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review* (DfES, 2007; Maylor *et al.*, 2007) led by former headteacher (now Sir) Keith Ajegbo, had the aim of reviewing the teaching of ethnic, religious and cultural diversity across the curriculum to age 19. The review's main recommendations include: a strengthening of pupil voice; an audit of education for diversity in the curriculum; increased teacher training; greater use of local contexts, and a whole-school exploration of identities, diversity and citizenship around the question *Who Do We Think We Are?* In specific relation to citizenship education, the review concludes that: many teachers are unsure about the standards expected and have had no explicit citizenship training: there is a huge variation in the amount and quality of citizenship provision in schools: a major challenge for citizenship is the teaching of the subject by

non-specialists; issues of identity and diversity are often neglected in citizenship lessons and, that there is a lack of grounding of citizenship topics for students in relation to local, national and international contexts. In the light of these findings, it recommends that:

- a fourth strand of citizenship is developed entitled *Identity and Diversity: Living Together in the UK*;
  - a review of resources to support this strand is carried out;
  - schools use a discrete model of delivery of citizenship education;
  - there is an emphasis on discussion and debate in teaching and learning approaches;
  - ITT (initial teacher training) and CPD for citizenship is enhanced
  - whole-curriculum planning is prioritised.
- *Towards consensus? Citizenship in secondary schools* (OFSTED, 2006a) draws on evidence from both OFSTED whole-school inspections and focused subject inspections to reflect on the progress of citizenship in schools between 2002 and 2006. It finds that:
    - significant progress has been made in implementing National Curriculum citizenship in many secondary schools.
    - However, there is not yet a strong consensus about the aims of citizenship education or about how to incorporate it into the curriculum
    - In a quarter of schools surveyed provision is still inadequate because of weak leadership and a lack of specialist teaching.
    - The most successful approach is where a citizenship core is taught by specialists. Many teachers lack specialist knowledge and have not undertaken training.
    - Overall expectations of achievement in citizenship are not high and progression is often erratic.

With this in mind, the report recommends that schools: consider how to develop specialist citizenship teaching; take advantage of appropriate CPD opportunities and monitor and evaluate teaching and learning in citizenship. In addition, it recommends that DfES and QCA review initial and continuing teacher education for citizenship and the standards, assessment practices and accredited courses relating to citizenship, in the light of these findings.

- *Real decision making? School councils in action* (Wisby and Whitty, 2006) resulted from a request from Schools Minister, Lord Adonis, to Professor Geoff Whitty of the Institute of Education, London, to review the work of school councils in order to provide updated guidance for schools on pupil participation in decision-making. The interim report

highlights a number of key findings including: the existence of different drivers for pupil voice including ‘active citizenship’, ‘personalised learning’ and ‘children’s rights’ and the tensions between them in practice; a recognition of the benefits of pupil voice but no clear success criteria for identifying and measuring such benefits; the varied practice between school councils; the importance of school leadership and teacher support if pupil voice is to flourish in schools; the importance of including all pupils in such provision and of providing effective training and support for pupils and teachers. The interim report therefore recommends:

- keeping the option of making school councils mandatory under review;
  - producing new guidance materials and exemplars on pupil participation as part of the National Strategies;
  - providing improved training provision for both staff and students.
- The *House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee Citizenship Education Enquiry* (GB. Parliament. House of Commons, 2007) had broad ranging terms of reference covering citizenship education and education 4 to 19, teacher training, identity and Britishness, community cohesion, active citizenship and developments in other countries. The enquiry published its findings and recommendations in March 2007, which include:
    - That the quality and extent of citizenship education in schools in England is still inconsistent across the country. Citizenship education programmes are locally owned and relevant to the particular context in which they are developed;
    - Support for the recommendations of the Ajegbo review that the citizenship curriculum should be amended to have a closer focus on issues of identity, diversity and belonging;
    - The need for more communication with practitioners about the approaches that are working in other institutions – particularly with respect to whole school approaches to active citizenship;
    - The need to expand CPD opportunities and initial teacher training places in citizenship;
    - That school councils should be made statutory and that advice about situating school councils within the wider citizenship education programme is provided.
    - That citizenship education is given sufficient priority in government at departmental and ministerial level with a clear public narrative from ministers on what citizenship education is setting out to achieve and a clear signal of its value.
    - The need to create a discrete specialism in citizenship for which schools can apply
    - The need to develop a lifelong citizenship education strategy which joins primary, secondary, tertiary and adult education and training into a coherent whole.



- The need for continuing strong support for this Study in order to address whether citizenship education is producing the wide range of impacts originally hoped for.

A quick review of this evidence base reveals, as with the policy context, a number of emerging common threads or findings including: first, a recognition of the opportunities for citizenship to contribute to general education policy agenda; secondly, that the definition and status of citizenship education in schools remains an issue; thirdly, a recognition of uneven provision with outstanding practice at one end of the spectrum and inadequate practice at the other; fourthly, concerns about the level of training and support available, particularly for teachers, and, lastly, an acceptance of the challenge of raising expectations and setting consistent standards for citizenship education. It is important to keep the policy initiatives and evidence reviews detailed above in mind for a number of reasons:

- they establish the context within which the school approaches detailed in this report took place;
- they set out the context within which the report's findings need to be considered if they are to be useful;
- they form a useful reference point with which to compare and contrast the report findings in order to build up a comprehensive picture of current developments in schools.

The data upon which this report is based was collected just prior to the initiation of the Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review, the House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee Citizenship Education Enquiry and the subsequent publication of their reports (DfES, 2007; GB. Parliament. House of Commons, 2007). As such, the report focus and findings are highly relevant to their findings and recommendations as well as those contained in *Towards Consensus?* (OFSTED, 2006a). Reference is therefore made at appropriate points throughout this report, and particularly in the conclusions and recommendations, as to how the study findings sit with those from other sources. In doing this, we draw attention to the ways in which the findings of this report are useful for policy-makers and practitioners, to ensure that decisions about policy and practice are informed by the most up-to-date evidence available.

### **1.3 Report focus**

The latest research and evaluation evidence suggests that while the potential for citizenship education to contribute to recent general education policy drives, in particular personalised learning and participation in the classroom, school and community, is in place, there is still some distance to go if this

potential is to be fulfilled in practice. Although examples of effective citizenship practice in schools do exist, in others a lack of definition and/or status and inconsistent leadership and delivery may mean that citizenship does not fulfil its potential either as a curriculum subject or as a subject through which wider policy initiatives are mediated in the school setting.

In recognition of this implementation gap, a number of recent recommendations to policy makers, most notably from the Diversity and Curriculum Review (DCR) and the OFSTED report *Towards Consensus?*, have suggested direct ways forward for citizenship education. These are many and wide-ranging. Some have already been detailed in section 1.2 above. However, it is worth reiterating a number of the recommendations that they make in terms of a preferred model for the delivery of citizenship.

The *Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review* (DfES, 2007) states that, '*given that the evidence suggests citizenship education works best when delivered discretely, we recommend this as the preferred model for schools*'. It is also recommended that citizenship is further formalised in the curriculum by the creation of a full subject GCSE. Yet while recommendations are made with regard to schools building active links '*between and across communities*', this is not tied in explicitly with the recommendations for citizenship other than recommending that senior managers in schools '*develop ways of linking citizenship education effectively with other subjects, with the ethos of the school and with the community*' (p.11). OFSTED (2006a) equally recommend the creation of a full GCSE in Citizenship with clear progression routes to AS/A2 courses for 16-19 year old students. In addition, the OFSTED report indirectly argues for the discrete delivery of citizenship as a lesson in its own right, or an identifiable element of a combined programme, through discussion of the dangers of conflating PSHE and citizenship and the claim that successful citizenship is best taught as a distinctive subject taught by specialists. Such recommendations, if adopted by ministers, have the potential to effect change at the very core of the citizenship programme in many schools; change to its delivery, its staffing, its content and its assessment.

Yet as the data and analysis presented in this report reveal, such structural aspects of provision may not necessarily guarantee the success of citizenship education across the three levels of the curriculum, the school and the community. Indeed a focus on such structural change could prove counter to the current push to widen the understanding of citizenship in schools and the role it can play in facilitating the implementation of wider policy initiatives. The most recent expression of this view can be found in the Education and Skills Select Committee Citizenship Education Enquiry report (GB. Parliament House of Commons, 2007) which recommends a greater emphasis on a '*whole school*' approach to citizenship and the need for stronger leadership and an awareness amongst headteachers of citizenship's whole school implications (see also Ireland *et al* 2007). Taking this argument to its

logical conclusion, if citizenship cannot claim its place as a medium through which such initiatives can be implemented, then it may find itself competing against current initiatives for already over-stretched resources.

The analysis that follows explores the range of factors which may impact upon and challenge the successful delivery of citizenship across the three levels of the curriculum, the school and the community, thereby providing a wealth of evidence with which to frame recommendations for policy makers and practitioners. It explores the timetabling and staffing of citizenship, the teaching and learning strategies currently used in its delivery and the assessment approaches used in practice. In addition, the report considers training and development opportunities available (including uptake) for those delivering the subject; an area which has been identified by the NFER (Cleaver *et al.*, 2005; Lopes and Kerr, 2005; Kerr, 2005; Ireland *et al.*, 2006) and others (OFSTED, 2005; 2006a; DfES, 2007) as requiring further attention.

When considering these various elements and strands of delivery, the report asks which ones, and in what form, are most likely to achieve positive outcomes for citizenship education and to feed into wider policy agendas, by posing the following research questions (RQs):

- RQ1 What are the main models of delivery of citizenship education and the factors which underpin these delivery models?
- RQ2 How far is the delivery process developing and changing as citizenship education becomes more embedded in the curriculum?
- RQ3 What are practitioners' views on citizenship education (its implementation, staffing and delivery) and on related training (its availability, quality and applicability)?
- RQ4 What are the models or strands of delivery which appear to be most effective?
- RQ5 How far can the delivery of citizenship education contribute to the wider educational policy agenda (e.g. participation, student voice and personalised learning)?

In formulating these questions, the research team has continued to bear in mind the overarching aims of the Study in order to make sure that any data analysis undertaken at this interim stage will contribute towards addressing these aims at the study's conclusion in 2010:

- To assess the short and long term effects of citizenship education on students.
- To explore how different processes – in terms of school, teacher and student effects – can impact upon differential outcomes.

- To set out what changes could be made to the delivery of citizenship education in order to improve its potential for effectiveness.

## 1.4 Report structure

Following this introduction to the study and the wider policy context within which citizenship education operates in schools, **Section 2** reintroduces and updates the typology of school approaches to citizenship education first outlined in the second annual report of the study (Kerr *et al.* 2004). This is useful as it provides a brief overview of the delivery models in place in our sample schools. The following sections of the report then go on to explore the factors underpinning these delivery models in greater detail. **Section 3** reviews the approaches adopted by schools to the delivery of citizenship and their evolution between 2004 and 2006. It also focuses on the factors which influence delivery choice and identifies some of the key challenges to the successful delivery of citizenship in schools. **Section 4** uses the data from case-study schools, to explore the extent to which schools currently follow the Key Stage 3 and 4 programmes of study for citizenship and balance the elements of knowledge and understanding, skills development and opportunities for active citizenship. It also reveals the opinion of students about the relevance and usefulness of their citizenship lessons.

**Section 5** moves on to consider how citizenship education is staffed in schools. It looks at the involvement of teachers in the planning and delivery of citizenship and outlines their training needs and opportunities for continuous professional development (CPD). **Section 6** investigates a further strand of delivery: teaching and learning approaches in schools between 2004 and 2006. It examines the extent of the relationship, if any, between teaching and learning approach and the delivery model for citizenship and considers students' preferred teaching and learning approaches. The **seventh section** takes this analysis further by addressing the range of resources available to teachers and students to support citizenship teaching and learning and how they are used. The term '*resources*' is framed broadly to include written, visual, the use of ICT and visitors. Lastly, **Section 8** addresses school leader, teacher and student views on assessment in relation to citizenship education. It investigates the range of assessment strategies in operation at Key Stages 3 and 4 and gauges student attitudes to their assessment experiences in citizenship.

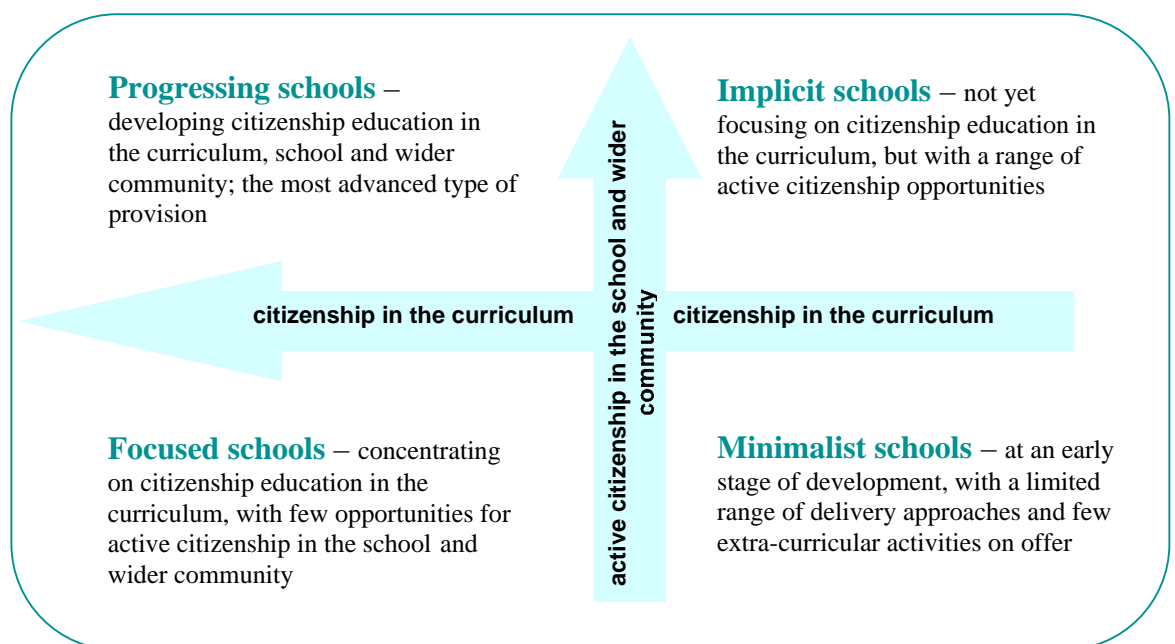
The final section of the report - **Section 9** - revisits the key research questions, in the light of the analysis presented. The conclusions are set within the context of the current policy agenda, and particularly refer to the recommendations of three key reports: OFSTED's *Towards Consensus?*; the report of the *Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review* and the report of the *Education and Skills Select Committee on Citizenship*, in order to produce

recommendations, based on the most up-to-date evidence, that are realisable and useful to policy-makers and practitioners. Supporting appendices provide details of references, methodology, study structure and study outcomes to date.

## 2. Typology of school approaches to citizenship

In order to address the first of the research questions posed in Section 1 of the report – what are the main models of delivery of citizenship education and the factors which underpin these delivery types? – this section briefly updates the typology of school approaches to citizenship first introduced in the Study’s second annual report (Kerr *et al.* 2004). The original typology summarised the overall approaches taken by schools to the delivery of citizenship in 2003. Schools were broadly classified in terms of two dimensions: their *implementation of citizenship education in the curriculum* and their *provision of opportunities for active citizenship in the school and wider community*. An analysis of their delivery approach was undertaken using these dimensions. The resulting typology (figure 1) identified four types of school approach to citizenship education.

**Figure 1.** School Approaches to Citizenship Education (2003)



The 2003 typology focused purely on data provided by head teachers/senior managers about the approach their school has taken to citizenship education. It included measures of delivery method, assessment, teaching and learning approaches and opportunities for participation. However, while this typology provides a good understanding of the type and range of delivery of citizenship

education planned and implemented across our schools sample, it remained one dimensional for two reasons:

- Its key focus was *delivery* (what schools were doing and providing) rather than *outcomes* (how citizenship was experienced in practice).
- It did not reflect the views of young people; views which our surveys have found are vital to provide a grounded understanding of whether policy and practice are reaching their intended audience with positive outcomes.

We have, therefore, chosen to replace this first typology with a new classification based on responses from both senior staff and from students. Schools are now classified in terms of three measures:

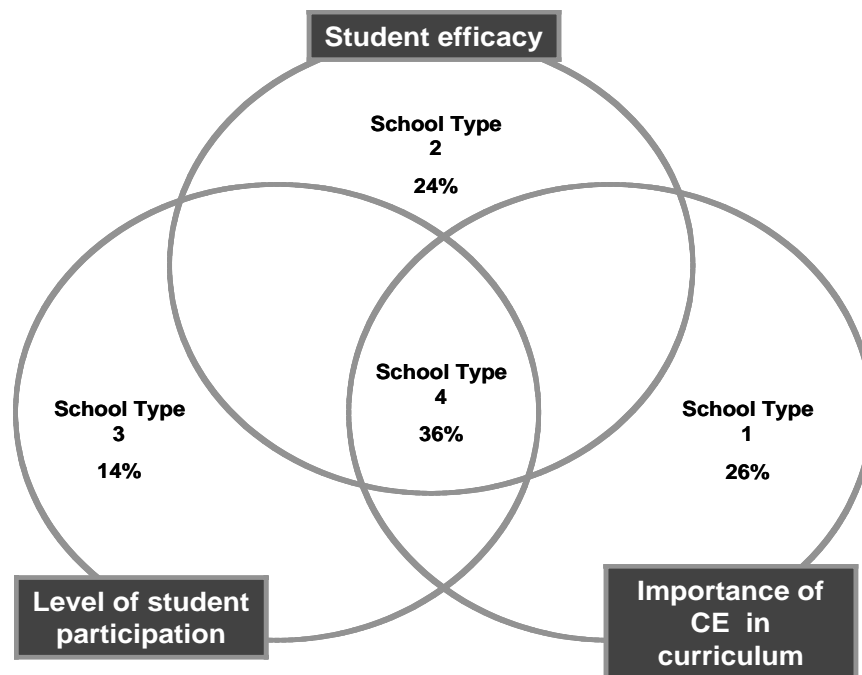
- **Student efficacy:** Whether students feel they have an opportunity to have their say both in running the school and in the classroom and whether students have a positive attitude to involvement in voluntary activities.
- **Level of participation by pupils.** This is measured by adding together:
  - The percentage of students who say they participate in clubs at school;
  - The percentage of students participating in the school community (for example via students councils, school newspapers or peer-mediation);
  - The percentage of students participating in the local community (for example, helping in the local community or raising money);
  - The percentage of students involved in helping to run clubs or events.
- **The importance of Citizenship Education (CE) in the curriculum.** This takes into account the approach taken to the delivery of citizenship education, the teaching and learning methods used, and the approach to recognising achievement.

Cluster analysis of the data reveals that schools fall into four categories. These are described in Table 1 and further illustrated in Figure 2 below.

**Table 1.** 2006 Typology of the Delivery and Experience of Citizenship Education

	<b>Grouping</b>			
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Student Efficacy</b>	Mixed	Average/High	Low	Average/High
<b>Level of student participation</b>	Low	Average/Low	Average/High	High
<b>Importance of CE in curriculum</b>	High	Low	Average	Average/High
<b>Number of schools</b>	55	52	30	78
<b>%</b>	26	24	14	36

**Figure 2:** 2006 Typology of the Delivery and Experience of Citizenship Education





What this new typology of citizenship education illustrates is the broad range of ways in which citizenship education is delivered and experienced in our schools sample. Each school type has a strength<sup>4</sup> or key driver in at least one aspect of citizenship, and interestingly none is weak in all. The use of the Venn diagram (Figure 2) neatly reveals the different models of citizenship that currently exist in our sample schools. It should, however, be noted that representing the models in this way masks some of the subtle differences between the groups of schools. For example, participation is higher in school type 2 than in school type 1. Moreover, viewed independently to Table 1, it could be seen to indicate a presence or absence of each measure in each school type, when actually each measure is present in variable amounts, along a sliding scale, in all schools. Figure 2 should therefore always be viewed alongside the detail provided in Table 1.

**School type 1** provides a firm grounding of citizenship education in the curriculum but is less strong in the areas of participation and has inconsistent levels of student efficacy. The key driver for citizenship education is the **curriculum**.

**School type 2** has a sound or high level of student efficacy in the school, but is weak on student take up in extra-curricular activities and its delivery of citizenship through the curriculum. The key driver for citizenship education is **student efficacy**.

**School type 3** has higher than average levels of student participation but its students feel low levels of efficacy and the importance placed on citizenship as a curriculum subject is average. The key driver for citizenship education is **participation**.

Finally, in **school type 4** students not only express high levels of efficacy and show high levels of participation, but citizenship education is also viewed as a strong and central subject within the curriculum. There are a number of key drivers for citizenship including the **curriculum, student efficacy and participation**. This school type is what some observers have defined as offering a ‘full service’ or ‘*citizenship-rich*’ delivery model (Breslin and Dufour, 2006), a model which comes closest to turning the vision of the Crick Report (Advisory Group, 1998) for citizenship in schools into effective practice. It is encouraging to note that the largest single group of schools in our sample (36 per cent) fits with this type.

We would therefore conclude from the cluster analysis of schools that **school type 4** is the model towards which all schools should endeavour to move in order to implement citizenship across its three dimensions: citizenship in the

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<sup>4</sup> It is important to remember that strengths and weaknesses are measured in relation to other schools in our sample. That is, it may be desirable that even schools with high levels in each of the three dimensions continue to improve in them.

curriculum, active citizenship within the school and active citizenship within the community.

However, this raises the interesting question as to what this model should look like in practice? The analysis that follows explores the range of factors which may impact upon and challenge the successful implementation of citizenship education across its three levels – curriculum, school and community – thereby providing a wealth of evidence with which to frame recommendations for policy makers and practitioners.



### 3. Delivery of citizenship education

#### Key findings

- Schools most commonly deliver citizenship education through modules in PSHE and assemblies.
- Overall, the delivery of citizenship education as a discrete subject is less common than in 2004. There is a tendency towards shorter dedicated timetable slots and fewer schools have chosen to have a discrete slot.
- Those schools which use discrete delivery as the main delivery method have chosen to do this to ensure high quality provision for citizenship education and are more likely to view it as a distinct subject requiring a specialist team of teachers. Conversely, the choice of modules in PSHE as the main delivery method for citizenship education is associated with using an approach which builds on current practice.
- Citizenship education is most visible to students in schools which base the delivery of citizenship education mainly on delivery through a dedicated timetable slot.
- School leaders and teachers identified pressure on curriculum time, difficulties associated with the status and credibility of citizenship education and problems associated with assessment and recording and reporting progress as the key challenges affecting the successful delivery of citizenship with their schools.

This section discusses further the approaches adopted by schools regarding the delivery of citizenship education (research question 1) and considers how delivery has evolved since 2004 (research question 2). It moves on to focus on the factors which appear to influence choices of delivery approach including whether schools tailor their provision to Key Stage 3 and 4 and which stakeholders can influence citizenship education provision. The section closes with a brief consideration of some of the key challenges to the successful delivery of citizenship in schools.

#### 3.1 Approaches to delivery

As noted in the earlier reports of this Study (see Appendix 1) and supported by the findings of OFSTED, the *'light touch'* approach to citizenship as a statutory subject has meant that *'schools have responded to the requirement to teach citizenship in very different ways'* (OFSTED 2006a: p.1). Modules in

PSHE (Personal, Social and Health Education) and assemblies, present in over two-thirds of schools, are the most popular vehicles for the delivery of citizenship education (see Table 1). They are followed by extra-curricular activities and cross-curricular delivery, which are used in almost half of the schools surveyed. Only about one in three schools has a dedicated time slot for citizenship education. Each method of delivery seems to be used to roughly the same extent at both Key Stage 3 and 4.

**Table 1.** Delivery methods used in schools

	<b>Key Stage 3 school leaders</b>	<b>Key Stage 4 school leaders</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
Assemblies	74	74
Modules in PSHE	69	66
Extra-curricular activities	47	47
In all subjects	46	44
Special events	39	38
Tutorials	35	37
In selected subjects	34	31
Dedicated time slot	29	33
Modules in other subjects	17	16
Other	5	6
No response	2	0
<b>N= 214</b>		

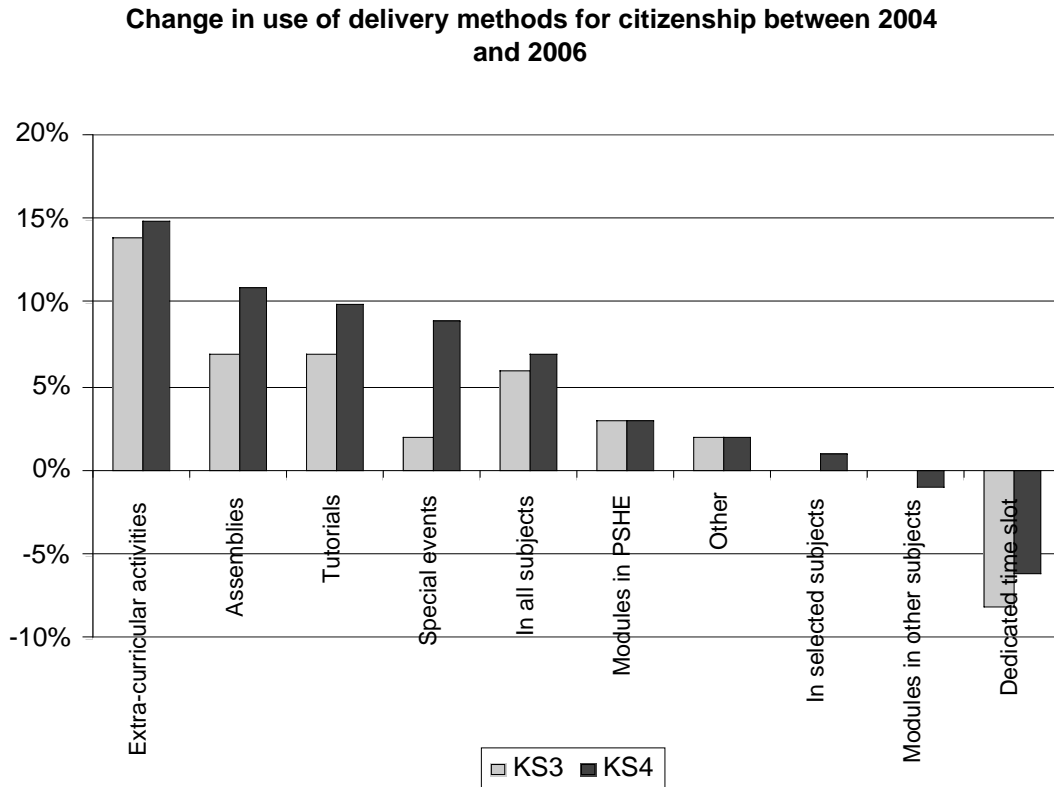
*Base: All school leaders.*

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

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2006.*

The percentage of schools having a dedicated slot in the timetable for citizenship education has decreased at both Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4 between 2004 and 2006, whereas the use of extracurricular activities to deliver citizenship education has increased markedly (see Figure 1). There have also been increases in the use of assemblies, tutorials, special events and cross-curricular delivery, particularly for Key Stage 4 where the use of special events is now as prevalent as it is at Key Stage 3 (Table 1).

**Figure 1.** Difference in the use of delivery methods between 2004 and 2006



Source: *Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006.*

Citizenship education is taught via a range of subjects, but mainly in PSHE and RE (Religious Education), followed by history, geography and English (see Table 2). These are the most popular subjects for the delivery of citizenship education at both Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4, although history, geography and English are used less frequently at Key Stage 4. This is likely to be due to the fact that history and geography are optional subjects at Key Stage 4, making the delivery of citizenship education through them less likely to reach all students. Following this line of argument further, business studies and sociology, which are more commonly found in Key Stage 4, are more often the vehicle for citizenship education at this level of education than at Key Stage 3. Data from the case studies indicates that, delivery as part of PSHE can be either as part of tutorials or within a discrete PSHE timetabled slot. It also provides examples of other subjects where citizenship education topics are covered, such as looking at data about citizenship-related topics in mathematics classes.

**Table 2.** Subjects through which citizenship is taught

	Key Stage 3		Key Stage 4	
	2004	2006	2004	2006
	school leaders %	school leaders %	school leaders %	school leaders %
PSHE	89	79	87	79
R E	83	74	76	70
History	74	63	63	51
Geography	70	60	61	49
English	64	52	54	46
Science	48	37	43	36
Business Studies	21	14	35	25
Life skills	6	5	10	8
Politics	3	1	5	2
Citizenship	11	8	18	11
Sociology	---	3	---	9
Other	14	17	13	15
No response	3	7	4	8
<b>N=</b>	<b>174</b>	<b>188</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>183</b>

*Base: All school leaders who indicated that that citizenship education is delivered across subjects at Key Stage 3 or Key Stage 4, as applicable.*

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

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006.*

Overall, schools appear to be choosing to spread the delivery of citizenship across a smaller number of subjects than in 2004 (see Table 3) suggesting that cross curricular approaches to citizenship are becoming less common. This is perhaps a positive trend in the light of recent OFSTED comments: ‘...in schools that provided inspectors with a range of evidence from across the curriculum, most was tangential to citizenship purposes... only a few schools, paying great attention to detail, have created a full and coherent programme which pupils can recognise as an entity’ (OFSTED, 2006a: Para. 69).

**Table 3.** Number of subjects into which citizenship education is integrated

	KS3		KS4	
	2004 School leaders %	2006 School leaders %	2004 School leaders %	2006 School leaders %
1-2 subjects	16	27	22	33
3-5 subjects	35	28	30	22
6 or more subjects	47	38	45	36
No response	3	7	4	8
<b>N =</b>	<b>174</b>	<b>188</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>183</b>

*Base: School leaders who indicated that their school delivers citizenship education across subjects at Key Stage 3 or Key Stage 4, as applicable.*

*A single response item. Due to rounding errors percentages may not sum to 100.*

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

In addition to asking school leaders to list the range of delivery methods used for citizenship teaching, they were also asked to highlight the **main method** through which citizenship was delivered. The use of modules in PSHE was the most important method of delivery both at Key Stage 3 and at Key Stage 4 in around half of the schools (see Table 4). This focus on PSHE is interesting given OFSTED's comments on the unsuitability of this approach due to time limitations and the often unclear distinctions made between the two subject areas; a conflation which, OFSTED argues, is false given the primary focus of PSHE on the private domain, and the focus of citizenship on the public domain (2006a: Para 58).

The next most popular main method for delivery is the dedicated time slot, although this approach has lost ground since 2004 (see Figure 1). Only a minority of schools use tutorials, assemblies, special events, modules in subjects other than PSHE and extra-curricular activities as the main delivery method.



**Table 4.** Main delivery method

	Key Stage 3 %	Key Stage 4 %
Modules in PSHE	54	49
Dedicated time slot	22	25
In all subjects	12	11
In selected subjects	7	10
Tutorials	6	7
Assemblies	6	6
Special events	5	7
Modules in subjects other than PSHE	5	5
Extra-curricular activities	3	3
Other	1	2
No Response	4	3
<b>N = 214</b>		

*Base: All school leaders.*

*A single response item. Due to rounding errors percentages may not sum to 100.*

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2006.*

Notwithstanding the range of delivery approaches used for citizenship, the subject appears to be reasonably visible subject to students. The majority indicate that they are taught citizenship at least a little (see Table 5). This is the case even for year 12 students in schools, despite less than half of all school leaders (46 per cent) reporting that their school provides citizenship education at post-16 level. However, this may reflect the fact that year 12 students are now aware of the topics citizenship encompasses having been some of the first students with an entitlement to citizenship education at Key Stages 3 and 4, thereby providing them with the knowledge and skills for its identification.

**Table 5.** Students' perceptions of how much citizenship education they are taught

Taught about 'citizenship'	Sample of students					
	Year 8	Year 8	Year 10	Year 10	Year 12	Year 12
	2004	2006	2004	2006	2004	2006
	%	%	%	%	%	%
A lot	24	21	19	24	10	11
A little	49	49	50	52	54	55
Not at all	7	6	9	6	16	13
Don't know	13	16	13	12	17	16
No response	7	8	8	7	2	5
<b>N=</b>	<b>2,467</b>	<b>2,195</b>	<b>2,091</b>	<b>2,182</b>	<b>855</b>	<b>951</b>

*Base: All school students surveyed.*

*A single response item. Due to rounding errors percentages may not sum to 100.*

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

However, it seems that delivery of citizenship education mainly through a discrete timetable slot was the most effective delivery method in making citizenship education visible to students. In discrete-delivery schools, more students indicated that they were taught about citizenship education 'a lot' (26 per cent) compared to all students (20 per cent). Evidence from the case study schools additionally supports the finding that discrete subject status enhances its recognition as a subject by students. The case study vignettes below illustrate these points.

### **Citizenship education delivery within a combined programme**

In this school, citizenship education is delivered in a one hour weekly slot alongside PSHE and RE. To facilitate this approach the school decided to adopt a thematic subject approach with every unit encompassing elements of all three subjects.

Although this approach looked good in principle, it has not been as effective as hoped. As the citizenship coordinator explained, under the current system *'we are virtually 90 per cent convinced they [the students] will **not** know about citizenship. They've done the work and for all our best efforts I don't think what they have managed to do is separate it out as a subject on its own'*. Future plans may include reverting to clearly defined citizenship lessons within the combined programme.

The Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4 students interviewed recognised that citizenship education is one of the components of combined programme, but explained that sometimes the topics seem to be *'all mixed together'*. While one student felt that it is better to learn about things all together rather than separated out into subject areas, another argued that he was often confused and would prefer the subjects to be taught separately: *'You'd know which was which... and you'd know what you were going to do in the lesson'*. Students also raised the issue that in fitting three subject areas into one lesson they felt that lessons seemed rushed.

### **Citizenship education delivery as a discrete slot**

In this school citizenship is taught discretely within a citizenship department at both Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4. The school is a specialist humanities school, of which citizenship is now one of the specialist subjects. The citizenship department are also responsible for teaching PSHE, RE and Careers Education and Guidance.

Previously citizenship had been taught by form tutors, but this was quickly abandoned in favour of a specialist team. The Deputy Head of Curriculum certainly felt that this was a positive move: *'I think it works quite well. The fact that the students have a timetabled slot with specialist teachers gives it a status and credibility...To have an examined syllabus, to know what they're working for, is a good thing.'*

The students in this school recognised citizenship education as a distinct subject. Key Stage 3 students reported learning about government and politics, global issues and religious and ethnic groups. Key Stage 4 students explained that citizenship lessons had mainly covered citizenship topics, but towards the end of the year lessons had also covered sex and drugs education, as well as careers education and guidance.

In those schools that have a timetabled slot, this tends to be a 45- to 75-minute slot per week at both Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4. One quarter of schools at

Key Stage 3 and almost one third at Key Stage 4 have slots that are shorter than 45 minutes. Only a small number have slots that are longer than 75 minutes. Comparison of the data from 2004 with 2006 shows a tendency towards shorter timetable slots, although at Key Stage 4 there was a small increase in the percentage of schools offering slots that are longer than 75 minutes.

## 3.2 Factors influencing choice of delivery approach

### 3.2.1 Stakeholder influence

The survey reveals that a variety of stakeholders have had an input in the selection of schools' delivery approach for citizenship education. In the majority of schools, plans for the delivery of citizenship education have been discussed with governors (59 per cent). Moreover, in many schools, students, the local authority and parents have had an input. However, only a minority of school leaders report that primary schools have been involved, with fewer senior managers in 2006 indicating that primary schools have been involved than in 2004 (seven and 11 per cent respectively). While this may be due to citizenship education now having become more embedded and less effort being concentrated on planning activities, it also suggests that there continue to be weak levels of progression and continuity between Key Stages 2 and 3. This is of importance given OFSTED's concerns about erratic progression in citizenship and teachers' low expectations of the standards that are required (2006a: Para 103-4). Indeed, it also resonates with the findings of the Ajegbo Review which states '*Prior learning, clear learning objectives and progression are not always considered by teachers - some pupils complained of boredom because of repetition but were unclear about how (or whether) the content had developed, or how their conceptual thinking was developing across the Key Stage*' (DfES, 2007: p.6).

Many teachers also have been involved in planning the organisation of citizenship education in their school (51 per cent). Teachers' views on how citizenship education should be taught may therefore influence its delivery. Equally, their views on delivery may reflect current practice. Teachers tend to identify teaching citizenship education through the whole school ethos as the most effective way of delivering citizenship education, followed by delivery in assemblies, as an extra-curricular activity and in PSHE (see Table 6). The popularity of assemblies, extra-curricular activities, integration of citizenship education into all subjects and teaching it as a specific subject increased noticeably compared to 2004.

However, in terms of dramatic change/influence, our case study schools reveal that head teachers are likely to have the most immediate impact on delivery. Data from one of the case-study schools provides insights into how the importance attributed to delivering citizenship education outside the

curriculum can drive change in delivery approach. In this school, citizenship education is currently taught through discrete lessons. However, a new head teacher has taken post and a change to cross-curricular delivery is being considered with the aim of demonstrating that that citizenship education permeates every aspect of life. This also reflects change in another school where a new head teacher has removed discrete citizenship delivery based on the belief that young people do not learn in convenient narrow bands of knowledge but in ‘*unified areas of human existence*’. His vision for delivery is to create a unified subject area which covers citizenship, morality, religion, PSHE and philosophy in a coherent and unified way: ‘*That’s why I’m supporting this integrated holistic approach to personal development*’.

**Table 6.** Most effective delivery methods

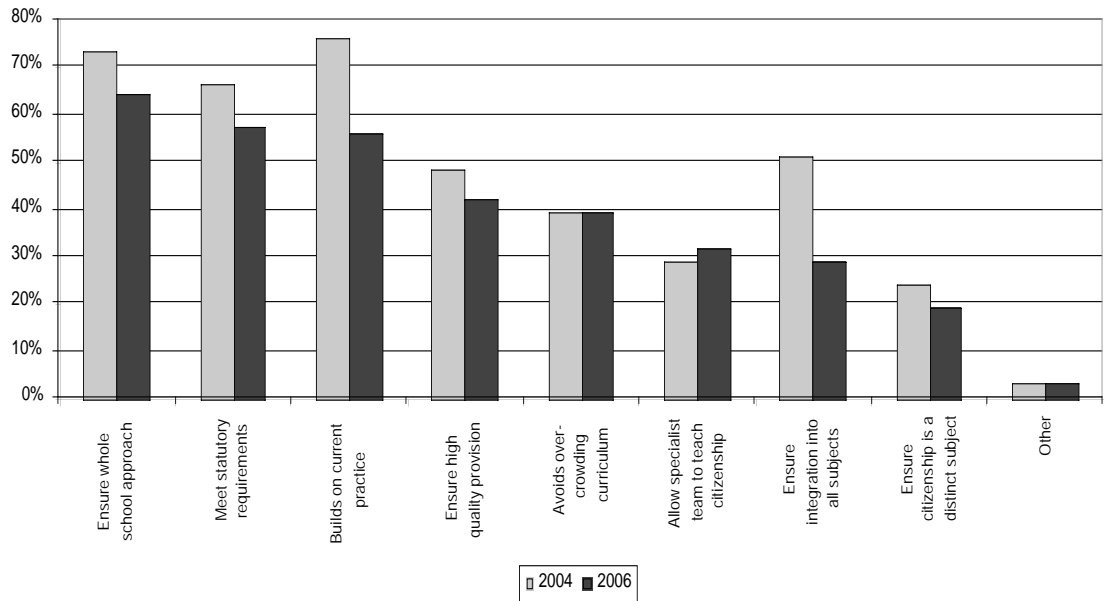
	Year of survey	
	2004 %	2006 %
Through the whole school ethos	80	83
In assemblies	64	71
As an extra-curricular activity	51	59
In PSHE	54	57
As a specific subject	48	54
Integrated into all subjects	46	53
Integrated into specific other subjects	45	43
In tutorials	42	42
Other	5	4
No Response	1	1
<b>N =</b>	<b>709</b>	<b>779</b>

*Base: All school teachers.*

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

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

The survey of school leaders also provides valuable insights into the reasons why schools have chosen their delivery approaches. According to school leaders, the main reason why schools have adopted their delivery approach is that they are trying to develop a whole school approach to citizenship education (Figure.2). This contrasts with 2004, when the main reason given for adopting their delivery approach was to build on current practice. This may reflect the fact that schools have now had time to develop their vision for citizenship education and are less reliant on what is in place already.

**Figure 2.** Reasons for choosing delivery approach

Base: All school leaders (N=196 in 2004; N= 214 in 2006)

Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006

### 3.2.2 A wish to build on current practice

Nevertheless, building on current practice remains one of the top reasons for choice of delivery approach, and is particularly associated with schools which deliver citizenship through modules in PSHE. Conversely, fewer schools basing delivery mainly on modules in PSHE (13 per cent) did so to ensure that citizenship education remained a distinct subject, when compared to all schools (19 per cent). This approach, whilst least disruptive in the short-term, may, according to OFSTED, be a '*serious obstacle to developing the subject further*' (2006a: para.54). It will be interesting to note whether this is indeed the case over time, or whether schools will be able to develop a strong base and identity for citizenship education within this delivery model.

### **Citizenship built on Current Practice**

In two case study schools, citizenship education has always been delivered through modules in PSHE. In one of those schools, a positive change is being undertaken to deliver PSHE through a dedicated slot by tutors who worked with smaller groups of students. This is partly because the rolling timetable has not been working, but also because of the need to assess citizenship. Staff members feel that it would be easier for a tutor to assess how well a student is doing, than a specialist teacher, who may only see a student for a limited number of times a year.

In the other school, staff explained that citizenship is being taught through PSHE, not out of preference, but rather because of the difficulties associated with timetabling and staffing citizenship discretely.

### **3.2.3 High quality provision by a specialist team**

Those schools concerned with high quality provision for citizenship education by a specialist team are more likely to choose to provide citizenship lessons through dedicated timeslots. More school leaders in **discrete-delivery schools** report the following reasons as underlying the school's approach (percentages are for schools with discrete delivery and for all schools, respectively):

- ensuring that citizenship education is a distinct subject (47 and 19 per cent)
- allowing a specialist team to teach citizenship education (52 and 32 per cent)
- ensuring high quality provision (56 and 42 per cent).

Of the three case study schools that deliver citizenship education discretely, the main reasons for choosing this method are very similar to the reasons given by survey respondents. In two of these schools staff recognised the importance of giving the subject status and enabling their specialist staff to teach it. In the third school, the assistant headteacher felt *'that starting with it [citizenship education] as a discrete subject has given it the kudos it deserves, and it now has its own identity, so that hopefully it will be able to be delivered across the curriculum successfully'*.

It is worth noting that use of a dedicated delivery slot is unrelated to type of school (e.g. whether schools were comprehensive or selective), the percentage of students eligible for free school meals, achievement and school size.

### **3.2.4 Avoiding overcrowding in the curriculum.**

Leaders of those schools that deliver citizenship education **across (all or some) subjects** (55 per cent) and through **tutorials or assemblies** (58 per

cent) state that their choice of delivery approach is due to avoiding overcrowding the curriculum (compared to 39 per cent of all school leaders).

### 3.2.5 Ensuring integration

School leaders whose school's approach to citizenship education is mainly based on **cross-curricular delivery** and on **special events or extra-curricular activities** state 'integration of citizenship education into all subjects' as a reason for their school's delivery approach (66 per cent in cross-curricular delivery schools and 55 per cent in special event- or cross-curricular-schools compared to 29 per cent of all school leaders).

## 3.3 Challenges to delivery

Pressure on curriculum time is the challenge which school leaders and teachers feel most affects the successful delivery of citizenship education. This is followed by difficulties in establishing the status and credibility of citizenship education within the school and problems associated with assessment and recording and reporting progress. Teaching staff additionally recognise the difficulties of engaging staff enthusiasm; a factor which may be explained by the staffing methods used in citizenship education, particularly in schools which are not using a discrete delivery approach by a dedicated team. The following table shows the percentage of school leaders and teachers who have identified challenges to citizenship education and the change in these responses since 2004. It is interesting to note that challenges around the status and credibility of citizenship have risen in importance for teacher and school leaders, perhaps reflecting the fact that citizenship is still largely delivered alongside PSHE and/or in non-formal teaching slots, thereby limiting its status as a discrete curriculum subject.

In order to address research questions 1 and 2, this section has considered delivery strategies and approaches to citizenship education, also considering the factors that can underpin the choice of approach made by a school, and some of the key challenges to citizenship education delivery. The next section takes this analysis one step further, using case study data to consider the extent to which schools deliver the programmes of study for citizenship at Key Stages 3 and 4.



**Table 7.** Challenges to citizenship education

	2006 School leaders	Change for school leaders since 2004	2006 Teachers	Change for teachers since 2004
	%	%	%	%
Pressure on curriculum time	77	<i>N/A</i>	79	-2
Status/credibility of citizenship education	65	7	72	3
Assessment, recording and reporting progress	65	-6	60	-7
Staff enthusiasm	57	6	64	-4
Staff time/increasing workload	46	-9	59	-8
Subject expertise	47	-4	58	-4
Training	42	-10	52	-6
Engaging students	34	-5	45	-7
Coordination and consistency across schools	43	-12	41	-5
Funding	41	-10	39	-8
Effective links with local community	38	5	34	1
Pressure on resources/materials	35	-11	39	-9
Teaching experience	23	-6	27	-7
Increasing student participation in the school	23	-7	23	-10
Other	3	<i>N/A</i>	3	<i>N/A</i>

*Base: All school leaders and all teachers*

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006.*

## 4. Subject content

### Key Findings:

- Schools in which coverage of the citizenship education curriculum is reportedly good are often following the syllabus for the GCSE short course in Citizenship.
- The most commonly reported shortfall in the programme of study is in the area of political literacy. This is regarded by teachers as a result of:
  - gaps in staff knowledge and a lack of staff confidence
  - the difficulty of teaching a 'dry' subject to students.
- Key Stage 3 and 4 students find the topic of 'voting' irrelevant as they are unable to take part in elections until they are aged 18. Opportunities to vote in mock elections and/or school council elections are not always perceived as meaningful and are not necessarily viewed as preparation for the real experience of voting.
- In contrast learning about religious and ethnic groups is seen as valuable and interesting.
- Shortfalls in coverage of the curriculum are stated to result from:
  - Time restrictions - often associated with fitting citizenship into lessons alongside other subjects
  - Conscious choice - where programmes of study are seen as 'useful guides' and relevance and interest to students are viewed as more important than rigorous adherence to the programme of study.

The following section considers the coverage of National Curriculum citizenship across the case-study schools. It focuses, in particular, upon the extent to which schools currently follow the programmes of study for citizenship at Key Stages 3 and 4 and the balance within their programmes between the three curriculum strands of citizenship:

- knowledge and understanding;
- the skills of enquiry and communication; and
- '*active citizenship*' through participation and responsible action.

It also discusses students' perceptions of the topics generally covered in their citizenship lessons, their relevance and usefulness. This section therefore

contributes to the wider focus of this report, which considers the overall effectiveness of citizenship delivery within, and across, schools (research question 4).

## 4.1 Coverage of the citizenship programmes of study

Case-study schools can be divided fairly evenly between those in which:

- the programmes of study for citizenship at Key Stages 3 and 4 are reportedly well adhered to, and coverage of all elements of the programmes is said to be good
- coverage is reportedly stronger across certain areas or elements of the programmes than others, or reportedly weak overall.

Schools in which **programme coverage is reportedly good** are often following the syllabus for the GCSE short course in citizenship at Key Stage 4. One citizenship coordinator noted that this ensures that the knowledge and understanding aspects of the programme are well covered at Key Stage 4 including encouragement to view citizenship as an *'active'* subject as well. So, for example, elections to school council involve all students in the school, and are linked to citizenship lessons, whilst mock political elections are also undertaken as part of the programme. This coordinator is confident that her programme covers all the main National Curriculum elements at Key Stage 3, explaining that the school's use of suspended timetable days and assemblies for citizenship-related issues enables a *'plugging of any gaps'* that are not covered through the weekly curriculum. It should be noted, however, that schools teaching the GCSE short course at Key Stage 4, are not always so successful in developing a view of citizenship as an active process, and sometimes report that pressure to cover the syllabus can result in a programme that is rather *'content heavy.'*

Other coordinators that believe their programmes to be well in line with the National Curriculum Order note a number of caveats in their provision. One coordinator commented: *'We do cover everything, but some things more shallowly than others.'* She also noted: *'We haven't done an audit for some time...it really needs updating.'* Another commented that, whilst she is very happy with her programme's adherence to the programmes of study, if given the necessary time and resources she would like to have more opportunity to focus upon issues related to the economy, and to public finance. The difficulty for this head of citizenship is finding someone with the relevant skills and knowledge to teach such a module, rather than taking it all upon herself.

There are different explanations for provision being **reportedly stronger across certain elements of the programmes of study** than others, or **reportedly weak overall**. Very often, schools report that school-level issues

related to organisation, timetabling or staffing impact upon their ability to cover all elements of National Curriculum citizenship. Most commonly, interviewees note that citizenship programmes fall short in relation to the **political literacy** aspects of the programmes of study. Reasons for this include that teaching staff often lack knowledge or confidence in teaching lessons related to political systems and processes, whilst others note that it can be difficult to make such topics interesting and relevant for students. As one coordinator commented: *'We have to be careful not to make it too dry.'* The challenge here would seem to be in finding ways to make such topics relevant to young people and accessible to staff, rather than avoiding them altogether, as would appear to be the approach taken by some schools. This therefore begins to address research question 4, highlighting some existing effective methods of delivering citizenship education and the benefits that can be gained from having specialist teachers involved. This issue is discussed in greater detail in Section 5 below.

A more extensive lack of coverage of the programmes of study at Key Stages 3 and 4 is reported by staff in two case-study schools. One coordinator noted that the way in which citizenship has been integrated into the school curriculum in her school (alongside PSHE and careers education and guidance (CEG), and with insufficient timetabled time) makes it virtually impossible for her to ensure coverage of all aspects of the programme of study:

*We have the careers programme to get through and the health programme and the citizenship programme...and it would be great if we had more time to deliver it. Forty minutes, which is actually thirty after the kids come in after lunchtime...it is such a short time, yet we have so many different bits we have to try and deliver. Sometimes I feel as though we are skimming over them. A lot of the time we are just ticking the box – 'oh, we've done a bit on race, we've done twenty minutes on race, we've done race then' – and of course we haven't...You look in a citizenship textbook and there are so many things you are meant to cover.*

Another coordinator is frustrated that due to timetable cut backs and a significantly reduced amount of time for citizenship education, it has become very difficult for the citizenship team to do justice to the requirements of National Curriculum citizenship. A number of elements are simply not covered, and the coordinator reported being quite stunned that a recent OFSTED 'Section 5 inspection' did not pick up on the limitations of citizenship provision within the school:

*We are breaking the law in terms of RE and citizenship provision. We're not reporting on it adequately enough, and all the time constraints, and OFSTED never even mentioned it. That's the new framework – it's so vague. Had it been the old style, I think we'd have been clobbered.*

Both examples draw attention to the fact that some schools are still not meeting the requirements of citizenship education as a statutory National Curriculum subject, either in relation to the time dedicated to the subject, or in relation to subject coverage.

In an additional two case-study schools, the citizenship coordinators admitted that they do not cover all aspects of the National Curriculum programmes of study, and indicated that this results from **conscious choice**, rather than from the kind of constraints outlined above. One explained that, whilst he originally found the National Curriculum Order helpful in the development of his programme, he now refers to the programmes of study as a ‘*useful guide*’ rather than as a rigid framework. In the interests of keeping his programme interesting and relevant for students he is keen to encourage students to identify their own areas of interest for research and debate. If this means deviating from the programmes of study, he is not overly concerned. The other coordinator, working in a mixed-ethnicity school, with a very transient population, believed that in her school it is appropriate for citizenship to have a specific slant:

*We need to do a lot of anti-crime work. We need to cover a lot of different cultural values and immigration, because it's really important to the community that they live in. It kind of has a different twist here than it would do in a lot of places...But my reading of the Crick report was that that was what schools were advised to do, and so that was what we did...I think if we banged on about the beauty of the Commonwealth then that would be inappropriate... Local government and the EU, we don't do a great deal on...I think there's some things that the kids could do without.'*

These coordinators have strength in their convictions that citizenship should be both relevant and interesting to the students attending their schools, and reflective of the communities in which they live, even if this means focusing on certain areas of the curriculum at the expense of others.

## **4.2 Balance between knowledge, skills and ‘active citizenship’ elements**

Only in one of the case-study schools did staff report that their citizenship programme provided an even balance between:

- knowledge and understanding of a range of citizenship-related topics and issues (the ‘content’ of citizenship education)
- skills (such as the development of analytical and critical thinking, research and investigation, advocacy, and reflection)

- active citizenship (including both active learning approaches within citizenship lessons and actual participation in school and community decision making).

Across all other schools, interviewees indicated that their programmes tend towards either a knowledge-based focus, or place an emphasis on skills development. Schools adopting a largely **knowledge-based approach** often admit that this is not so much by design as by default. One coordinator acknowledged that, in his school, a big gap in the citizenship programme at present is the encouragement of students developing skills of active involvement and participation. He comments that he has no doubt that this is an issue that needs to be addressed by the school. Similarly, a coordinator in a different school noted that any ‘*active citizenship*’ activities in which students become involved are quite separate from the school’s citizenship education programme, which is heavily content driven. However, a different perspective on this approach was provided by another respondent who stated: ‘*Students often don’t have the knowledge to be able to discuss issues in a way they would like – so you need to give young people the knowledge in order for them to be able to use and practise skills [such as discussion and debate]*’.

Schools in which the development of **skills** is seen as the primary focus of citizenship education argue the reverse of the comment made by the coordinator above. One interviewee believed that if students are encouraged to develop skills that will make them independent, critical and evaluative learners, they will use these skills to secure knowledge about the issues in which they are interested. Another summed up this view as follows:

*Knowledge is important because we do examination subjects...but if I had to rank them, I would almost say perhaps the life-skills would be up there, followed by the active citizenship, and the knowledge – yes I think it’s important, but I think it’s integral to the other bits anyway – they get their knowledge because of what they’re doing in a much more practical way.*

These examples show that the ways in which students are given opportunities to develop knowledge and understanding, citizenship-related skills, and opportunities for active involvement can vary greatly across schools. It would seem that it matters less whether the way into citizenship learning is through knowledge, skills or active learning, than that the outcome of learning is that students have relevant opportunities and develop competencies across all three areas.

### 4.3 Student perceptions of subject content

During discussions with students in case-study schools, interviewers used a series of show-cards providing the names of various citizenship-related topics. These included: government and politics; voting; rights and responsibilities; religious and ethnic groups; community; the media; volunteering; resolving conflict; Europe; and global issues. Students were asked to select cards that they believed they had covered to a greater or lesser extent in their citizenship lessons, or across other subjects within the school, and to discuss their views about these topics.

Across almost half of the schools, students identified that they had covered all the topics to a greater or lesser extent, with the remaining schools having covered a varying number of the topics, with different emphases, reflecting the structure and focus of their citizenship provision. The topics most frequently mentioned by students were:

- Government and politics
- Voting
- Rights and responsibilities
- Community
- Religious and ethnic groups.

Far less frequently mentioned were: global issues; Europe; the media; conflict resolution and volunteering. This appears to tie in with comments made by school staff about the fact that their programmes are not always able to cover the National Curriculum programmes of study at Key Stages 3 and 4 (as outlined in Section 4.1 above), particularly with regards to European and global issues. However, it is interesting that students across very many of the case-study schools identify that they are learning about government and politics and voting, in contrast to teachers views that citizenship programmes fall short in relation to the political literacy aspects of the programmes of study. However, it should be noted that there is a difference between coverage *per se* and ‘*effective*’ coverage, as the following discussion demonstrates.

### 4.4 Topics with perceived relevance

Student comments relate, in particular, to a perceived relevance of four main topic areas: government and politics; rights and responsibilities; community; and religious and ethnic groups. In the main, students identify the topics they learn the most about as those with greatest relevance, with the exception of voting (which is discussed in detail below).

#### 4.4.1 Government and politics

Comments relating to the relevance of government and politics usually refer to it as a content-driven topic, which helps young people to learn about political systems and processes – what we might term ‘civics’. One Key Stage 4 student noted: *‘It’s about how the country is run. It’s about cabinets, about the different Ministries,’* while a Key Stage 4 student in a different school noted: *‘It’s about the way things are run in the country’* including the respective roles of the monarch, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. This student also recognised that the topic contains a critical or evaluative element, stating: *‘it’s about how politicians can be manipulative to get what they want’*. According to students, the relevance of learning about such systems and processes is very much connected to the future, and to being equipped for adult life: *‘If we don’t know anything about politics it’s not going to help us when we leave school...you don’t want to reach age 18 and think, aah, I’ve got to vote, who do I vote for? I don’t know anything.’* (Key Stage 3 student), and: *‘When you’re older you need to know how to vote and how the government works so you can decide on the parties...It’s good to know all this information because you will use it later’* (Key Stage 3 student).

In spite of recognition of the relevance of learning about issues related to government and politics, students feel that such topics can be rather dry or dull. In line with the views of some teachers, one Key Stage 4 student commented: *‘I think it’s the general topic. It’s difficult to teach it in an interesting way,’* while another admitted to having problems understanding the topics covered: *‘I can’t understand it. It’s complicated, it’s confusing.’* A Key Stage 3 student in a different school noted that there has been little time on her programme to go into sufficient detail on issues related to government and politics. She would particularly have welcomed greater attempts to help students understand how government and politics-related topics *‘link into everyday life.’* The main point emerging is that, while students generally view learning about government and politics as relevant to them, both now and in the future, they would like these topics to be approached in a more innovative way, and made more relevant to their lives and experiences. At present the topic appears to be approached in a largely descriptive perhaps cursory way, rather than in an evaluative or critical manner.

#### 4.4.2 Rights and responsibilities

Students generally believe that learning about rights and responsibilities is relevant to them. Many students demonstrate an understanding of having both rights and responsibilities: *‘It’s about what you can and can’t do, what you have to do, what your Mum and Dad tell you to do, what you are expected to do, what you are entitled to do’* (Key Stage 3 student); *‘Some things you have a right to do, some things you haven’t. It’s good that you’ve got your own rights, but you should stick to your responsibilities’* (Key Stage 4 student).



Going into a little more detail, Key Stage 4 students in a different school identify a range of rights that they have learned about including consumer rights and the right not to be discriminated against on the basis of age or ethnicity in the workplace. They also note the importance of personal and social responsibility, and recognise the interplay of rights and responsibilities. One example discussed was the right to drink alcohol at a certain age, but the responsibility not to drink and drive.

Thus, while students recognise the importance of fundamental human rights (which are not dependent upon good or ‘*worthy*’ behaviour), there is a strong sense of the importance of social responsibility – acting in the interests of others as well as self, and in the interests of society more generally. Summing up this view, one Key Stage 3 student commented: *‘You learn about things you should and shouldn’t do...If you don’t learn this in school then there will be anarchy.’* However, this view is not unanimous. A Key Stage 3 student in one school argued: *‘When we’re little, we shouldn’t spend all our time worrying about things and looking after things...you shouldn’t do responsible stuff when you’re only young.’* Nevertheless, in general, students demonstrate a reasonably high sense of the importance of social responsibility in their comments.

#### **4.4.3 Community**

This sense of social responsibility may go some way to explaining the many comments about the value of learning about community. Students clearly have different concepts of ‘*community*’, from a view that it is something external to the school: *‘we had a lesson about what we need to do to help the community – it’s good to do’* (Key Stage 4 student), to a view that community is about people and relationships: *‘understanding different cultures, working with other people, looking after each other’* (Key Stage 3 student); *‘the people and the groups around you...Everyone that works together as one group...Different people, but all in the same situation’* (Key Stage 3 student). There is also recognition that there are different types of community. As one Key Stage 3 student noted: *‘The whole country is like a community, but there’s also the school community’* and another Key Stage 4 student added: *‘I feel that the school is linked very closely with the community outside...The school is also like a community by itself as well.’* Students generally see relevance in learning about, and becoming involved with, all of these different aspects of community. However, there is some suggestion that links with the community outside of school could be stronger. Two separate groups of Key Stage 3 students, for example, felt that they would learn more about community if they were given more opportunities to go off school premises on visits and trips, to experience first-hand different community groups or issues at play.

#### 4.4.4 Religious and ethnic groups

Finally, and linked to the topic of community, students feel that learning about religious and ethnic groups is relevant and interesting. There would appear to be a key distinction between schools in which students essentially gain information about different cultures, religions and traditions, and learn the importance of tolerance, and those in which the focus is more upon discussions of diversity, identity, conflict and harmony. Illustrating this distinction, a Key Stage 3 student in one school stated: *'It's about different cultures and the way they pray and stuff. Different religions and how they worship and things'*, while a Key Stage 3 student in a different school commented: *'We discuss racism, social harmony, discrimination – we like it because we see other people's opinions and views.'* The findings of the recent Ajegbo Review (DfES, 2007) may present challenges for many schools, given that only a few students in our case study schools mentioned that issues of diversity and identity were an explicit focus of their citizenship programmes at this stage.

On a final note, students in a number of the case-study schools indicated that all of their citizenship-related topics have been interesting and relevant, especially where the teaching and learning approaches adopted have been innovative and interactive. Where citizenship lacks identity, however, or where teaching and learning is weak, students can be confused by the topics they are learning about. In the words of one Key Stage 4 student:

*You've got like community and the media – completely different ideas...That is why lots of people can't focus, because it is all over the place and a bit wild. We went from drugs, and then exercise, and then politics – like totally irrelevant things.*

This discussion resonates with the findings of OFSTED which in *'Towards Consensus?'* reports that, *'Citizenship makes particular demands on teachers, some of whom are ill-equipped due to inadequate specialist subject knowledge and lack of training'*. (OFSTED 2006a: p. 2).

While students are a good deal more likely to believe that their citizenship-related topics are relevant than not, there are some quite clear exceptions. The following section helps to outline some of the reasons for student's disinterest in specific topics; a discussion which may prove helpful in making recommendations to teachers with regard to the best delivery approaches to these topics.

## 4.5 Topics with perceived irrelevance

### 4.5.1 Voting

While most schools cover voting as an element of their citizenship programmes, students often fail to see the relevance or usefulness of this. A major reason would appear to be that young people, especially those in Key Stage 3, see voting as a far-off adult activity not particularly relevant at this stage in their lives. One Key Stage 4 student stated: *'it's relevant in history because of women's votes and Emily Pankhurst and the Suffragettes,'* but that in terms of learning about, or taking part in, current voting activities it is not relevant: *'... because you don't get to vote until you're eighteen.'* Another Key Stage 3 student commented: *'We can't really vote for the Prime Minister can we, because we're not, like, old enough.'* In response to similar findings, OFSTED's Annual Report (OFSTED, 2006b) states that *'pupils enjoy and achieve when they can see the relevance of what they are learning to their own lives and it is in these circumstances that subjects such as citizenship...are at their most compelling'* (para.237).

In all fairness, many schools do attempt to make voting more relevant by providing opportunities for their students to take part in elections for school councils. However, some students feel that such opportunities can be rather false, and not a particularly good preparation for future voting in local or general elections. Key Stage 4 students in one school reported that elections to school council turn into popularity contests, while in another school, Key Stage 3 students reported that they do not know enough about elections to vote properly, and stated that they would probably pick the same candidate as their friends. Notwithstanding such comments, Key Stage 4 students in a school where little emphasis is placed upon voting within their citizenship programme argued: *'I think we should learn more about voting. In two years time we're going to be able to vote and we will have to read all the manifestos – I think they should give us more help with that.'* The key to this issue, then, would appear to be in finding ways to introduce the concepts of elections and voting to students in a meaningful way; a way that connects with knowledge and understanding of government, political parties and the political process. This could be backed up by well organised voting opportunities – whether mock elections or assemblies such as a Model United Nations General Assembly (MUNGA), or well organised school council elections – within the school.

### 4.5.2 Other topics with low relevance

Other topics perceived by students to have low relevance include:

- **Europe.** Most students could not see the relevance of studying Europe to their everyday lives. As one Key Stage 3 student commented: *'It might be relevant if you go to Europe on holidays, but not until then'*. This presents

an interesting impression that Europe is a ‘*place*’ quite separate to England and the UK, with no bearing upon its legal systems or systems of governance.

- **Conflict resolution.** A Key Stage 4 student argued: ‘*I don’t think you should learn about it in citizenship. It tells you about bullying and how to deal with it and stuff.*’ A different Key Stage 4 student believed, however, that conflict resolution is relevant to the subject of citizenship when it focuses on ‘*war, argument, negotiations.*’ There is an issue here about what is, and what is not, citizenship, which some students appear to be alert to; a finding which supports the conclusions of OFSTED that there can be a tendency in some schools to conflate citizenship and PSHE topics:

*‘The importance of resolving conflict fairly’ is an aspect of the Key Stage 3 curriculum that has commonly shifted from a citizenship to a personal development context. Thus, schools have claimed that aspects of PSHE or circle time on family disputes or lessons about bullying in drama are part of citizenship. But these do not go far enough in terms of understanding general principles applicable at all levels from the personal to the local, national and international. Pupils need to learn about negotiation and compromise, principles and pragmatism, and what happens when no resolution is achieved. (OFSTED 2006a: para.31)*

- **Volunteering.** There is a tendency for students to view the various community service and extra curricular activities in which they are involved as quite separate to their citizenship programmes and not to make a link between them. Volunteering and ‘*active participation*’ are not regarded by many students to be a component of their formal citizenship learning at this stage.

Following the previous section on delivery methods, this section has focused on the extent to which schools currently deliver the programmes of study for citizenship at Key Stages 3 and 4 and the balance between:

- knowledge and understanding
- the skills of enquiry and communication and
- ‘active citizenship’ through participation and responsible action.

In addition, it has gone some way towards providing evidence with which to address research question 4 – what are the models or strands of delivery which appear to be most effective? - by considering students’ views on the importance of citizenship education topics and the effectiveness of delivery and learning approaches within schools. Section 5, which follows, adds to this already growing evidence base on citizenship delivery, through a consideration of the staffing of the subject and its relation to delivery methods.



## 5. Staffing citizenship education

### Key findings

- Citizenship education coordinators are often also PSHE coordinators and tend to teach citizenship education and PSHE as their main subject(s). About a quarter are members of their school's senior management team.
- Teachers are often involved in citizenship delivery simply because they teach the subjects through which citizenship education is delivered. Few schools have dedicated teams of citizenship staff reflecting the fact that only around a quarter of schools are delivering citizenship as a discrete subject.
- Most teachers have involved external parties when teaching citizenship-related topics, with the police and voluntary groups or charities being the most often cited external partners in the teaching of citizenship education.
- Four years on from the introduction of citizenship education as a statutory subject, over half of teachers have still not received any citizenship related training. Over two thirds feel that they need more training, particularly in assessment and reporting, and in specifics of the subject matter.
- Related to this, many teachers lack confidence regarding teaching certain topics, particularly the economy and business and the European Union.

As the key resource for citizenship education, this section outlines staff members involved in the coordination, planning and delivery of citizenship education in schools. It considers the professional background and the level of input of the staff involved, as well as their training needs and the degree and quality of continuous professional development available to teachers. In doing so it provides further evidence with which to address research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 of this report:

- What are the main models of delivery of citizenship education and the factors which underpin these delivery models?
- How far is the delivery process developing and changing as citizenship education becomes more embedded in the curriculum?
- What are practitioners' views on citizenship education and on related training?
- What are the models or strands of delivery which appear to be most effective?

## 5.1 Coordination of citizenship education

Nine out of ten schools (91 per cent) have recruited a citizenship coordinator, a proportion which has remained stable since 2004. Whilst in six per cent of cases, senior managers indicate that a coordinator has ‘*not yet*’ been appointed, three per cent simply reply that no coordinator has been appointed; a fact which indicates that a core minority of schools feel this role is not required. This may, in some cases, be due to the internal structure of the schools. In one case-study school, for instance, a new middle management structure was about to be introduced which had overridden the need for subject heads.

### **Introducing a year group-based management structure**

The school is about to undergo considerable change at middle management level (in response to the ‘leading from the middle’ directive) with the introduction of a year group-based management structure and the removal of head of department roles. Each year group will have three middle managers with responsibility for all curriculum and pastoral issues across the year group. Remit areas will include pupil progress, teacher development and curriculum development.

In this school, the role of citizenship coordinator will cease to exist. For each year group, citizenship education will be mainly under the remit of the curriculum development manager, with the teacher development manager also having a key input. One curriculum manager-to-be commented: ‘*We’re fortunate in that we take over a citizenship programme which is pretty good. It’s got very good events within it, but it’s also got very good lessons within the PSHE programme.*’

In those schools with citizenship education coordinators, most have been appointed internally (92 per cent) suggesting that most schools feel that they have the internal capacity to develop citizenship education. However, this may also reflect the still small pool and/or relative inexperience of those who have completed the PGCE in Citizenship. Coordinators appointed internally have mainly been selected because they have experience of teaching relevant subjects or citizenship education or know the requirements of the curriculum.

The majority of citizenship coordinators report that the main subjects which they teach are citizenship education and PSHE (see Table 1). Other subjects frequently reported as being their main subjects include RE and history. Whilst the proportion of coordinators teaching citizenship as their main subject has remained stable, between 2004 and 2006 there was a marked increase in the percentage of those who identified PSHE as their main subject area. This was accompanied by a decrease in those who mainly taught RE, history and geography and is likely to be linked to the fact that, between 2004

and 2006, the delivery of citizenship education became more concentrated in only a few subjects (see section 3.1).

**Table 1.** Main subjects which citizenship coordinators most often teach

	Year of survey	
	2004 Coordinators %	2006 Coordinators %
Citizenship	60	61
PSHE	45	59
RE	27	23
History	25	20
Geography	16	12
English	12	10
Science	7	8
<b>N=</b>	<b>146</b>	<b>173</b>

*Base: 146 teachers in 2004 and 173 school teachers in 2006 who reported being the citizenship coordinator in their school.*

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

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

The citizenship coordinator was often also the PSHE coordinator (in 66 per cent of schools). This overlap of responsibilities reflects the delivery models adopted in schools, since modules in PSHE tend to be the main delivery vehicle for citizenship education in about half of the schools (see section 3.1). In addition, about one-quarter of citizenship education coordinators were members of their school's senior management team, which has remained stable over time (26 and 24 per cent in 2006 and 2004, respectively).

## 5.2 Planning the citizenship education curriculum

In most schools, citizenship education and PSHE coordinators have responsibility for developing the curriculum (see Table 2). Others who often have an input in terms of curriculum development are teachers who will be delivering citizenship education, senior managers and heads of year.



**Table 2.** Staff responsible for developing the curriculum

	Year of survey	
	2004	2006
	School leaders %	School leaders %
Coordinator for citizenship	83	79
PSHE coordinator	58	59
Teachers who will be delivering citizenship	45	35
The Senior Management Team	41	34
Heads of year	36	30
Head of department/faculty	----	21
Other	10	6
No response	1	0
<b>N=</b>	<b>196</b>	<b>214</b>

*Base: All school leaders.*

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

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

Overall, about half of all teachers surveyed (51 per cent) report having been involved in planning the curriculum in their school. Of those *not* involved in planning, only two-thirds (66 per cent) feel that they have been informed of what is planned for their school. This probably contributes to the fact that, a sizeable proportion of teachers (39 per cent in 2004 and 38 per cent in 2006) either disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that they understood how their school was implementing the national curriculum order. In addition, only about one-fifth of teachers thought that teachers in their school shared a common understanding of citizenship education, and many did not know whether this was the case (42 per cent).

### 5.3 Staffing citizenship education

As would be expected, staffing strategies for citizenship education resonate with schools' approaches to delivery. Sixty-six per cent of school leaders report that teaching a particular subject (such as PSHE and RE) is a reason for teachers to be involved in the delivery of citizenship education (shown in Table 3). Contrasting staffing approaches include the involvement of all or most tutors or teachers in its delivery or the selection of teachers with experience of teaching citizenship or other relevant teaching experience.

**Table 3.** Staff delivering citizenship education

	Year of survey	
	2004 School leaders %	2006 School leaders %
Those teaching particular subjects (e.g. RE, PSHE)	66	66
All or most tutors	59	54
Those with experience of teaching citizenship	32	38
All or most teachers	38	38
Those with experience of other relevant teaching	38	35
Volunteers	18	16
Other	13	7
No response	1	0
<b>N=</b>	<b>196</b>	<b>214</b>

*Base: All school leaders.*

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

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

In 2006, few schools report having contracted new staff to teach citizenship (13 per cent) compared to 2004 (17 per cent), suggesting that schools may be starting to feel that they are already making good provision or that they are now concentrating their recruitment resources in other areas.

## 5.4 Staff development

The majority of teachers surveyed indicate that they have not received any training in relation to citizenship education (55 per cent). This represents no change from 2004, when the same proportion reported not having received any training. This is consistent with the fact that schools find training to be a challenging area. A majority of teachers (52 per cent) and many senior managers (42 per cent) identify training as one of the main challenges to citizenship education.

Those teachers who have received training most often report receiving informal training (59 per cent). However, many have also attended external training (58 per cent) and internal training (55 per cent). In addition, just over one quarter (27 per cent) of teachers report receiving training as part of professional qualifications, such as a PGCE.

Sixty-four per cent of teachers who attended external training received it from local authorities. Other training providers were also highlighted:

- citizenship organisations (31 per cent);
- commercial organisations (30 per cent);
- examination boards (16 per cent);
- universities (10 per cent);
- charities (9 per cent);
- the Learning and Skills Development Agency (LSDA, now LSN) (5 per cent);
- other providers (16 per cent).

Between 2004 and 2006, the proportion of teachers attending external training decreased (from 64 to 58 per cent), whereas there was a slight increase in internal training (from 51 to 55 per cent of teachers). This increase in the proportion of teachers having received internal training may be due to a combination of, on the one hand, schools feeling that they now have in-house expertise which can be disseminated effectively and, on the other, constraints associated with staffing, finance and time affecting whether staff are sent on external training. It may be that citizenship education is no longer a priority given the other training opportunities that schools may be under pressure to provide, particularly in relation to the National Strategies.

The vignette below indicates how, in one case-study school, financial and time constraints, as well as the fact that citizenship education staff tend to change every year, combine to affect senior managers' willingness to send staff on external training and the citizenship education coordinator's ability to provide support and guidance to staff.

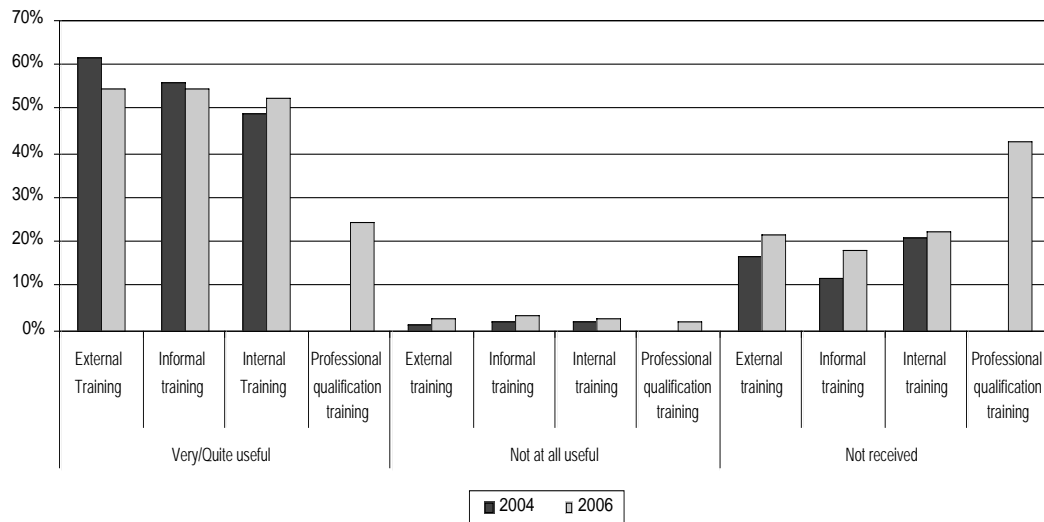
#### **A school experiencing professional development constraints**

Citizenship education is taught through discrete lessons, in this school. The senior management team recognise the importance of citizenship education and value the citizenship education coordinator, who is perceived to have created a very good delivery package. However, delivery is hindered by issues surrounding staffing and training and support.

In particular, there are not enough appropriate members of teaching staff. The coordinator is the only staff member whose sole responsibility is teaching citizenship. The remaining teachers are those with '*slack*' in their schedules. In such circumstances, decisions about staff training are hampered by concerns about cost effectiveness of training as citizenship staff are liable to change annually. In addition, although the coordinator feels that providing support and guidance to other teachers should be part of her role, constraints on her and her staff's time make it '*virtually impossible*' to arrange team meetings.

When teachers do undertake training, they generally perceive it to be useful (see Figure 1). Moreover, training received as part of professional qualifications is perceived to be either 'very' or 'quite useful' by most of those who report receiving it (25 per cent)<sup>5</sup>.

**Figure 1.** Perceptions of the usefulness of different types of training



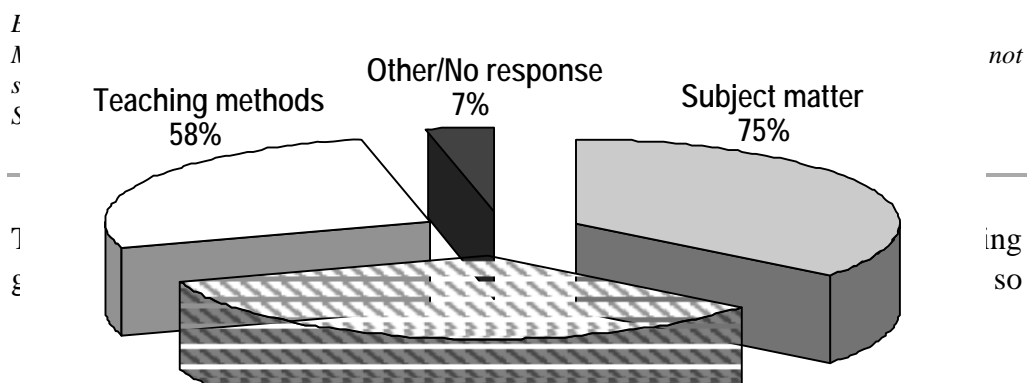
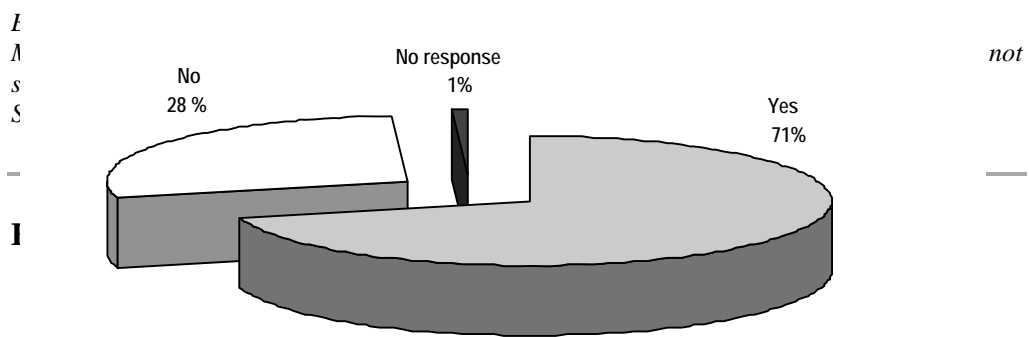
*Base: All school teachers who indicated that they had received any training in 2004 (N=312) and in 2006 (N=338)*

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

However, a worryingly large proportion of teachers indicate that they feel the need for (additional) training in citizenship education. Training needs are particularly felt in the areas of assessment and reporting and many teachers also report feeling the need for training in teaching methods (see Figure 3). Compared to 2004, a greater proportion of teachers also report the need for subject matter training (69 and 75 per cent in 2004 and 2006, respectively).

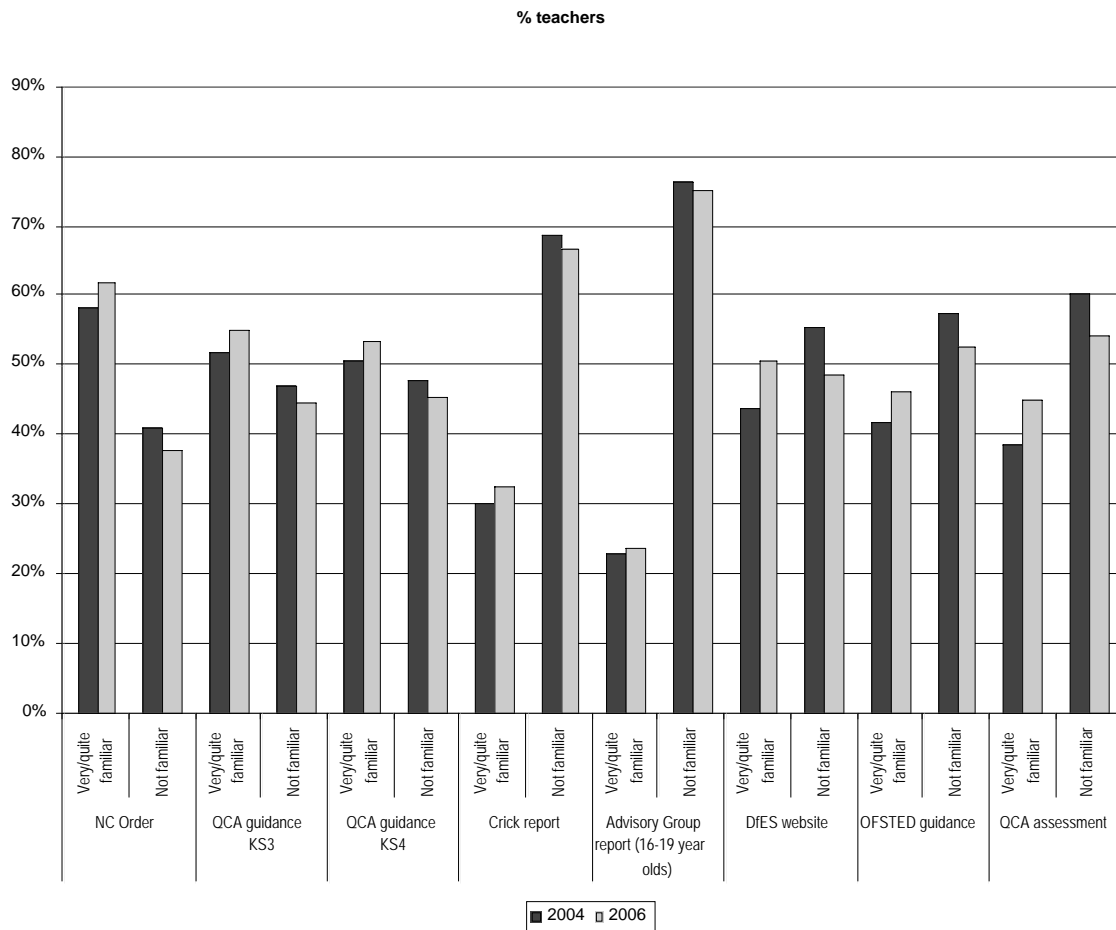
<sup>5</sup> The item was included in 2006 survey only.

**Figure 2.** Teachers' perceived need for training in citizenship education



few teachers are specialist citizenship teachers would also explain the fact that only a minority of those surveyed are members of the Association for Citizenship Teaching (seven per cent), and they remain only moderately familiar with key citizenship documents (see Figure 4).

**Figure 4.** Teachers' familiarity with key citizenship education documents



*Base: All school teachers surveyed in 2004 (N=709) and in 2006 (N=779)*

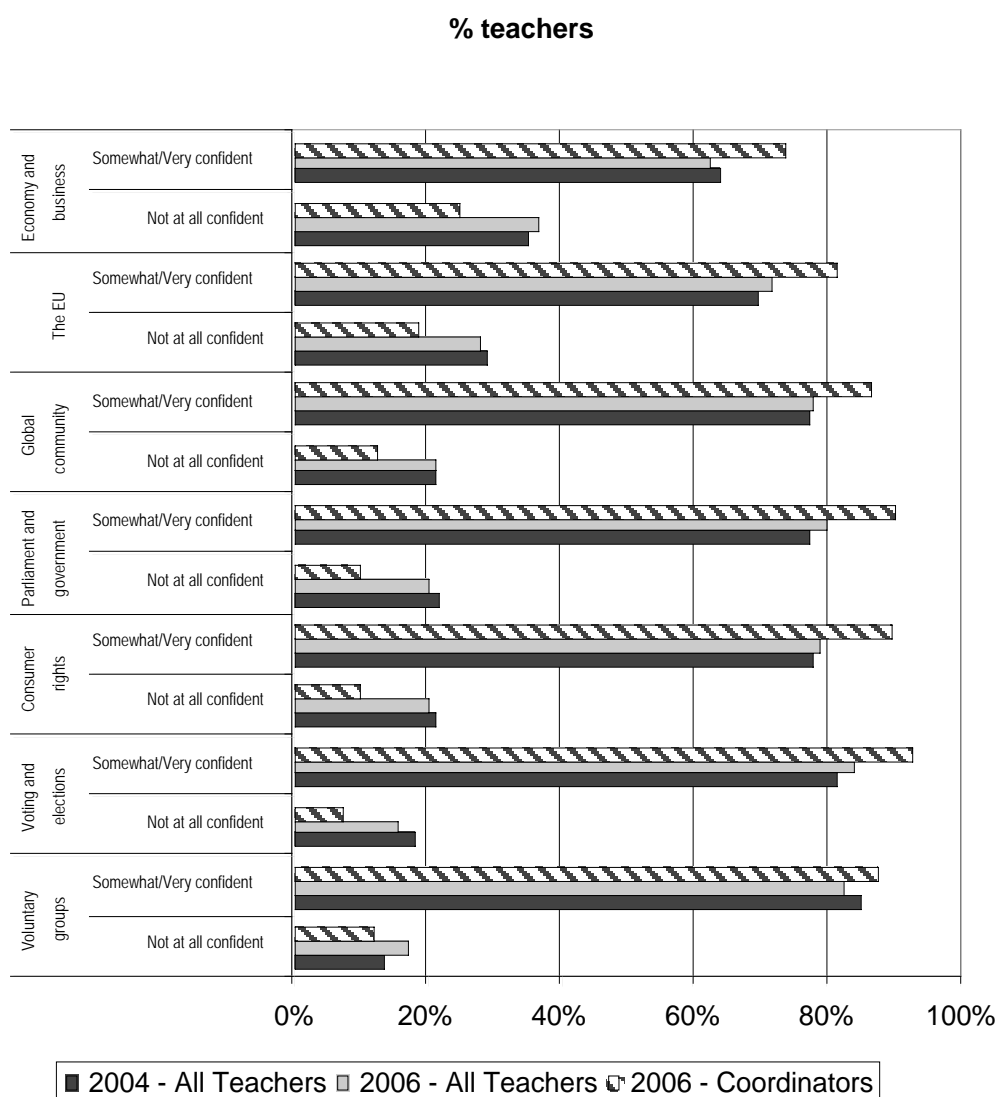
*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

*In addition to the percentages shown in the chart a small number of teachers (1 per cent or less) did not respond to each item.*

Again, perhaps related to staff turnover, or the tendency to subsume citizenship education into existing curriculum subjects, levels of confidence regarding the teaching of citizenship-related topics are low amongst a sizeable minority of teachers. When asked how confident they are about teaching a series of citizenship-related topics, most teachers rated themselves as feeling 'very' or 'somewhat confident'. However, for each topic, there were at least eight per cent of teachers who considered themselves not to be confident at all with regards to teaching that topic. The economy and business, the European Union, and the global community and international organisations attracted

particularly high proportions of ‘*not at all confident*’ answers (see Figures 5 and 6). Even amongst citizenship education coordinators there tended to be relatively high levels of lack of confidence in certain topics, particularly the economy and business and the European Union.

**Figure 5.** Topics which teachers feel **least** confident about teaching

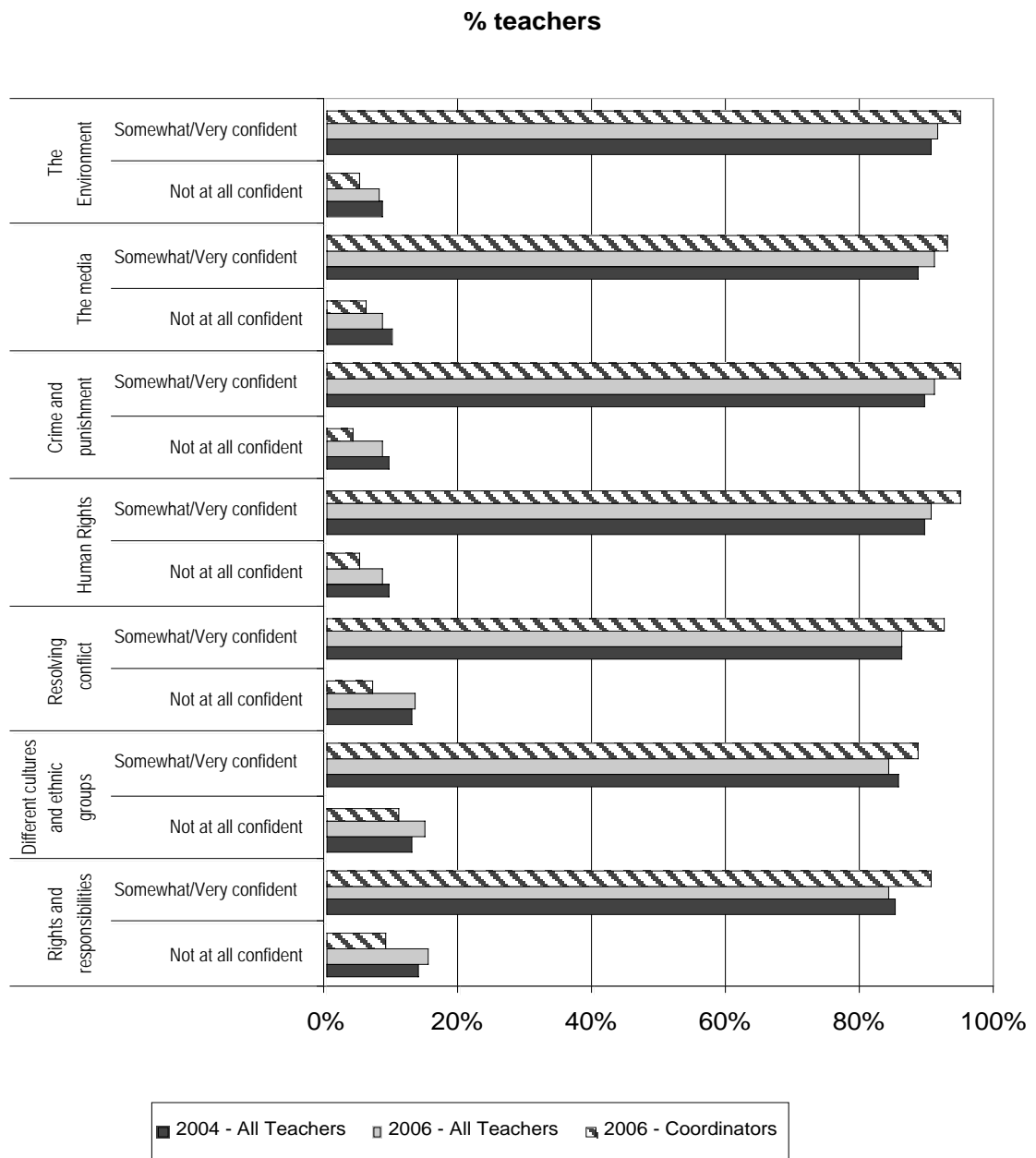


*Base: All school teachers surveyed in 2004 (N=709) and in 2006 (N=779). All teachers surveyed in 2006 who are citizenship education coordinators (N= 173).  
Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

Between 2004 and 2006, there was not much change in teachers’ levels of confidence in the teaching of citizenship education. The only area where there appears to have been noticeable change is the media, in relation to which 48

per cent of teachers in 2006 rated themselves as very confident compared to 41 per cent in 2004.

**Figure 6.** Topics which teachers feel **most** confident about teaching.



*Base: All school teachers surveyed in 2004 (N=709) and in 2006 (N=779). All teachers surveyed in 2006 who are citizenship education coordinators (N= 173).  
Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*



As would be expected, and consistent with findings about delivery modes (section 3.1), citizenship education coordinators are also often PSHE coordinators and tend to have either citizenship education or PSHE as the main subjects which they teach. Moreover, teachers are often involved in citizenship education delivery because they teach subjects which are used as a vehicle for citizenship education, such as PSHE and RE. There is some indication that schools now have a growing amount of expertise in citizenship education. However, there still appear to be deficiencies affecting the development, by schools, of human resources pools which are highly acquainted with the key aims of citizenship education and the school's plans to implement them. There are also insufficiencies in the training of teachers regarding delivery, subject content and assessment methods in the area of citizenship education.

## 6. Teaching and learning

### Key Findings:

- There is still a tendency towards traditional methods of *'teaching'* students, rather than a focus upon student-centred learning.
- There have been slight increases in the incidence of *'working in groups'* and *'exploring, debating and discussing issues'*, and a reduction in the incidence of *'working from worksheets and textbooks'*.
- Students have more opportunities to be participative in lessons in 2006 than in 2004. Teachers are more likely to believe that students have opportunities to have their voice heard within the classroom, and the frequency with which they are said to be involved in *'discussing how to work during lessons'*, in *'planning the teaching and learning'*, and in *'working with other students'*, has also increased.
- As staff expertise in citizenship education is variable within and across schools, well produced *'guidance packs'*, which teachers can use without too much need for prior preparation, can improve the quality of teaching and learning.
- Students within schools can experience variable lesson quality dependent upon the teaching staff involved. Teaching and learning appears most effective:
  - in schools where citizenship is taught by small, dedicated teams
  - where it has strong and clear leadership and direction
  - where it is well supported through up-to-date, accessible lesson plans and resources.
- Students in case-study schools report a strong preference for active and interactive forms of learning (such as discussion and debate). Most teachers and students also believe that active teaching and learning approaches help students to learn most effectively.

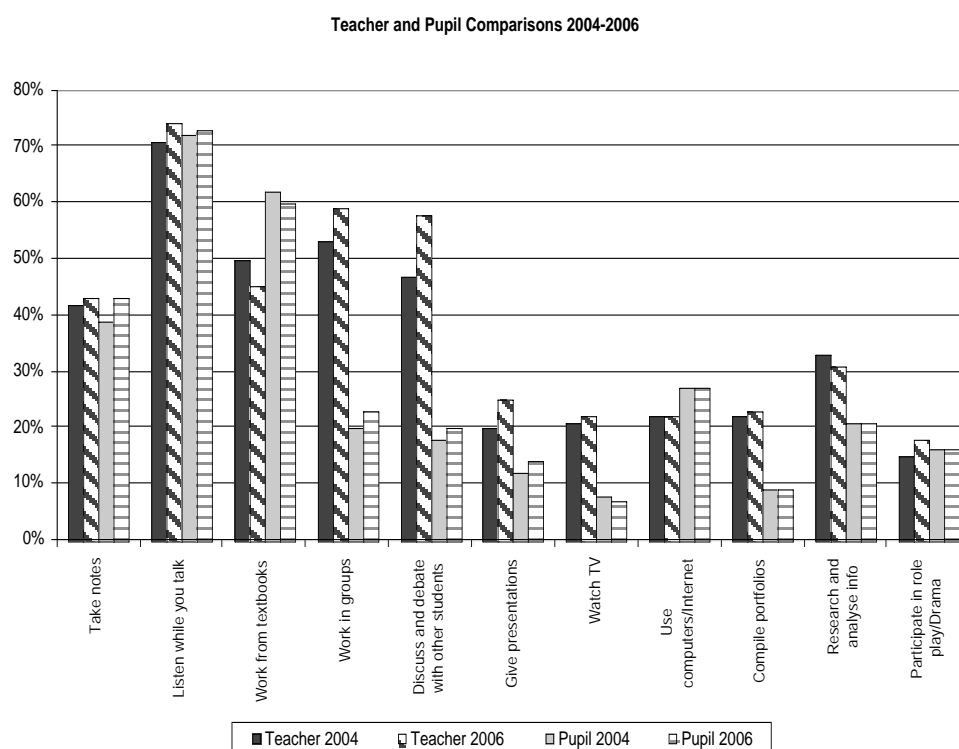
This section of the report focuses on one further aspect of delivery – teaching and learning approaches – in order to provide further evidence to address the research questions guiding this report. It considers the approaches to teaching and learning adopted by schools that participated in the 2004 and 2006 cross-sectional surveys, whether any relationship exists between teaching and learning approach and delivery model and considers students' preferred approaches to teaching and learning. In particular, this discussion provides

evidence with which to address research question 4: what are the models of strands of delivery which appear to be most effective?

## 6.1 Teaching and learning approaches

Teacher and student responses to the 2006 cross-sectional survey suggest that schools still tend towards traditional methods of imparting information and helping students to learn about citizenship-related topics, although there have been some slight shifts since 2004. It is clear, for example, that *'listening while the teacher talks'* is the most frequently used approach to learning (74 per cent of teachers and 73 per cent of students said that this happened *'often'* in their lessons in 2006 – figures that had risen slightly from 71 per cent and 72 per cent respectively in 2004). Giving presentations, recording achievements/compiling portfolios, using computers or the internet, watching television or videos and participating in role play and drama are used far less frequently, as Figure 1 below demonstrates. This suggests that across many schools there remains a greater emphasis on traditional methods of *'teaching'* than on the facilitation of students' *'learning'*.

**Figure 1.** Teacher and student perceptions of teaching and learning approaches used in lessons. Those answering 'often'



Base: All teachers and tutors surveyed. All students surveyed.

Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006

However, some subtle, but key, changes were also apparent. The proportion of teachers and students believing that '*working in groups*' was a teaching and learning strategy used '*often*' increased in 2006. The importance of '*exploring, discussing and debating issues with other students*' was also clear, with a substantial rise in the proportion of teachers saying that this happened '*often*' from just under half (47 per cent) in 2004 to 58 per cent in 2006.<sup>6</sup> Interestingly, teachers also reported a reduction in the incidence of students working from worksheets and textbooks. As the graph in Figure 1 shows, whilst these changes over time are relatively slight, they suggest that a small shift may be taking place in approaches to teaching and learning, creating a classroom climate that is becoming slightly more experiential and varied.

It is also clear that students and teachers have different perceptions of the use of teaching and learning methods. Teachers are more likely than students, for example, to believe that working in groups, exploring issues, researching and analysing information from different sources, giving presentations, recording achievements and watching television are used often as methods of assisting learning. Students, in contrast, state that they often use textbooks and worksheets or computers or the internet in lessons.

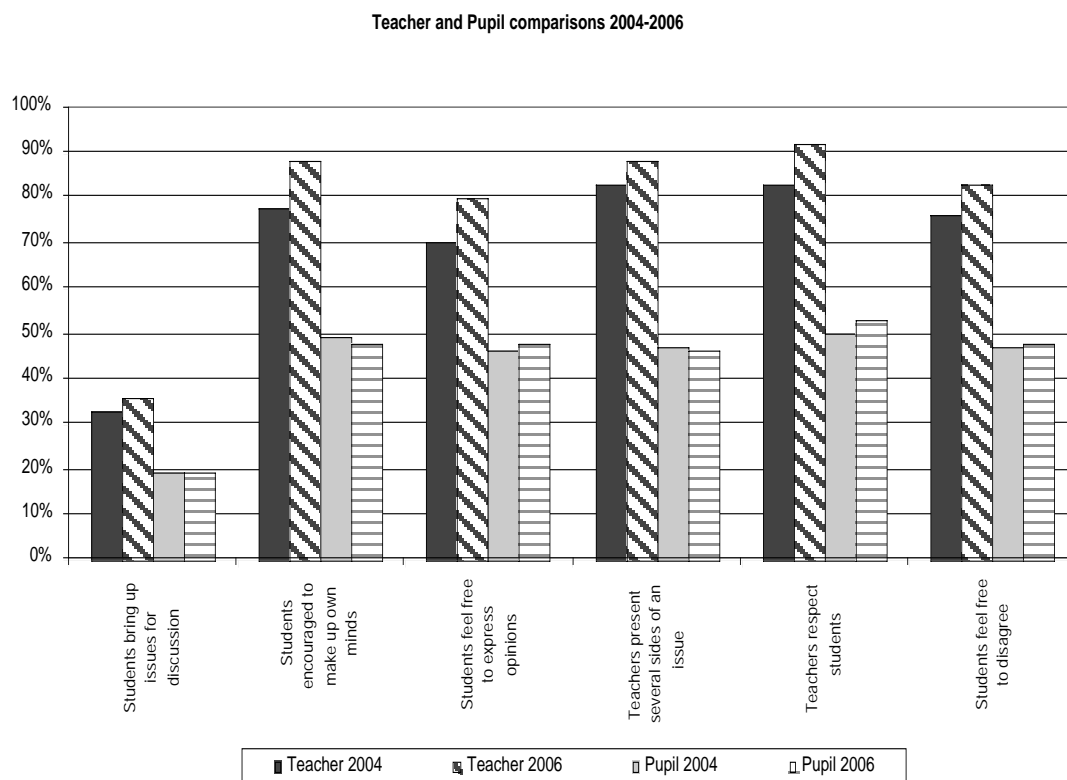
## 6.2 Student voice

Although relatively traditional teaching methods still appear to dominate, teachers report a high, and increasing, level of '*student voice*' and decision-making opportunities within lessons as indicated in Figure 2 below. Students perceive that they have much lower levels of such opportunities than their teachers. Indeed, their responses indicate that the extent of student voice within the classroom has remained fairly static over time, whilst teachers' perceptions are that there has been a substantial increase in student involvement between 2004 and 2006.

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<sup>6</sup> It is noteworthy that only 18 per cent of students in 2004 and 20 per cent in 2006 believed that this teaching and learning method was adopted often.

**Figure 2.** Teacher and student views on opportunities for students to express their opinions in lessons. Those answering ‘quite a bit’ and ‘a lot’



Base: All teachers and tutors surveyed; all students surveyed.

Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006

Whilst teachers are far more likely than students to believe that students have opportunities to have their voice heard and to make decisions within the classroom, it is encouraging that the highest proportions of both teachers (83 per cent in 2004 rising to 92 per cent in 2006) and students (50 per cent in 2004 increasing to 53 per cent in 2006) answered ‘quite a bit’ or ‘a lot’ to the statement: ‘teachers respect students’ opinions and encourage them to express them’. This indicates the existence of a positive learning climate in which students’ views are taken seriously by teachers, and in which they are encouraged to participate in their learning. Teachers’ responses also indicate that there have been increases in the incidence of the following taking place ‘quite a bit’ or ‘a lot’:

- Teachers presenting several sides of an issue when explaining about it (83 per cent in 2004 rising to 88 per cent in 2006)
- Students being encouraged to make up their own minds about issues (77 per cent in 2004 rising to 88 per cent in 2006)
- Students feeling free to disagree with teachers about topical issues (76 per cent in 2004 rising to 83 per cent in 2006)

- Students feeling free to express opinions even when they are different from most of the class (70 per cent in 2004 rising to 80 per cent in 2006).<sup>7</sup>

However, Figure 2 reveals students gain little opportunity to **bring up issues in the news for discussion in class**, suggesting that there may not be sufficient flexibility within many citizenship programmes for teachers and students to respond to topical issues as they arise. Case-study data provides some indication as to why this is the case. Citizenship coordinators and other citizenship teachers comment that there is often so much to cover in citizenship programmes that it can be difficult to deviate from the programme of study and be ‘*spontaneous*’ when newsworthy items emerge. As one citizenship coordinator stated: ‘*Sometimes the issues that happen in the news don’t fit with your programme*’, whilst another comments: ‘*If it fits in with the next topic that we are looking at, then we can do it...It would be lovely to be more flexible...but we just haven’t got the space to fit in all the topics.*’ A citizenship teacher in a further school concurred, and defended this position:

*To be honest, I think that this is the best way to do it. You can’t keep moving away from the scheme of work all the time. It would be nice if you could, but you do have a syllabus and, especially at GCSE, if you move from one subject to another you can confuse students.*

It is also clear that definitions of ‘*topical*’ vary. There are examples of schools in which well known news items from a year or two ago, such as the Stephen Lawrence and Tony Martin cases, are used to illuminate lesson plans, and provide a platform from which to discuss issues such as media representation, racism, ethics and so on. This is an approach that teachers can often feel comfortable with because it is essentially pre-planned. In contrast, schools in which teachers report giving lessons ‘*on spec*’, in response to student interest or current news items, are both small in number and tend to have particularly dynamic or innovative teaching staff at the helm. A coordinator in one such school notes that: ‘*The scheme of work is not set in stone, it’s constantly evolving*’ adding: ‘*As soon as it’s written, it’s redundant.*’ A different coordinator comments that it takes skill and experience to make lessons appear topical, responsive and relevant, whilst also ensuring that the requirements of the scheme of work are followed.

In short, irrespective of the time available, the extent to which topical issues are covered is dependent upon teacher confidence, expertise and knowledge. Whilst some teachers are comfortable tackling issues appearing in the news or raised by students, others prefer to adhere more closely to their lesson plans. This means that students’ experience of citizenship as a topical, controversial and contemporary subject can vary even within one school.

<sup>7</sup> It should be noted that student responses did not indicate the same increases in incidence over time.

### 6.3 Student participation

Survey data indicates a positive picture of students gaining more opportunities to be participative in lessons in 2006 than in 2004. The reported percentage shifts shown in Table 1 below are very similar for school leaders, teachers and students although, as has been demonstrated in previous sections, teachers and school leaders generally reported higher levels of student participation than the students themselves. The incidence of students being involved in **planning** the teaching and learning is also still relatively low, although increasing over time.

**Table 1.** Frequency with which participative classroom activities occur. Those answering ‘*sometimes*’, ‘*quite a lot*’ or ‘*a lot*’

Students:	Teachers %		School Leaders %		Students %	
	2004	2006	2004	2006	2004	2006
are involved in planning teaching and learning	33	43	33	44	18	23
discuss with teachers how to work during lessons	66	72	71	79	53	57
have more influence when they work together	83	88	87	95	85	87
N =	<b>709</b>	<b>779</b>	<b>196</b>	<b>214</b>	<b>6,400</b>	<b>6,354</b>

*A series of single response items*

*Base: All teachers, all school leaders and all students surveyed.*

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

Although students are less likely to agree with these statements than their teachers, they are more likely to agree with them in 2006 than students had been in 2004. It is also clear that views on the degree of student participation differ according to the year group of the responding students. For example:

- If we consider 2006 responses to the statement ‘*students are involved in **planning teaching and learning***’, Year 12 students are most likely to agree (almost one third (29 per cent) answered ‘*sometimes*’, ‘*quite a bit*’ or ‘*a lot*’), whilst under one fifth (17 per cent) of Year 10 students agreed.
- Similarly, taking 2006 responses to the statement ‘*students **discuss with teachers how to work in lessons***’, Year 8 students are most likely to agree (almost two thirds (62 per cent) answered ‘*sometimes*’, ‘*quite a bit*’ or ‘*a lot*’), whilst only just over half (51 per cent) of Year 10 students agreed.

While it is not surprising that Year 12 students report greater levels of participation in lesson planning than other year groups, given higher expectations upon them of autonomy and independent working, it is surprising that Year 8 students report having greater input into discussions with teachers

than older students. Year 10 students are consistently least likely to agree with statements relating to the degree of their classroom participation. Teachers and school leaders may wish to consider the reasons underlying Year 10 students' perception that lessons do not provide them with sufficient opportunities for participation and involvement, in order to ensure that they retain motivation and gain genuine opportunities to participate in classroom and school decision making. This finding may, of course, be a reflection of the knowledge-based nature of many GCSE courses, and the pressure upon students to prepare for examinations.

#### **6.4 Uniformity of approach to teaching and learning within and between schools**

A common model across case study schools is the production of a booklet or pack by the citizenship coordinator and/or a small team, containing a general scheme of work for citizenship lessons, sometimes detailed lesson plans, and other suggestions for activities or approaches to teaching and learning. Interviewees indicate that there are various degrees of 'looseness' or detail within such packs according to the particular school within which they are developed and used. Nevertheless, this indicates that many schools have in place an overarching plan for citizenship education and the ways in which it might be developed within lessons, which can be utilised by classroom teachers.

The ways in which teaching staff utilise such plans, and the impact of this model, appears variable depending on the context in which they are used and the skills and the confidence of the teacher using them. In some schools teachers are actively encouraged to develop lessons in their own way according to their particular skills base, knowledge and interests, using materials provided by the coordinator as a general guide or reference tool. This allows for a flexible and responsive programme, which hopefully holds the interest of both staff and students. However, it is noted that this approach can lead to a variable experience for students, especially where citizenship is taught by a range of different teachers across the school, with differing levels of confidence (as when delivered through the school's tutorial programme, for example). As one citizenship teacher commented:

*I do think that certain teachers have more skills in teaching some topics depending upon the subject they teach themselves. For example, if you are a Maths teacher and you are teaching PSHE, you might find it hard and you might not have as many skills in teaching and learning appropriate to that subject.*

Her argument is that teachers who are unfamiliar with the topics covered within citizenship, and the skills that ideally need to be developed and utilised,



are likely to fall back on, and overly adhere to, pre-prepared materials. A teacher in a different school agreed, commenting that, whilst tutors have access to detailed schemes of work and lesson plans for citizenship, many of the suggested activities are worksheet based. Teachers, in particular those who teach unrelated subjects, understandably often go for the ‘*easy option*’ and use these worksheets, because of the sheer amount of time needed to prepare a tutor period lesson that is interesting and engaging for students. This clearly resonates with the findings of OFSTED (2006a: p2) that ‘*Citizenship makes particular demands on teachers, some of whom are ill-equipped due to inadequate specialist subject knowledge and a lack of training*’.

Thus, where citizenship programmes are delivered in a cross-curricular fashion, or through tutorial or PSHE programmes, and/or are taught by a number of different teachers, it appears that there is need for a tightly produced central scheme of work and lesson plans that teachers can understand, pick up and use without too much need for prior preparation. Whilst some teachers will always put in extra effort if citizenship is an area of particular interest to them, this approach might go some way to ensuring that **all** staff have the tools to deliver citizenship lessons at a consistently high level.

However, even if this is in place, the reality of the situation is revealed by one coordinator: ‘*Some staff don’t look at the materials until just before the lesson.*’ This highlights an issue which has perhaps less to do with consistency of approach, or quality of supporting materials, than the overall status of citizenship within the school. A teacher in a different school made a similar comment: ‘*It is something they have to teach – they are quite resentful of it and so it [the quality of teaching] fades.*’ Within this context, it is questionable whether even the most well designed lesson plans and supporting materials will be enough to ensure a consistent and high quality learning experience for all students.

Certainly, students’ views and experience of citizenship lessons are quite varied, not only across, but often also within, case-study schools. Student responses to a request to ‘*talk the interviewer through a typical citizenship lesson*’, fall broadly into four categories, as summarised in Figure 3 below.

**Figure 3.**

Consistently good lessons	Good lessons, but different tutors do different things	Consistently weak lessons	Variable lesson quality, depending upon the tutor
<p>Key Stage 3 and 4 students across a number of schools are very positive about their citizenship lessons, which they believe to be well structured, varied in terms of teaching and learning approach and interesting. A Key Stage 4 student in one school commented: <i>'They are very open... There's lots of discussion and there's no right or wrong answer.'</i> In this school citizenship is taught discretely by a small, dedicated team.</p> <p>In a different school, where students had carried out an innovative simulated exercise, one interviewee commented: <i>'It was really good fun, because you got to talk about it and hear other people's opinions – you weren't totally biased towards one group or the another and it made you fairer and helped you to understand better.'</i></p>	<p>This view was well expressed by Key Stage 3 students in one school, where citizenship is taught right across the curriculum and through tutorials, by a range of staff. All staff in this school use the <i>'accelerated learning cycle'</i> as a means of structuring lessons, and students are well aware of this. Nearly all students in the group said that their tutors use different learning approaches – discussions, role play, whole class <i>'brainstorming'</i> and simulated activities for example, but the key point is that all students commented that they find their lessons <i>'interesting.'</i></p>	<p>Schools in which this view prevails are those in which citizenship appears to have rather low status and credibility. As a Key Stage 4 student in one such school commented on his combined PSHE and citizenship lessons: <i>'You just sort of relax in PSHE – it's not like a proper lesson. You can just see all your friends. It is the only lesson you can get to see your friends and your tutor.'</i></p> <p>Key Stage 4 students in a different school had little positive to say about their lessons other than that they are <i>'quiet'</i>, that they have nothing to do with politics, that all topics are chosen by the teachers and that, in their perception <i>'some of them [their teachers] are 70 years old.'</i></p>	<p>Key Stage 4 students in one school explained that, whilst some tutors use a lot of varied techniques, including discussion and role play, others mainly base their lessons around worksheets. Whilst those students encountering varied techniques reported that they enjoy their lessons and learned a lot, those whose lessons were worksheet led found the process of learning rather boring.</p> <p>Key Stage 3 students in a different school expressed the same points, stating the perception that some tutors regard citizenship lessons as a <i>'chore'</i>, whilst others engage with it and make it fun and interesting. One student added: <i>'We do learn quite a lot if they teach it well.'</i> A Key Stage 4 student in the same school, who has experience of being taught by two different tutors commented: <i>'My tutor that I did have wasn't interested... We didn't do anything. But the tutor group that I am in now is really good fun.'</i> Such comments invariably come from students in schools which teach citizenship in a cross-curricular fashion, or through a wider tutorial programme.</p>

Most schools would presumably hope that their students would answer questions about teaching and learning in citizenship in a similar way to those responses falling within the first two columns of the above grid. Whilst many students across case-study schools view their citizenship lessons positively, this is not universal. As would be expected in the light of the analysis above, students within individual schools sometimes receive a very variable quality of teaching and learning in citizenship, dependent upon who happens to teach them, their degree of specialism, knowledge, skills or enthusiasm. But do those who adopt a discrete delivery programme have higher teaching and learning standards as OFSTED (2006a: p. 2) would lead us to expect? The following section explores this relationship in order to address the claims of OFSTED.

## 6.5 Relationship between teaching and learning approach and delivery model

The case-study schools visited adopt three broad approaches to the delivery of citizenship education, with roughly equal numbers of schools falling into each category:

- Discrete delivery – citizenship as a separately timetabled, named subject.
- Carousel approach - citizenship as a discrete element within a broader PSHE, careers education and guidance (CEG) or religious education (RE) programme.
- Cross-curricular delivery, citizenship merged into PSHE or tutorial programmes or the use of collapsed timetable days. Schools normally adopt a combination of at least two of these approaches.

A look at schools' approaches to curriculum delivery alongside teachers' and students' views of the teaching and learning of citizenship within their schools, reveals some interesting patterns.

### 6.5.1 Discrete delivery schools

Teachers across schools delivering citizenship as a discrete subject generally feel that their provision is good, and that students find lessons reasonably interesting. Comments include: '*We vary the teaching style as much as possible*' (citizenship coordinator), '*discussion always works best with our children*' (deputy head teacher), and '*it's group work, it's oral work, it's that way rather than having copious notes written down*' (deputy head teacher). Interviewees across these schools also note that they try hard to place as much emphasis on the facilitation of learning as upon traditional '*teaching*' methods. It is recognised, however, that much depends upon the skills and abilities of students as to how effective student-centred learning can be. One coordinator

commented that the balance between teaching and facilitation depends a great deal upon students' age and ability, and that lower ability groups generally need to be more *'spoon fed'*, although she also noted that there are lower ability groups that: *'revel in interactive work and are then quite happy to follow their own ideas and get stuck into something.'*

Across all these schools, with the exception of one, student views of their citizenship lessons fall into the first column of the grid above - *'consistently good'*. This is a positive finding, which is backed up by teachers' own perceptions of how their students respond to citizenship lessons within these schools, as summarised by the following citizenship teacher: *'They like the varied nature of the activities they get involved in, and the different people that come into school'*. That said, in one school offering discrete citizenship lessons, both staff and students indicate that the quality of learning is variable. Some students receive very interactive lessons, whilst for others, the teaching style is much more didactic. As the citizenship coordinator commented: *'The students enjoy it on the whole, but a lot depends on who is teaching it.'* In this school, whilst citizenship is a *'discrete'* subject, it is not taught by a dedicated team of specialists, but rather by all form tutors. What makes for a positive teaching and learning experience for students, therefore seems to reflect less the model of delivery *per se* than the skills and confidence of the teachers delivering the subject. Case study data suggests that small, dedicated teams seem to be an effective means of ensuring good quality teaching and learning.

Teachers in discrete delivery schools also report that it is often more difficult for lessons to be varied and interactive at Key Stage 4 than at Key Stage 3, due to the fact that students are often working towards the short course GCSE in Citizenship – most often the case in schools that deliver citizenship as a discrete subject. Staff report that the need to follow the examination board syllabi, and ensure specific subject coverage, means that there is a tendency to rely more on textbooks. Schools not working towards the GCSE short course are less likely to report this as a concern. Such findings highlight the need to remain cautious of one of the key recommendations of the recent *Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review* (DfES, 2007) that *'citizenship works best when delivered discretely... [with] greater definition and support in place of the flexible, 'light touch' approach'*. The analysis of this Study's data suggests that it is clearly not this simple; a point to which this report will return in its conclusions, and which is further elaborated in the following section.

### **6.5.2 Carousel-approach schools**

Across all schools delivering citizenship as part of a carousel with other subjects such as PSHE, CEG and RE, both teachers and students report very positive views of the teaching and learning that takes place within the citizenship elements of the programme. Teachers comment that there is a strong push on making learning as student-centred as possible through

approaches such as question and answer sessions, debates, group work, role play and the use of *'hands-on resources.'* Indeed all the student groups interviewed report a *'consistently good'* experience of citizenship lessons – a very positive finding.

Teacher perceptions of students' responses to citizenship are rather more muted, but still generally positive. One citizenship coordinator, who would like to become more of a facilitator in lessons, and for students to take more responsibility for their own learning, raises the issue of age as a stumbling block. Speaking of Year 9 students, he states: *'People can call them 'learners' as much as they like, but they are kids.'* His view is that students of this age are ultimately too young to direct their own learning. The issue of student ability levels is also raised again, with one citizenship teacher commenting that whilst higher achieving students tend to be *'well behaved – they get on and do it'*, lower ability students can be disengaged and cannot necessarily relate to the subject. The fact that the students interviewed at this school did not express this view, and were broadly positive about their programme, perhaps suggests that the groups interviewed were not wholly representative of the wider student population. Conversely, a deputy head teacher at a different school makes the point that *'weak'* students often like citizenship education, because there is not too much written work, and there are opportunities for them to be active within the classroom. The issue may therefore have less to do with the appropriateness of the subject for lower achieving students, than with the appropriateness of the teaching and learning approaches adopted by teaching staff to help them engage with a range of citizenship-related issues in meaningful ways.

### **6.5.3 Cross-curricular schools**

Schools that use a combination of cross-curricular delivery, citizenship merged into PSHE or tutorial programmes, or the use of collapsed timetable days, generally receive less favourable comments about the quality of teaching and learning from staff and students. All students indicating that their programmes are *'consistently weak'* (see the grid above) are based in schools using PSHE or tutorial programmes as a vehicle for the delivery of citizenship, and there are also students within such schools that comment upon lesson quality being of variable quality depending upon the tutor teaching them. Staff comments in these schools largely bear out these findings. For example, one coordinator acknowledged that teaching quality is *'very variable'* and dependent upon the skills of the individual tutor. She is also not clear on the extent to which tutors follow the schemes of work in this school. In a different school the coordinator recognised that there is little *'facilitation'* of students' learning, because of the challenges faced by tutors in managing discussion and debate, for example. This coordinator adds that because his is a *'very big school'*, and because citizenship is taught right across it, he does not always

know what is happening, and that it is very difficult to measure the effectiveness of the programme.

Whilst this presents a fairly negative picture of the ability of cross-curricular programmes to adopt effective teaching and learning in citizenship, it should not be assumed that such programmes cannot be effective. Indeed in two such schools, students report that they have a '*consistently good*' experience of teaching and learning in citizenship through consistently good lessons, with different tutors approaching things in different ways. Staff interviewees in both schools report that a range of approaches is utilised to keep teaching and learning as interactive as possible. Both use suspended timetable days to support their broader PSHE programmes, which are extremely well received by the students, and in one of the schools, there is a strong promotion of '*active learning*'. The coordinator commented: '*It encourages the use of visual images and it encourages the use of a lot of kinaesthetic activities. So it takes it out of a literacy, linguistic sort of pocket...It allows a more empathetic view of the subject.*'

It is difficult to determine precisely what makes one cross-curricular or tutorial-based programme effective and well received by students, whilst another can appear very weak. Two immediate factors appear relevant. First, strong leadership. In the case-study schools in which such an approach has been effective, there is, in one case, incredibly strong leadership taken by a dynamic and committed coordinator with much expertise in the field of citizenship, who appears able to carry the wider teaching staff along with her vision and enthusiasm. In the second case, the programme is both led and taught by members of the senior management team. Secondly, well developed schemes of work and resource packs. Tutor in both schools can utilise these and the wider teaching staff appears to have been well briefed on the purposes and desired outcomes of the citizenship curriculum.

Analysis of the case study data therefore suggests that it is too crude to suggest that certain models of delivery lead to better outcomes *per se*. Rather, what would seem to be crucial is that citizenship education meets one or more of the following criteria:

- Is taught by skilled specialists, or those with enthusiasm for the subject.
- Has strong leadership and direction so that the wider teaching staff within a school can understand its purpose and desired outcomes
- Is well supported through up-to-date, accessible lesson plans and resources and practical hands-on support from a citizenship expert or 'champion' within the school.

Whilst discrete lessons, or citizenship lessons delivered within a carousel with other subjects, may provide the most straightforward model for achieving

these criteria, many schools are not in a position to re-design their timetables to accommodate such an approach. It is heartening to find that schools developing citizenship education through tutorial programmes or cross-curricular approaches can be effective in their provision, even if they may need strong leadership and support in order to do so.

## 6.6 Preferred approaches to teaching and learning

Discussions with students across case-study schools show a very clear pattern of young people's likes and dislikes in terms of the ways in which citizenship is taught in schools. Their responses point very strongly towards a preference for active and interactive forms of learning as opposed to individual or teacher-directed activities. Opportunities for *student voice* within the classroom can help to build some of the basic skills and confidence which can underpin wider participation at the school level and beyond (Ireland *et al*, 2006). As such, they have the potential to contribute both to the successful delivery of the citizenship at the three levels of the curriculum, school and community and to the wider policy agendas of *participation* and *student voice*.

### 6.6.1 Active and interactive forms of learning

Very many students identify whole class debate, and smaller group discussions as a preferred approach to learning about citizenship-related topics. In relation to whole-class debates, explanations included: *'You can put your own views across – talking is better than writing'* (Key Stage 4 student), *'you can see the rest of the class' view and give your own...you can get involved and say what you believe,* (Key Stage 3 student) and *'if everyone else has one view and you have another, it makes you see that maybe you have got the wrong view, or maybe it is right, and you are sticking up for that view'* (Key Stage 3 student). For some students, whole class debate, or smaller group discussion is a strategy that helps them to understand and remember more. One Key Stage 4 student commented: *'I think class discussions are best – they help you remember stuff,*' whilst a Key Stage 4 student in a different school noted: *'At our age you haven't really made your mind up, so other people's opinions help you to understand.'*

A raft of other teaching and learning strategies are mentioned by students, albeit with lesser frequency. These include simulated activities, role play and interactive activities (*'we had to move around and speak to other people – you get more involved'*), hands-on activities, practical and project work, and visits away from school and outside speakers coming into school. Speaking of the benefits of outside speakers, one Key Stage 4 student stated: *'when you get someone who comes in and who has actually worked in that field, then it is easier to understand it'*, whilst another Key Stage 4 student in a different school felt that listening to an expert in a particular field helps students to

*'take it on to the next level.'* Finally, students identify undertaking personal or group research in order to give presentations (either visual or verbal), and using computers to find out more about citizenship-related topics as beneficial. One Key Stage 3 student enjoyed this process and commented: *'We had to look up different views on fox hunting and why people thought these, which was very interesting.'*

### 6.6.2 Individual or teacher-directed activities

Generally speaking, students share key dislikes in terms of the teaching and learning of citizenship. There are numerous references to the perceived tedium of copying large sections out of textbooks, or from the board, listening while the teacher talks (if at length) and filling in worksheets, answer sheets or, sometimes, questionnaires. One Key Stage 3 student's view was that: *'You're not learning anything. You're just copying what she said,'* whilst a Key Stage 3 student in a different school also believed that this approach is not conducive to learning, stating: *'When you are copying, you don't read it, if you know what I mean, you just read the next bit. So it doesn't sink in and you don't learn it'.* Numerous students also claim to dislike too much *'written stuff'* as one Key Stage 4 student calls it. However, a Key Stage 3 student makes an interesting point that, whilst it may not be the most exciting form of learning, writing information down serves a useful purpose:

*It is always useful to have something written down, because you like to have something to look at – you can't always root through the filing cabinet in the back of your head.*

Interestingly, one or two students also note a dislike of being *'made'* to discuss or debate issues. For one Key Stage 3 student, a key dislike is: *'having to participate when I don't want to'* and a Key Stage 4 student feels that: *'every time in citizenship it's just talk and I get distracted.'* This raises an issue about the need to distinguish between students' preferred forms of learning, and methods of learning that are the most effective in helping students to learn. This issue is discussed in greater detail below. Finally, students make the point that they particularly dislike learning information that they perceive as irrelevant or boring. As one Key Stage 3 student claimed: *'The worst thing is learning something which you have no idea why it's relevant or why you should be learning it, which is what we do quite a lot.'* Students also find the use of *'out of date videos'* tedious. Two Key Stage 4 students in different schools note: *'The videos aren't up to date, are they?'* and *'videos are boring – they are really unrealistic.'*



## 6.7 What helps students to learn most effectively?

It is clear that students have a clear preference for active and interactive forms of learning over individual or teacher-directed activities. However, are these ‘preferred’ approaches those that are most likely to help students to learn most effectively and to build their skills of enquiry and communication? When asked a question about the lesson approaches that most help them to learn, most students answer similarly to the ways in which they discuss their teaching and learning preferences, outlining a need for active and practical activities, discussion, debate and small group work, and research work and presentations. Indeed, in a small number of the schools in which senior managers were asked to provide a view of the methods that most help students to learn, these interviewees’ views resonated with those of young people. However, it is worth being mindful of a few caveats also:

- **Discussion and debate** – This strategy appears to be effective only where the teacher or facilitator has good skills and is able to keep the discussion on track and under control. Where these skills are lacking, the results can be unwanted. One Key Stage 4 student explains: *‘Some people take advantage of it – people start shouting. I wouldn’t even like to repeat what they said.’*
- **Small group work** – Whilst students claim to like this approach to learning, they also admit that it can be easy to lose track of the work in hand in favour of chatting to friends. One Key Stage 3 student states that she would not like group work if it was not based around friendship groups because: *‘you wouldn’t have as much fun ‘cos they’re not, like, your friends.’* There is an issue here about the need for directed, or supported group work activities, and the need to ensure that students are kept on task.
- **Overuse of any one approach** – Whilst students and teachers tend to view interactive approaches (especially discussion and debate) as the most effective methods of helping students to learn, it is worth noting that any approach can become tedious if used all the time. Talking about discussion and debate, a Key Stage 3 student comments: *‘If you do it all the time it will get boring.’* A senior manager in a different school believes that: *‘What is needed is a variety of teaching styles and teaching activities, because different things require different skills.’*

This discussion of the case-study data has illuminated a number of key points related to the teaching and learning of citizenship. It is clear that, at present, students’ experiences of citizenship learning are highly variable, and can be so even within one school – most commonly where citizenship is delivered across a range of subjects, or by a large number of form tutors. This suggests that, in the interests of student equity, schools should consider how staff are briefed about, and guided in, their role as teachers of citizenship. Where it is not always possible for citizenship to be taught by a small team of skilled specialists, or teachers with enthusiasm for the subject, it is important that

there is good direction within the school, so that the wider teaching staff understands the purpose and desired outcomes of citizenship education.

This section has shown that that student and staff experiences of teaching and learning in citizenship appear most positive where citizenship is taught discretely, or within a carousel with other subjects. However, it is clear that schools are often not in a position to re-design their timetables to accommodate such an approach. Analysis of the data has demonstrated that it is possible for schools to deliver citizenship very effectively through other curriculum models – crucially by all, or most of the school’s teaching staff - provided that the programme has been appropriately designed and is well directed and supported. Section 7, which follows, explores the delivery of citizenship education further by considering the range of resources that teachers use.



## 7. Resources

### Key findings:

- There has been little change over time in the types of material resources used to support citizenship learning, with the main types remaining: teachers' own ideas/self-produced materials; media resources; and ICT resources.
- Whilst use of most types of resources has slightly increased over time (particularly in the case of ICT resources), the use of textbooks has reportedly become less common.
- Teachers and school leaders report increased staff access to computers and the internet in 2006, which may also explain an increase in teachers' reported use of ICT for lesson planning. However, there appears to have been little change in ICT provision within classrooms and there remains a very low usage of the internet in lessons with students.
- In terms of human resources, there are still around two fifths of schools that report no external input into their citizenship teaching. Of the three fifths of schools that involve external agencies in their programmes, the main groups remain: voluntary groups/charities; the police; theatre and drama groups; and health professionals.
- A smaller proportion of schools reports working with local and national politicians, perhaps reflecting a lack of political content in some citizenship education programmes and a blurring of the distinctions between PSHE and citizenship-related topics.

Following on from the previous section, which considered schools' approaches to teaching and learning, this brief section looks at the range of resources utilised by staff and students in the survey and case-study schools to assist in the delivery of citizenship. In doing this, it further consolidates our understanding of the range of delivery approaches adopted in schools. The section begins with a discussion of the types of resources used by teachers, moving on to focus more particularly on the use of ICT and human resources within the classroom.

### 7.1 Material resources

There has been no demonstrable change between 2004 and 2006 in the resources utilised by school teachers to support their teaching and learning in

citizenship education. Teachers' **own ideas and self-produced materials** remain the main sources, with the majority of respondents (54 per cent in 2004, rising to 57 per cent in 2006) saying that they used such sources '*often*'. If we combine the '*sometimes*' and '*often*' response categories, teachers' responses to a question asking how often they used a series of different resources can be ranked as follows:

- Own ideas/self produced materials (90 per cent in 2004 and 2006)
- Media resources (87 per cent in 2004, rising to 89 per cent in 2006)
- ICT resources (76 per cent in 2004, rising to 83 per cent in 2006)
- Original sources (71 per cent in 2004, rising to 73 per cent in 2006)
- Textbooks (67 per cent in 2004, falling to 62 per cent in 2006)
- Official guidelines (52 per cent in 2004, rising to 57 per cent in 2006)
- National standards (45 per cent in 2004, rising to 51 per cent in 2006).

Although teachers have continued to use the same types of resources over the period 2004 to 2006 with similar degrees of frequency, it is noticeable that in 2006, teachers report generally higher levels of use of all types of resources than in 2004, particularly in the case of ICT-based resources. Textbooks provide an exception. It would appear that these are becoming less commonly used by teachers as a resource to assist with the teaching and learning process. This appears to support the finding in Section 6, that there has been a reduction in the incidence of students working from worksheets and textbooks over the period, and adds weight to the conclusion that teaching and learning approaches may be becoming slightly more interactive and experiential over time.

Case-study data presents a mixed picture in this regard. There are still instances where schools report, or indicate, an over-reliance on text books and worksheets. One citizenship coordinator expressed a sense of being overwhelmed by the potential range of resources available to support citizenship, admitting that falling back on textbooks can be quite reassuring: '*There are too many resources, not too few, and it's often difficult to evaluate them. There is a lot coming on board all the time.*' Another coordinator referred to the textbooks used on his programme as '*superb*'. One senior manager commented that the GCSE programme followed in her school is best served by reference to textbooks, because they ensure that the syllabus is sufficiently covered. In a further school, where citizenship has seemingly made little progress over the past two years, the coordinator noted that he has reverted to using textbooks as the main resource since citizenship has ceased to be a subject in its own right and has been merged with PSHE and RE.

In spite of such examples, there is also much evidence of schools pushing the boundaries in order to *'avoid death by worksheet'*, a comment made by interviewees in two separate schools. One coordinator stated that his programme has a *'no textbook rule,'* and another commented that over-reliance on textbooks can be problematic because they very quickly become out of date. Yet a teacher within the same school defended the use of textbooks as one of a number of resources helping students to learn. He argued that the textbook *'gives security. If the class runs out of work you can give them an exercise from the textbook. It is a staple.'* The point here, is that there is a place for textbooks and worksheets, but within the context of a wide range of varied resources that help students with different learning abilities and styles to access citizenship in a way that is meaningful for them. Interviewees across these latter schools generally reported using a range of resources to assist the teaching and learning process. Examples include: outside speakers coming into the school and students going off site to take part in trips or visits (such resources are discussed in greater detail in Section 6.3 below); use of materials produced by charitable and voluntary organisations, such as the Citizenship Foundation; use of newspapers, DVDs and videos; ICT resources such as the internet and interactive whiteboards and financial and business-related packages, such as the Royal Bank of Scotland's *'Face-2-Face with Finance'* resource.

In many schools, teachers seek out and adapt such resources to produce tailor-made materials to support their teaching and learning. In case-study schools, interviewees commonly reported that course materials are produced by citizenship coordinators or a team of specialists, which can then be modified and used by classroom teachers. This is demonstrated by one classroom teacher who explained how he considers the booklets produced by his coordinator, adjusts these as appropriate, depending upon his class and their strengths and weaknesses to: *'make a worksheet, change the lesson around, have a discussion or research the topic on computer'*. Another citizenship coordinator noted, however, that such practice is far from universal and that: *'at the end of the day it is about how a tutor sells it.'*

The case-study data supports the finding from the surveys that *'own ideas/self-produced materials'* are a frequently used resource in schools, and suggests that the increase in such materials is a broadly positive trend. Such resources seem to be at their best when they draw together a range of different resources, which are varied in their source, utilise different media and have topical interest and relevance. Speaking of the pre-prepared resource pack in use at her school, one coordinator admitted that there is scope for improvement in this regard: *'It probably needs more resources, and different ones, so that we make it more proactive...It needs reviewing.'*

## 7.2 Use of ICT

Teachers and school leaders report increased access to computers and the internet for teaching and educational purposes in 2006. According to school leaders, there is greater availability of such facilities in school staffrooms and quiet areas in 2006 (76 per cent reporting that such facilities could be accessed ‘*all of the time*’) than was reported two years previously (67 per cent). Availability of ICT and the internet ‘*for use by teachers*’ has also increased from 65 per cent saying ‘*all of the time*’ in 2004, to 72 per cent saying the same in 2006. The increased availability of ICT may go some way towards explaining its greater reported use by teachers for lesson planning, and the increased use of ICT resources within lessons.

That said, there has been little change in ICT provision within classrooms. In 2004, just over half (53 per cent) of senior managers reported that there was access to ICT ‘*most*’ or ‘*all of the time*’ within classrooms in their schools, a figure that had risen only to 54 per cent in 2006; although provision in ‘other instructional areas’ such as ICT suites and laboratories was greater, with almost two thirds (62 per cent) of senior managers reporting this availability in 2006. They also reported that ICT was available for use by students ‘*all of the time*’ in just over one third (37 per cent) of cases (a figure that had fallen from 42 per cent in 2004). Students attending colleges appeared to have more access to such resources. Indeed, 73 per cent of college leaders reported that there was access to ICT and the internet in lecture theatres and seminar rooms ‘*most*’ or ‘*all of the time*’ in 2006, whilst 95 per cent reported that the same was true in other instructional areas. Just under two-thirds (61 per cent of college leaders) reported that students had access to computers or the internet ‘*all of the time*’.

School teachers presented a slightly more positive picture of the use of ICT resources within **citizenship education** lessons. For example, increases in the use of the internet for lesson planning and research were reported, as outlined in Table 1 below.

**Table 1.** Frequency with which the internet is used for citizenship education lessons. Teachers answering ‘*most of the time*’ or ‘*all of the time*’

The internet is used:	2004 %	2006 %
in planning lessons and activities	24	36
in researching topical issues and events	21	28
In lessons with students	8	13
<b>N =</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>572</b>

*Base: All teachers who stated they had access to computers and the internet for citizenship education lessons and activities*

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

Although use of the internet to support teachers' lesson planning and as a tool to assist with researching topical issues and events has increased, it is notable that the internet is not yet used widely as an aid to teaching and learning within lessons. Only 13 per cent of teachers report that they use the internet 'most' or 'all of the time' in lessons with students, whilst one fifth (20 per cent) say that they 'never' or 'almost never' do this. This may, in part, be a reflection of the limited scale of ICT provision within some classrooms, as reported above.

Case-study interviews certainly provide evidence to support this. One citizenship teacher explained that neither he, nor any of his colleagues, have computers in their classrooms, and that it is somewhat difficult to book out the ICT suite on a regular basis. Another coordinator commented: *'There is some superb software out there at the moment, but I know it wouldn't be used properly because of lack of accommodation.'* A further teacher felt strongly that, in her school, there is little technical support for the use of ICT in subjects such as citizenship. She notes that school technicians are seen as 'science servants' whose priority is always in setting up science lessons. In a different school, while one teacher has a computer in her classroom, her colleague does not, which means that some students gain more access to ICT in their citizenship lessons than others. Interestingly, while the latter interviewee in this school indicated that he is rarely able to use ICT to support his lessons, his coordinator claims that: *'At any one time we have access to eight rooms with computers. Internet access is built into the programme.'*

This raises an issue about teacher confidence in ICT. It may be that the relatively low use of the internet to support teaching and learning reflects a lack of confidence on the part of some teachers of using computers and the internet at school to support the learning process, and a tendency towards more traditional learning methods, as outlined in Section 5. It would appear that there can be variety within schools in terms of opportunities for students to use ICT to support their learning, dependent upon the class they are in and the member of staff who teaches them.

### 7.3 Use of human resources

In 2006, there remains a relatively large minority of schools (around two fifths) reporting that no-one external to their schools has been involved in the teaching of citizenship-related topics. In 2006, 38 per cent of teachers, a slight reduction on the 2004 figure of 40 per cent, reported that this was the case. Only one of the twelve case-study schools reported that it makes no use of external agencies or individuals in the teaching of its programmes, saying that the reason for this is lack of time. Additionally, in one school where the coordinator claimed there to be a 'rolling programme' of speakers and outside agencies supporting citizenship lessons, a member of his teaching team



commented that his Year 10 group have received no such input. The 61 per cent of respondents who say that their schools involve external agencies in their citizenship teaching report little change over time in the types of organisations or individuals with which they are working. The main groups they identify are:

- Voluntary groups/charities (61 per cent in 2004 and 2006)
- Police (60 per cent in 2004 and 2006)
- Theatre/drama groups (53 per cent in 2004, rising slightly to 54 per cent in 2006)
- Nurses/health professionals (54 per cent in 2004, falling to 52 per cent in 2006)
- Local politicians/councillors (31 per cent in 2004, falling to 29 per cent in 2006)
- National politicians (13 per cent in 2004, falling to ten per cent in 2006).

If anything, there has been a slight falling off over time in the involvement of external partners in the teaching and learning of citizenship-related topics. In particular, schools appear to be having difficulty in involving national and local politicians, with most external involvement being drawn from the public and voluntary sectors. One case-study interviewee commented that it can be incredibly difficult to encourage local politicians or MPs to commit to coming into school, and that even when they agree to such involvement, they often cancel at the last moment. Another interviewee agreed that outside speakers can often be unreliable, and also explained the difficulty that she has faced in encouraging outside speakers to agree to work with a number of different form groups. Whilst this is clearly seen as overly burdensome by some external agencies, a citizenship coordinator in a different school explained that there is far greater value in having an outside speaker address a series of single classes than a whole year group, because it allows the session to be more interactive, and for some discussion to be generated.

Survey data shows that the involvement of lawyers, local business people, journalists, prison officers, church groups and parents is very limited. The prominent involvement of both the police and health professionals in citizenship-related teaching may reflect the close teaching relationship between citizenship education and personal, social and health education (PSHE) in many schools. Certainly in case-study schools there is much mention of visits from charitable and health organisations and the police. In addition, some of the agencies less frequently mentioned in the surveys also work with case-study schools – prison officers, magistrates and local business people. The low level of involvement of political figures, such as local councillors and MPs, may also reflect a lack of political content in some

citizenship education programmes, and a blurring of the distinctions between PSHE and citizenship-related topics.

This section of the report has discussed the range of resources used by coordinators and teachers in planning and delivering the citizenship curriculum in their schools. Section 8 now moves on to consider a further aspect of citizenship education: assessment and issues of progression.



## 8. Assessment

### Key findings:

- The number of schools which have an assessment policy for citizenship in place has increased since 2004.
- A significant minority of schools still has no agreed policy for assessing citizenship education.
- Teachers are more likely to be assessing students at Key Stage 3 than at Key Stage 4 or at the post-16 level.
- Nevertheless, a sizeable proportion of teachers state that they made no attempt to assess students in their progress in citizenship education at Key Stage 3 or Key Stage 4. This is even higher for teachers who teach the post-16 stage.
- Just under three quarters of teachers feel they need more training in assessment and reporting.
- More school leaders report the use of student self-assessment, peer assessment and presentations than in 2004.
- Those schools which deliver citizenship education through a dedicated time slot are more likely to be using written tasks and tests as methods of assessment than schools using other methods of delivery.
- The majority of school leaders and teachers still feel that assessment recording and reporting progress are some of the main challenges in citizenship education.

As the OFSTED *Towards Consensus?* report on citizenship states, 'Assessment in citizenship is at a very early stage and teachers currently only have a tentative view of standards and progression. Indeed, the whole notion of assessment in citizenship remains controversial' (OFSTED 2006a: p.39). To find out whether our cross sectional sample of schools provides support for the OFSTED's findings, this section of the report addresses school, teacher and student views on the assessment of citizenship education. It addresses how schools are assessing citizenship education, whether any differences exist between assessment strategies at different key stages, whether modes of delivery or teaching and learning approaches can affect methods of assessment (or vice versa) and what students think of the assessment they experience in citizenship.

## 8.1 Assessment policies

### 8.1.1 The view of school leaders

In 2006, there was an increase in the number of school leaders who report that they have an assessment policy for Key Stage 3 in place (50 per cent compared to 38 per cent in 2004), and a large decrease in those who report that they have not yet put a policy in place (28 per cent compared to 51 per cent in 2004)<sup>8</sup>. The change is less noticeable for Key Stage 4 where 46 per cent of schools reported an assessment policy in 2006 compared to 42 per cent in 2004. At both Key Stage 3 and 4, there is still a significant minority of schools which do not have a policy for assessing citizenship education (16 per cent and 18 per cent respectively). This may result from the fact that the delivery of citizenship through or alongside PSHE is more common than any other form of delivery. As stated by OFSTED (2006a: Para. 54), as PSHE is not formally assessed in such circumstances it may be that citizenship follows suit.

In those schools where citizenship education is delivered through other subjects at Key Stage 3, school leaders are significantly less likely to say that they have a policy in place when compared to all schools that state they have an assessment policy (37 per cent and 50 per cent respectively). Conversely, schools which allocate a dedicated timetabled slot to citizenship are more likely to have an assessment policy than all schools (66 per cent and 50 per cent respectively).

#### **An example of a school which has developed its assessment policy within the last two years**

In this school citizenship education is delivered through a number of subject areas and through 'curriculum weeks'. During curriculum weeks, timetable is suspended and subjects are linked up together to create a general programme on a particular theme. Each student is entitled to three or four suspended timetable days per year.

Citizenship education assessment has been developed and implemented as part of these curriculum weeks. Students' factual knowledge is assessed through a short test, which is computer analysed. They also undertake a self-assessment of the activities they have completed on each suspended timetable day.

At the end of Year 9, all of this information is pulled together and individual student progress is assessed and targets are set. As a citizenship teacher at the school stated: *'It's still not perfect, but assessment procedures have definitely moved on'*.

<sup>8</sup> It must be noted that in 2004, school leaders did not have the option to say 'no' and only had the option to say 'not yet', which should be considered when making a comparison.

## 8.2 Teachers' views on assessment

Following this trend a greater number teachers who teach at Key Stage 3 or Key Stage 4 assess students at Key Stage 3 than at Key Stage 4 (see Table 1). Moreover, a relatively high proportion (40 per cent) of teachers state they make no attempt to assess students in their progress in citizenship education at Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4, with an even higher percentage stating they do not assess students' progress post-16. This is further reflected in the wider post-16 sector where of those college tutors that responded to the questionnaire, the majority stated that their colleges did not have an assessment policy in place (see Table 1). These trends provide support for OFSTED's claim that *'teachers currently have only a very tentative view of standards and progression in citizenship'* (OFSTED, 2006a, p. 39), particularly reflected in the fact that fewer assessment policies are in place at Key Stage 4 and at post-16 level across the 2006 sample.

**Table 1.** Do you assess students in relation to their progress in citizenship education?

Assessment	Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4 teachers %	Year 12 school teachers %	Year 12 college tutors %
Yes at Key Stage 3	48	30	11
Yes at Key Stage 4	34	21	9
Yes at post-16	2	11	2
No	40	55	73
No Response	3	4	5
<b>N</b>	<b>779</b>	<b>169</b>	<b>44</b>

*Base: All teachers/tutors surveyed.*

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

*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

More Key Stage 3 and 4 teachers stated that they were using some form of assessment in 2006 than in 2004. However, at post-16 level, where assessment is not statutory, the majority of teachers still stated that they did not use any assessment methods (53 per cent in 2004 and 55 per cent in 2006). Indeed, the percentage of college leaders who said they used assessment methods at post-16 level had actually decreased (15 per cent in 2004 to 11 per cent in 2006).

**An example of a school which does not have an assessment policy for citizenship education**

In this school no assessment policy exists for Citizenship Education at Key Stage 3; indeed students are only taught the subject for six weeks as part of a carousel system in Year 9. The headteacher explained that staffing shortages have prevented wider implementation of the citizenship curriculum thus far. However it is his intention that a GCSE course should be implemented in the future.

A number of students, both at Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4, expressed their interest in completing a GCSE in citizenship education. However, they did not feel that it should be compulsory because the lessons might be disrupted by students who did not want to study the subject. As one Key Stage 3 student stated, *'There would be people there who didn't really want to do it and would not take part properly'*.

### **8.3 Use of assessment awards and qualifications**

Just over one third of schools (35 per cent) are currently using, or are planning to use, an award or certificate that recognises achievement in citizenship at Key Stage 3. This has increased slightly since 2004 when use of awards or certificates was reported by 28 per cent of schools.

At Key Stage 4, just over one quarter of schools (27 per cent) are using or planning to use the GCSE short course in citizenship. This proportion has remained almost static since 2004 when 25 per cent of schools were using the GCSE short course, but may have potential to grow. While nearly half of school leaders (44 per cent) report that they do not or are not planning to use the GCSE short course, a further 22 per cent of schools have not yet decided.

But which schools are more likely to use the GCSE? In 2006 those delivering citizenship education through a discrete slot are more likely to be using the GCSE short course (60 per cent of schools) when compared to all schools and all delivery methods (36 per cent of all schools).

In addition to the GCSE, 29 per cent of schools say they use, or are planning to use non-GCSE qualifications or awards to recognise the achievement of students at Key Stage 4. ASDAN qualifications are the most popular, with 54 per cent of these schools stating that they are in current use, and 25 per cent of these schools stating that they are planning to use them.

**A school where citizenship education GCSE is no longer offered to students as it has been ‘squeezed out’ of the timetable**

Despite the growth in the proportion of schools choosing to use the GCSE short course in Citizenship over the last two years, some schools that have been using the course are no longer doing so.

At one case study school, a new head teacher has revised the delivery of citizenship education incorporating it into a weekly hour-long teaching slot with RE and PSHE. In doing this, the time dedicated to teaching citizenship has reduced and it is no longer practicable to offer the half GCSE for either citizenship or RE within the allotted timeslot.

## 8.4 Methods of assessing citizenship education

The most common forms of assessment used at Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4 in 2006 are:

- the assessment of student responses in class
- the observation of students
- group tasks
- student self-assessment.

**Table 2.** Methods of assessment used in citizenship education reported by teachers

	<b>2004 Key Stage 3 Teachers %</b>	<b>2006 Key Stage 3 Teachers %</b>	<b>2004 Key Stage 4 Teachers %</b>	<b>2006 Key Stage 4 Teachers %</b>
Written tasks	44	53	51	52
Tests	19	22	28	23
Group tasks	63	62	59	54
Observation	73	67	61	60
Responses from students	71	73	66	70
Self-assessment	58	61	48	57
Peer	25	40	23	30
Portfolio	41	37	39	40
Presentations	41	46	45	42
Other	1	10	1	12
No Response	2	2	3	2
<b>N =</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>323</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>228</b>

*Base: All school teachers surveyed*

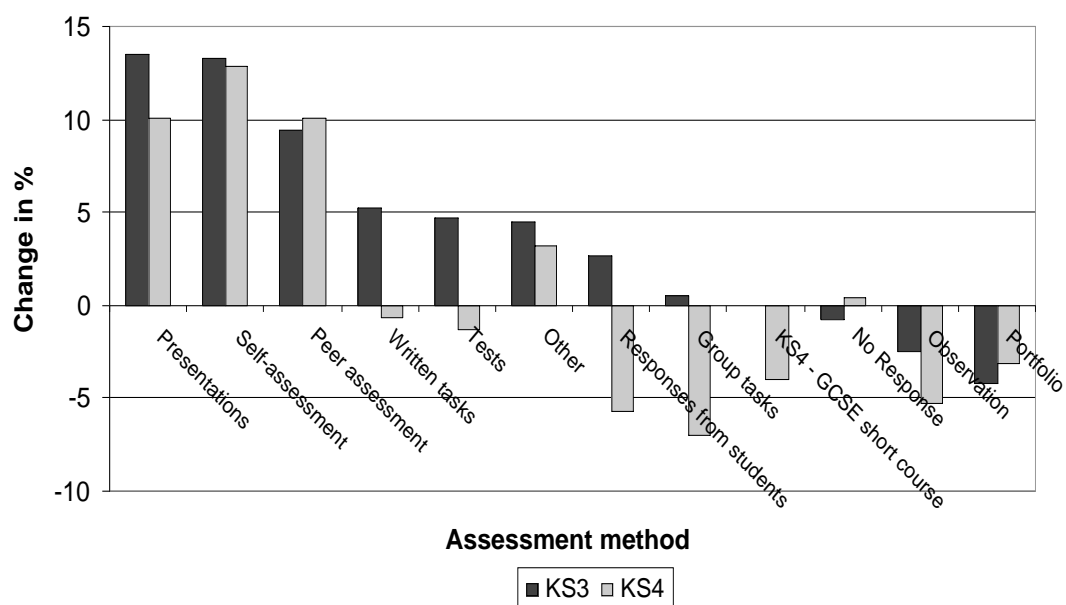
*Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

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



According to school leaders, there have been some changes in the extent to which methods of assessment are used at Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4 since 2004. The proportion of school leaders that reported that their citizenship staff used student self-assessment, peer assessment and presentations has increased since 2004; one possible result of the current policy agenda emphasis on personalised learning. However, there has also been an increase in the percentage of school leaders stating that written tasks (40 per cent in 2004 and 45 per cent in 2006) and tests (23 per cent in 2004 and 27 per cent in 2006) are being used at Key Stage 3. Thus, despite recent policy drives towards more participatory teaching, learning and assessment methods, traditional methods of assessment are still proving popular in schools. Indeed, at Key Stage 4, school leaders report that group tasks, student responses and observations are now being used less frequently as a means of assessment compared to 2004.

**Figure 1.** Assessment methods used in citizenship education at Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4: change in response from school leaders between 2004 and 2006



*Base: All school leaders who have an agreed assessment policy at the relevant key stage. Change was calculated by subtracting the percentage for 2004 from the percentage for 2006. Source: Citizenship Longitudinal Study, Cross-sectional survey 2004, 2006*

School leaders in those schools which have an agreed assessment policy and deliver the subject through a dedicated slot are more likely to be using written tasks (61 per cent compared with 45 per cent of all schools) and tests (42 per cent compared with 27 per cent of all schools). In those schools where

citizenship is delivered through other timetabled subjects, portfolios are a less popular method of assessment (18 per cent compared with 42 per cent of all schools); perhaps due to the logistical issues of storage or passing them between various subject staff.

Those schools which have an agreed policy for assessment at Key Stage 3 use an average of 4.4 assessment methods and at Key Stage 4 an average of four methods are used. These mean figures have increased slightly since 2004 (four at Key Stage 3 and 3.9 at Key Stage 4). This increase is encouraging in the light of OFSTED's *Towards Consensus?* report which states that schools with a broad range of assessment modes, from those modes which put an emphasis on process as much as outcome, such as peer and self-assessment, to those with an emphasis on knowledge and understanding through assignments and written tests, are the most successful in assessing citizenship (OFSTED, 2006a, p. 39-40).

**A school which is moving towards using methods such as self-assessment and peer assessment in citizenship education**

A case study school is currently developing assessment methods in citizenship education. The subject is taught discretely but the school does not currently offer the GCSE short course. As part of wider assessment policy developments in the school, assessment for learning, pupil dialogue and peer assessments are being implemented. Citizenship is regarded as one of the key subject areas with which these methods resonate and from September 2006 the school has implemented a new structure involving:

- peer assessment focusing on one main target area each year
- self-assessment so that pupils can identify their own weaknesses and areas for improvement
- a termly test to look at knowledge and understanding of topics covered
- a written task each half-term, to test students' views and opinions on topics. This formative assessment is returned to students with comments so that it can be improved before grading.

## 8.5 Students' views on assessment

Students were not asked directly to detail the range of methods of assessment used in citizenship classes, but were asked how frequently they recorded their own achievements or compiled portfolios within their lessons. Since 2004, views of students in all year groups have generally stayed the same. Just over a third of all students state that they rarely record their own achievements, just under one quarter say that they never do this, with just over one fifth stating

that they sometimes do this. Interestingly, a greater percentage of teachers and in particular school leaders, state that portfolios of evidence are used as a method of assessment, compared with students.

### **A school which uses portfolios as a method of assessment**

The staff in one case study school have developed an assessment programme in the last year. The curriculum coordinator explained that *'the idea is students can develop a portfolio over five years [Year 7 to 11] and at the end students can select their best work and present it as their coursework'*. He explained the advantage of using this method of assessment: *'It takes off our shoulders the task of chasing students for coursework and it gives them a feel for the exam [GCSE short course] because the exam touches on some of these tasks'*.

Discussions conducted with Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4 pupils in the case study schools suggest that students can be confused about modes of assessment in citizenship. In one school, students appeared uncertain as to whether they were being assessed in citizenship/PSHE classes. Although they recognised that presentations, projects and portfolios were being undertaken in citizenship lessons, they were unsure whether these were assessment activities. When asked about this, the citizenship coordinator admitted that students may be confused as the subject is still *'very much in its early stages of being assessed ...it's not very clear at the moment'*.

## **8.6 Assessment challenges**

Our survey asked school leaders and teachers to list some of the main challenges to the successful implementation in their school. Two thirds (65 per cent) of school leaders felt that assessment and recording progress was one of the main challenges. However it is encouraging to note that this had decreased since 2004, when 71 per cent reported assessment as a key challenge for citizenship implementation in schools. Teachers' views mirrored those of school leaders, with 60 per cent regarding assessment as one of the main challenges for teaching citizenship, compared with 67 per cent in 2004.

The data provides evidence to support OFSTED's claim in *Towards Consensus?* (2006a: Para.104) that progression paths and methods in citizenship education are often unclear to staff and students and often erratic in practice. This, in turn, reflects the finding that there is uncertainty in many schools about the standards required in citizenship lessons (see also OFSTED, 2006a Para.103). OFSTED suggests that pathways and progression routes are made clearer through the introduction of a full GCSE in Citizenship alongside AS and A2 courses. However, how far this would encourage schools to adopt formal assessment of citizenship education is unclear bearing in mind that 44

per cent of school leaders stated that they are not and are not planning to use the current GCSE qualification in their school. Until such recommendations become reality, this study's data again reveals the importance of further training and guidance in progression, standards, assessment for schools in citizenship education.



## 9. Conclusions and recommendations

The introductory section to this report set out the context, both in terms of policy and evidence base, within which citizenship education is delivered in schools. It also confirmed that the focus of this report is on **citizenship delivery in schools**. This focus has arisen from the latest research and evaluation evidence which argues the case for a greater emphasis on a ‘whole school’ approach to citizenship, for stronger leadership and greater awareness amongst headteachers of citizenship’s whole school implications (GB. Parliament House of Commons, 2007; see also Ireland *et al* 2006). However, while the potential for citizenship education to contribute to general education policy drives is in place, evidence suggests there is still some distance to go if this potential is to be fulfilled in practice. In parallel, a number of recent recommendations to policy makers, most notably from the Diversity and Curriculum Review and the OFSTED report *Towards Consensus?*, have suggested direct ways forward for citizenship education. In particular these include recommendations for discrete delivery and the introduction of a full GCSE and AS/A2 qualifications.

In order to explore whether such structural changes to the provision of citizenship would help to improve the success of citizenship education across the three levels of the curriculum, the school and the community, the research presented in this report has been structured by the following research questions (RQs):

- RQ1 What are the main models of delivery of citizenship education and the factors which underpin these delivery models?
- RQ2 How far does the delivery process develop and change as citizenship education becomes more embedded in the curriculum?
- RQ3 What are practitioners’ views on citizenship education (its implementation, staffing and delivery) and on related training (its availability, quality and applicability)?
- RQ4 What are the models or strands of delivery which appear to be most effective?
- RQ5 How far can the delivery of citizenship education contribute to the wider policy agenda (e.g. participation, student voice and personalised learning)?

This final section pulls together information from across the report in order to answer these key research questions. Taken together these answers provide the report’s conclusions. These conclusions are reviewed in terms of what they add to the current evidence base for citizenship. They are compared and

contrasted, in particular, to the findings and recommendations from two major recent reports on citizenship in schools in England namely, *Towards Consensus?* (OFSTED, 2006a) and the *Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review Report* (DfES, 2007). The outcomes of this review and comparison are then used to inform a series of short recommendations concerning the progress of citizenship for different audiences – policy-makers, practitioners and support agencies, in particular. These recommendations are intended to assist these groups to take forward their actions in citizenship education secure in the knowledge that they are informed by the most up-to-date findings about policy and practice. The intention is to produce conclusions and recommendations that are challenging, realistic and usable.

## 9.1 The research questions (RQs)

### 9.1.1 RQ1 - What are the main models of delivery of citizenship education and the factors which underpin these delivery models?

The updated typology of school approaches to citizenship education, as described in Section 1.5, reveals that there are four main types or models of delivery of citizenship education. Each type or model has a particular strength in its delivery approach. These types are based on a broad definition of citizenship education put forward in the Crick Report which sees citizenship as consisting of three interrelated components, what have been called the ‘3 Cs of citizenship’ (Huddleston and Kerr, 2006), namely *citizenship in the curriculum* and *active citizenship in the school community* and *wider community*. It would appear that schools involved in the survey and case studies largely concur with this broad definition of citizenship.

The four main types are:

**School type 1 – curriculum driven citizenship** - provides a firm grounding of citizenship education in the curriculum but is less strong in the areas of participation and has inconsistent levels of student efficacy.

**School type 2 – student efficacy driven citizenship** – has a sound or high level of student efficacy in the school, but is weak on student take up in extra-curricular activities and its delivery of citizenship through the curriculum.

**School type 3 – participation driven citizenship** – has higher than average levels of student participation but its students feel low levels of efficacy and the importance placed on citizenship as a curriculum subject is average.

**School type 4 – citizenship-rich driven citizenship** – in which students not only express high levels of efficacy and show high levels of participation, but

citizenship education is also viewed as a strong and central subject within the curriculum.

The analysis in this report also reveals that there are three main models of delivery of citizenship in the curriculum in the schools surveyed, namely: citizenship through modules in PSHE (used in almost two-thirds of schools); citizenship as a dedicated ‘discrete delivery’ timetable slot (used in almost one-third of schools), and citizenship through a cross-curricular approach involving a range of subjects as well as tutorials and assemblies (used in almost half of schools). These models have been chosen by schools for a variety of reasons; reasons which, in turn, are influenced by a number of factors. The revised typology and school case studies highlight how these factors play out differently within and across schools. This helps to explain the current diversity of approaches to citizenship in secondary schools in England.

What is clear from the latest data is the growing power and influence of school leaders in deciding on approaches to citizenship education. Decisions by school leaders are often made in consultation with internally appointed citizenship co-ordinators. Two of the case-study schools have recently appointed a new school leader, who has put his/her mark on how citizenship should be delivered in the school.

It is harder in this report to get at the reasons why particular delivery models are chosen. However, analysis suggests that it is most likely a mixture of philosophy about, and vision for, citizenship combined with pragmatic decisions about how this vision/philosophy interfaces with school-level challenges and factors.

The typology reveals a range of visions and philosophies for citizenship. These are encapsulated in the differing starting-points or key drivers for citizenship in schools. They range from a narrow interpretation of citizenship as being curriculum based and driven, to a broader view which sees citizenship as encompassing participation and promoting student efficacy in and beyond schools, through drivers which are linked to the wider education policy agenda. The way that citizenship education was introduced as a statutory new National Curriculum subject in secondary schools in September 2002 left the onus on schools to decide on these decisions for themselves in terms of what best fitted with their particular circumstances. Schools’ starting-points have been tempered by the reality of the challenge posed to citizenship delivery by pragmatic school-level factors. These include the challenges of:

- finding curriculum time in an already crowded curriculum;
- raising citizenship’s status, credibility and identity alongside existing subjects;
- identifying appropriate staff to lead and co-ordinate the subject;



- securing staff to teach it who have appropriate expertise and enthusiasm;
- finding sufficient finance to make/purchase appropriate resources and provide staff training and development;
- generating student enthusiasm for citizenship;
- deciding on what student outcomes in citizenship will look like and how they will be assessed, recorded and reported.

This helps to explain why and how, in general, the three main delivery models for citizenship in the curriculum have been chosen by schools. Those schools that have chosen to deliver citizenship through PSHE modules have done so because they believe that it builds upon their current staff expertise and best fits their existing curriculum delivery. Those schools that have made a conscious decision to deliver citizenship through discrete timetable slots have done so because they believe it is the best way to raise the subject's status, to make it visible to staff, students and parents, to ensure high quality provision and to bring together a specialist team to teach it. Meanwhile, those schools that have chosen a cross-curricular approach have done so because of the pragmatic decision that it is the best way to avoid timetable overcrowding. Each model balances vision and pragmatics.

### **9.1.2 RQ2 - How far does the delivery process develop and change as citizenship education becomes more embedded in the curriculum?**

The analysis reveals that four years after its statutory introduction into the secondary curriculum policy and practice in citizenship education in schools is still evolving. However, this evolution is not just related to the embedding of citizenship in the curriculum but is influenced by a range of other factors. The interplay of these factors is complex and multi-layered, dependent on personalities, contexts and policies within and beyond schools. These factors include:

- schools becoming more familiar with the programmes of study;
- staff expertise continuing to develop;
- wider education policy developments such as the National Strategies and initiatives such as personalised learning;
- links with the community;
- school-level factors related to whole-school planning, self-evaluation, target setting and the use of curriculum time, staff and resources.

What emerges from our analysis is a picture of citizenship delivery continuing to evolve in all schools. However, there are considerable differences in the pace and impact of this evolution. While in some schools there is evidence that

citizenship continues to set the pace in moving the wider agenda of student voice, participation and personalised learning forward, in many others there are clear signs that evolution is minimal and negligible.

The updated typology of school approaches to citizenship (see Table 1 below) confirms the evolution that has taken place between 2003, when the initial typology was drawn up, and 2006 when the current one was produced. It is reassuring in terms of evolution to see that the largest group of schools in the updated typology (over one-third), are those that are attempting to provide a '*citizenship-rich*' school experience which develops citizenship through the curriculum as well as promoting opportunities for students to participate and make a difference in and beyond the school.

However, the evolution presented in the updated typology needs to be set alongside the reported finding from school leaders and teachers surveyed of an increase, between 2004 and 2006, in the challenge of a lack of status, credibility and visibility of citizenship education in schools to staff and students. This is a worrying development, when set alongside the other main reported challenges facing citizenship, such as pressure on curriculum time, assessment, staff enthusiasm and staff workload. Indeed, the experience of the case-study schools suggests that the increase in this challenge of status is not unconnected to developments concerning these other main challenges i.e. that status and credibility are related to dwindling curriculum time for citizenship, difficulties over assessment, staff expertise and enthusiasm and the impact of other priorities on staff time and workloads.

The struggle for citizenship education to become accepted in schools and gain status, credibility and visibility is reflected in its evolution between 2004 and 2006. These subtle shifts are listed below:

- the delivery of citizenship as a discrete subject has lost ground to other delivery models and has seen an associated reduction in the time given to dedicated slots;
- fewer schools have dedicated teams of staff teaching citizenship;
- there has been an increase in use of extra-curricular approaches and assemblies to deliver citizenship;
- there has been a decrease in the range of subjects used to deliver citizenship in cross-curricular delivery approaches;
- schools state that the status, credibility and visibility of citizenship poses an increasing challenge;
- schools report increasing pressures on the timetable and the difficulty of covering all the topics in the citizenship programmes of study;
- there are less opportunities available to staff to undertake external training for citizenship;

- there has been a shift in teaching and learning approaches with less reliance on textbooks and more use of ICT, discussion and debate and group work;
- there has been a decline in the number of external visitors, particularly those related to politics and public life, who support citizenship programmes in schools;
- there has been an increase in the number of assessment plans for citizenship in schools and in the use of self-assessment, peer assessment and presentations.

The above list highlights a mixed picture of gains and losses as citizenship becomes more embedded in schools. On the whole, the picture appears to be one of loss rather than gain, with the structural challenges of curriculum time, staff expertise and training seeming to impact more on the status and credibility of citizenship in schools in 2006 than in 2004.

This overall picture is perhaps symptomatic of the constant battle between vision and pragmatism which contextualises schools' approaches to citizenship as they balance the needs of citizenship alongside those of other subjects and whole school initiatives. The school case-study visits underline that level is clearly higher in some schools than in others. In schools where leadership is strong, staff expertise continues to develop, efforts are put into producing good resources and there is a range of teaching and learning approaches then citizenship continues to aim for a higher level. However, there are clear signs that this is not the case in all schools and that in many schools the pace of the progress of citizenship is levelling off, and even dipping, after an initial burst of activity around planning and implementation.

At first glance this finding appears in contrast to the findings of *Towards Consensus?* (OFSTED, 2006a), which tells of a growing infrastructure for citizenship where even those schools that were slow off the starting blocks are now moving forwards. What the Study data reveal is that while certain elements of citizenship's infrastructure are clearly improving (namely: growth in assessment planning; less reliance on textbooks; growing staff expertise; increasing whole-school approaches), in other more intangible aspects (such as its status, credibility and visibility, particularly in relation to whole-school policy initiatives) it is falling behind.

Indeed, it may be the case that although citizenship is still evolving and its infrastructure is consolidating, it could be in danger of losing ever more ground to wider initiatives as they gather pace, have more resources and incentives attached, demand more staff time and are more explicit priorities for policy makers and, thus, for school leaders and inspectors.

### 9.1.3 RQ3 - What are practitioners' views on citizenship education (its implementation, staffing and delivery) and on related training (its availability, quality and applicability)?

In line with changes in models of delivery of citizenship in schools and the fact that only one-third of schools surveyed offer discrete citizenship, teachers tend to associate effective citizenship delivery with a supportive school ethos, assemblies and extra-curricular activities. Case study interviews reveal the importance of an enthusiastic teaching team with subject and teaching and learning expertise.

While practitioners recognise the importance of training for citizenship, and value training when they receive it, they are also realistic about the challenges of accessing and applying quality training in the current climate in schools with a squeeze on staff time, pressure on resources and the challenge presented by more pressing whole-school priorities other than citizenship.

The Study confirms that four years on from the introduction of statutory citizenship over half of teachers teaching citizenship have still not received any citizenship-related training. They also reveal how this lack of training impacts on their levels of confidence in relation to assessment and reporting, teaching methods and subject matter. It is no coincidence that there is some correlation between the topics teachers feel least confident teaching about (such as the European Union (EU) and voting and elections), those they feel most confident teaching about (such as rights and responsibilities and different cultures and ethnic groups) and those citizenship topics that students report as least and most relevant to their lives and interests.

### 9.1.4 RQ4 - What are the models or strands of delivery which appear to be most effective?

The delivery of citizenship and its perceived effectiveness results from how well the various decisions and factors impacting on citizenship in particular school settings work in combination in and beyond classrooms and how effectiveness is measured.

If effectiveness is measured in relation to **coverage of the national curriculum programme** of study, all the case-study schools report that they are stronger in covering some topics in the citizenship programmes of study than others. There is a particular weakness in covering the '*political literacy*' strand in the programmes of study, which teachers report as difficult to teach in terms of knowledge demands on them and hard to make interesting and relevant for students. They also struggle, in the limited curriculum time available, to balance a knowledge-based approach to citizenship with one that is focused on more active approaches designed to develop student skills. Only one of the 12 case-study schools believes that it has the balance right. Those case-study schools that have chosen to follow the GCSE short course in

citizenship report that they are more likely to cover more elements of the citizenship programmes of study at Key Stages 3 and 4 than those schools that do not follow the course. However, as a consequence, they also report that the planned nature of the GCSE examination syllabus makes it more difficult to introduce more varied and interactive teaching and learning approaches at Key Stage 4.

If effectiveness is measured in terms of **status, visibility and credibility amongst staff and students** then teaching citizenship as a discrete subject succeeds in meeting many of these challenges face on. It increases the status and visibility of the subject; encourages the use of a team of specialist teachers to teach it; improves the coverage of the National Curriculum programmes of study; increases the chance of using the citizenship GCSE short course, and encourages the development of assessment plans and practices.

If effectiveness is measured according to **student experience and skills development**, it is interesting to note that within and across the survey and case-study schools, students report that the best experiences are connected with delivery as a discrete element, either as a separate subject or through modules in PSHE. Delivering citizenship as a discrete element of a carousel with PSHE, careers education and guidance (CEG) or RE also encourages more student-centred learning through the use of discussion, debate and group work as well as the use of hands-on resources. The Key Stage 3 and 4 students interviewed in the case-study schools are very clear that they prefer active and interactive teaching and learning approaches in citizenship, based around discussion, debate, group work and the use of ICT. They believe that they learn more in this way than through more traditional teaching and learning approaches; views which are generally supported by their teachers.

The **least effective delivery method**, reported by teachers and students, is where citizenship is delivered through a cross-curricular approach, involving a range of subjects as well as tutorials and assemblies. This can lead to uneven and inconsistent delivery because larger numbers of non-specialist staff are involved by default. Teaching therefore often has to involve materials prepared by others to use in lessons.

Each delivery model has its advantages and disadvantages and choices or recognised trade-offs have to be made dependent on the chosen model of delivery. For example, though delivery of citizenship as a discrete subject has many natural advantages to recommend it as a preferred model for all schools, it should be recognised that it can:

- encourage more traditional teaching and learning approaches that limit the ability to introduce active/interactive methods;

- promote more traditional assessment practices based around tests and examinations that limit opportunities for self-assessment and peer assessment; and
- limit flexibility, through the topics covered, to be able to respond to current and topical events as they arise.

Equally, there are a number of caveats that need to be borne in mind in suggesting active and interactive methods as the most effective teaching and learning style for citizenship:

- teaching and learning is only as good as the expertise of the teacher involved;
- small group work needs to be carefully managed or certain groups of students can be easily distracted from what they should be doing;
- the overuse of any one teaching and learning approach can be counter productive;
- teaching and learning approaches in citizenship should balance the need for students to develop knowledge and understanding, alongside skills development as well as to have opportunities for active citizenship experiences. Case-study schools report finding it difficult to strike the right balance between these aspects.

Ultimately, the experiences of our Study schools suggest that delivery model alone is not the only determining factor as to the effectiveness of citizenship. Rather citizenship delivery is most effective where a number of factors are present. They include:

- citizenship being taught by small, dedicated teams
- citizenship having strong and clear leadership and direction
- citizenship being well supported through up-to-date, accessible lesson plans and resources.

This means that any model of delivery, whether it be discrete, through PSHE modules or cross-curricular, is likely to be effective if these factors are present. Admittedly, cross-curricular delivery is harder to lead, direct and co-ordinate than discrete delivery or delivery through a carousel approach, but managed and co-ordinated well it can result in effective teaching and learning.

### **9.1.5 RQ5 - How far can the delivery of citizenship education contribute to the wider policy agenda (e.g. participation, student voice personalised learning)?**

The Study data reveals that the potential link between citizenship education and wider policy initiatives is not exploited to the full. Indeed, there is some suggestion that these wider initiatives may be increasing the challenges facing citizenship in terms of its status and visibility, the amount of curriculum time it receives, the quality of and training opportunities available to staff who teach it and the resources available to support and promote it. In some schools, the link between citizenship and these wider policy initiatives may simply not be recognised, resulting in a perception that they are in competition with each other for scarce resources

It seems positive that the updated typology of school shows that three of the school types identified include drivers, in the form of participation and student efficacy, that have the potential to make a major contribution to wider policy initiatives. However, there is little explicit reference in the school case-study visits to the links between these wider policy initiatives and the delivery of citizenship education. This suggests that what links there are, are currently implicit rather than explicit and that many teachers, students and citizenship co-ordinators are not consciously aware of them.

The implicit nature of the contribution of citizenship to these wider policy initiatives is evidenced through some of the subtle shifts that are taking place in approaches to the citizenship delivery which dovetail with their tenor and direction. These include:

- a move to more active teaching and learning approaches based around discussion, debate and small group work;
- increased opportunities for student voice in and beyond classrooms (although it should be noted that teachers are more positive about this development than students);
- increased use of ICT;
- the use of a wider range of assessment techniques involving self-assessment, peer assessment and presentations.

These developments mirror the promotion of personalised learning, student voice and participation in schools and show that the delivery of citizenship is both benefiting from and, in turn, contributing to such developments.

In order to offset any competition between citizenship education and such general educational policy initiatives it is therefore imperative that the connections between them are made explicit to all involved. Only if this takes place does citizenship have a strong chance of fulfilling the recommendations of the Education and Skills Select Committee Citizenship Education Report

(GB. Parliament. House of Commons, 2007) including a ‘whole school’ approach to citizenship and the need for stronger leadership and an awareness amongst heads of citizenship’s whole school implications.

## 9.2 Adding to and enhancing the evidence base for citizenship

The report is a timely and valuable addition to the current evidence base for citizenship. It is timely because of the contribution it brings to the current policy context of review and imminent revision of citizenship in secondary schools in England. In particular, its findings situate the conclusions and recommendations of other reports (DfES, 2007; OFSTED, 2006a) within a wider frame of reference by:

- charting changes in approach to citizenship education in schools ‘*over time*’;
- adopting a broad definition of citizenship that includes curriculum, whole-school and wider community aspects;
- presenting the actions and views of a large nationally representative sample of school leaders, teachers and students.

In addition, this fifth annual report should be viewed as part of an on-going series of reports from the study (detailed in Appendix 1). The ‘*change over time*’ perspective that these reports bring enables the findings and recommendations in other, one-off, reports on citizenship to be assessed in terms of their reliability and usability. As such, its evidence is crucial for anyone in a position, both at the national and local level, to revise the direction, scope and nature of citizenship education in secondary schools in England.

So what can this Study tell us about high-profile reports on citizenship, notably from OFSTED and the *Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review Group*? Importantly, there are more similarities between the sets of findings than differences. The findings in this report provide further verification for findings in other reports about:

- the continued though variable progress of secondary schools in implementing citizenship in the curriculum;
- variability in practice within and across schools with some schools where practice is very good and others where it is consistently weak;
- difficulties in achieving consensus in schools about the main aims and drivers for citizenship;
- the challenge of incorporating citizenship into an already crowded curriculum;



- a lack of specialist citizenship teachers and the deficiencies in teacher expertise, confidence and training;
- uncertainties about, and variation in, expectations about standards and student outcomes in citizenship;
- the identification of factors that help to foster effective practice such as strong leadership and good quality resources.

Perhaps, the major difference between this report and the other high-profile reports is in the nature of the recommendations and in the perspective that has informed them. The recommendations in this report are couched within the context of the realities of current practice in schools as it has evolved over the past four years. They are informed by a recognition of the diversity of approaches to citizenship delivery in schools and an appreciation of the range of factors that lead schools to choose and develop these. This understanding frames our response to some of the key recommendations about improving citizenship delivery contained in recent reports (DfES, 2007; OFSTED, 2006a). The result is a number of searching questions:

- if discrete delivery of citizenship is one of the most effective models, why have not all schools chosen it as their preferred delivery method?
- if specialist citizenship teachers have a positive impact on the quality of teaching and student learning, why have not more schools chosen to appoint or train specialists?
- if the adoption of the GCSE citizenship short course at Key Stage 4 tightens assessment procedures and encourages greater coverage of topics in the programme of study, why have not all schools chosen to introduce citizenship GCSE courses?
- if schools are struggling to cover all the citizenship topics in the current programmes of study, particularly the political literacy strand, will the addition of a new fourth pillar or strand on *modern British social and cultural history* improve this situation?
- if schools are currently struggling with the status and visibility of citizenship in the curriculum how will an emphasis on whole-school provision change this situation?

Schools ultimately balance vision and pragmatism to adopt a model for citizenship that best suits their particular strengths, weaknesses and circumstances. In any preferred model or approach there will always be trade-offs and compromises, making a one-size-fits-all approach to citizenship education unrealistic and impracticable.

The recommendations that follow are made in the light of the reality of current citizenship provision in the schools surveyed and visited as part of the study. The intention is to produce a series of short recommendations for different audiences that are practical, usable and realisable.

## 9.3 Recommendations

### 9.3.1 Recommendations for policy-makers

Overall, there is a need to ensure consistency and coherence across the range of organisations and bodies which can affect citizenship education through direct recommendations, or through more general initiatives which have the potential to impact on citizenship, and to which citizenship has the potential to contribute in return.

In addition, there is a need to make the links between such policy initiatives and the citizenship curriculum explicit in order that schools have sufficient guidance and resources to help blend them into effective policy and practice. Detailed recommendations to aid this overall recommendation are listed below.

#### Department for Education and Skills (DfES)

It is recommended that DfES:

- Reviews and makes explicit to schools the contribution that citizenship can make to wider education policy initiatives such as personalised learning, participation and community cohesion.
- Makes available resources and practical guidance that encourage and promote the contribution that citizenship can make to the National Strategies.
- Initiates a wide-ranging and comprehensive review of the state of citizenship in schools, drawing upon the growing body of evidence currently available for a variety of sources. Takes any decisions about reviewing and revising citizenship in schools in the light of what the existing evidence base reveals about actual practice in schools.
- Helps schools to overcome the structural challenges affecting citizenship delivery, for example:
  - a lack of status and visibility
  - pressure on curriculum time
  - a lack of trained specialist staff
  - competing policy priorities
  - a lack of clarity about standards and outcomes.
- Rectifies the gaps in the coverage of citizenship in schools, particularly gaps in the coverage of the political literacy strand, and address the concerns raised by teachers and students about the lack of relevance of voting and elections and European issues.
- Ensures that the current CPD initiative for citizenship takes account of the training needs of teachers identified in this report and addresses the barriers that limit training access and take-up.

## **Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA)**

It is recommended that QCA:

- Helps schools to strengthen standards for citizenship in schools and ensure the development of consistent practice in assessing, recording and reporting student outcomes.
- Ensures that the draft revised programmes of study for citizenship at Key Stages 3 and 4 take account of teacher and student views about preferred teaching and learning styles, the balance of citizenship dimensions (e.g. knowledge, skills, active elements) and topics that are most and least relevant.
- Makes explicit the contribution that citizenship can make to the curriculum as well as to whole-school issues, such as participation and student voice, and community links.
- Makes clear that citizenship is broader than a National Curriculum subject and incorporates elements of active citizenship in the school and wider community; a definition which fits with the reality of citizenship in most schools.
- Consults actively with children and young people, teachers and schools across all key stages about any changes to curriculum and assessment arrangements for citizenship in order to ensure consistency, continuity and real progression.

## **Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED)**

It is recommended that OFSTED:

- Takes a broader definition citizenship to incorporate not just the National Curriculum subject but also more active citizenship elements at whole-school and wider community levels. Apply this definition to inspection frameworks and reports both in relation to schools and colleges and local authorities.
- Makes sure schools are fully aware of the guidance about the place and focus that needs to be given to citizenship in section 5 inspections (OFSTED, 2006c) to ensure that schools do not draw a veil over their difficulties in meeting statutory requirements in this area.
- Draws more attention to the place of citizenship in school self-evaluation frameworks (SEFs) and joint area review (JAR) inspections of local authorities in order to highlight the contribution of citizenship within and beyond schools.
- Leads by example, by continuing to consult with children and young people and community representatives as part of inspection processes in order to encourage and strengthen student voice and the interface between schools and communities.

- Gives more focus to issues of continuity and progression in citizenship not only across key stages but where children and young people move between schools, particularly from primary to secondary schools.

### **Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA)**

It is recommended that TDA:

- Establishes stronger links with the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) to build joint training programmes for current and future school leaders in developing effective citizenship policy and practice.
- Works with other partners to ensure that the latest outcomes from the growing evidence base about citizenship are incorporated into initial teacher training (ITT) and continuing professional development (CPD) programmes.
- Takes immediate action to meet the large-scale training needs in citizenship identified by teachers, particularly in relation to the priority areas of assessment, subject knowledge and teaching and learning styles.
- Investigates with other partners (e.g. ACT, Citized, LSN, Citizenship NGOs and Teachers' TV) a range of innovative ways of meeting citizenship training needs that include traditional face-to-face and 'blended learning' opportunities.

### **9.3.2 Recommendations for practitioners**

It is recommended that school leaders, co-ordinators and teachers:

- Undertake a comprehensive review of the delivery approach adopted, the reasons why it was chosen and its current level of effectiveness, using the revised typology of schools and report findings.
- Carry out an audit of the skills, expertise and confidence of those teaching citizenship and of the resources used to support it in order to identify training and resource needs.
- Build more explicit links between the delivery of citizenship in the curriculum and the contribution it can make to wider education initiatives at whole-school and community level in order to increase its status and visibility.
- Prioritise meeting training and resource needs for citizenship through a range of innovative approaches involving partner organisations at national and local level (e.g. government agencies, community representatives, citizenship NGOs).
- Consult regularly with students to ensure that their views about citizenship in the curriculum as well as their participation opportunities are taken into account in order to help strengthen their sense of individual and collective student efficacy.

### 9.3.3 Recommendations for community and support agencies

It is recommended that community and support agencies:

- Consider how they can work more closely with schools to help ensure there is even coverage of citizenship topics, particularly those relating to the political literacy strand.
- Provide increased opportunities for students to experience more active and interactive teaching and learning in citizenship both within and outside schools.
- Consider how best they can help meet the considerable training needs of teachers of citizenship and make some citizenship topics more relevant and interesting for young people.
- Recognise the contribution they can make to increasing the status, credibility and visibility of citizenship both within schools and beyond in wider society, and the role that citizenship can play in raising awareness of their own organisations profile amongst young people.

## 9.4 Final comment

The *Advisory Group for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools* (commonly referred to as the Crick Group), which drew up the framework upon which the current National Curriculum citizenship programmes of study are based, made the following recommendation in its final report:

*‘...because of the novelty of the venture and its political sensitivity, there should be a standing Commission on Citizenship Education to monitor its progress and when necessary to recommend amendments to the entitlements, learning outcomes, methods of inspection and teacher training, as appropriate’ (QCA, 1998 p.24)*

Although the proposal to set up such a Commission was not taken up, the Group’s acceptance that, over time, the citizenship framework and curriculum proposed in 1998 would require amendment is a telling statement. The current policy activity underway concerning citizenship at a national level, when allied to the findings in this report, suggests that the time, as foreseen by the Crick Group, may have arrived for a comprehensive review of the aims, place, approach and practice of citizenship education in schools.

The emphasis in current proposed revisions of citizenship in schools on increased discrete delivery, more specialist teachers, stronger leadership, more active and interactive teaching and learning approaches and clearer standards, may help to improve citizenship delivery but it will not guarantee effective citizenship *per se* in all schools. What is also required is recognition of the

need to address the structural challenges facing citizenship in schools. There is a danger that without such an approach, any proposed revisions to the citizenship curriculum will merely exchange the current set of implementation challenges with a different set. Schools would then be left to find a new balance between vision and pragmatism as they approach any proposed revisions from the starting point of their current delivery model. While some schools would find this easier than others, overall, we believe that such a scenario would not bring the anticipated improvement in the quality and consistency of citizenship provision within and across schools. Indeed, it may even make provision worse in some cases.



# Appendix 1 The citizenship education longitudinal study

## Background

The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) has commissioned NFER to undertake a longitudinal study extending over a total of eight years, in order to track a cohort of young people who first entered secondary school in 2002, and are therefore the first students to have a continuous entitlement to citizenship education.

Following the report of the Citizenship Advisory Group (QCA, 1998), citizenship became a new statutory National Curriculum subject at Key Stages 3 and 4 in September 2002, for all 11 to 16 year olds in schools in England. The Advisory Group's definition of 'effective education for citizenship' was centred on three separate but interrelated strands: **social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy**.

The accompanying Citizenship Order (QCA, 1999) set out the anticipated learning outcomes in relation to three elements: **knowledge and understanding and skills of enquiry and communication and participation and responsible action**. However, methods of delivery are not prescribed, and although schools are advised to devote at least five per cent of teaching time to citizenship, they are free to choose how to achieve this goal.

## Purpose and aims

The overarching aim of the longitudinal study is to assess the short-term and long-term effects of citizenship education on students aged 11-16.

In addition, the two subsidiary aims are to:

- Explore how different processes – in terms of school, teacher and pupil effects – can impact upon differential outcomes.
- Set out, based on evidence collected from the Study and other sources, what changes could be made to the delivery of citizenship education in order to improve its potential for effectiveness.

## Methodology and design

The overall survey design involves linked surveys of school senior managers, teachers and students. There are two series of surveys:

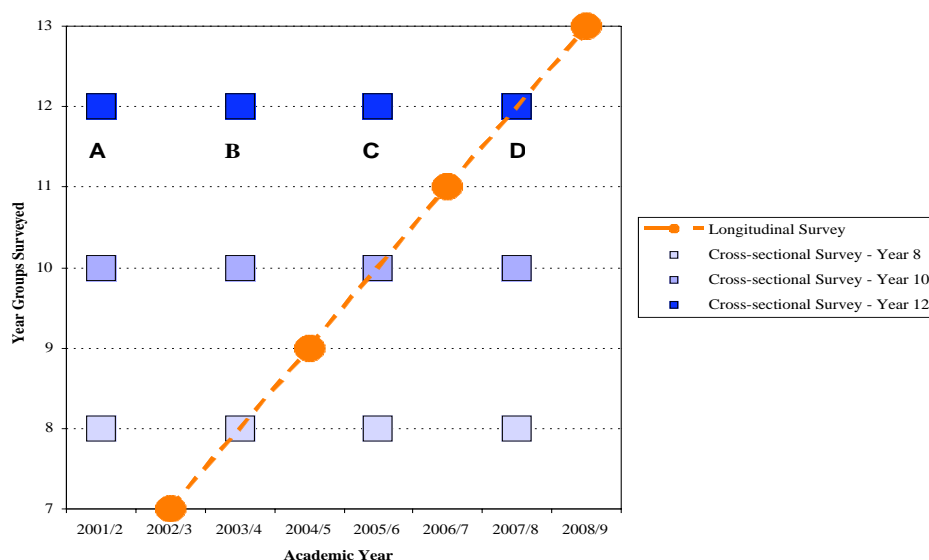
- **A longitudinal survey**, based on a complete cohort from a sample of 75 schools. Young people were surveyed in November 2002 following entry to Year 7 and again when they were in Year 9, and again. They are currently being contacted again, now that they are in Year 11 and will be



surveyed one final time at age 18 (the final questionnaire will be sent to home addresses).

- **A biennial cross-sectional survey**, with questionnaires completed by approximately 2,500 students in each of Years 8, 10 and 12. Each time the survey is run, a new sample of 300 schools and colleges is drawn, and one tutor group (about 25 students) from each takes part in the survey. The results from the third cross-sectional survey, which took place in 2006, are discussed in this report.

The following schematic diagram illustrates the timing of both surveys



In all schools participating in the surveys (and colleges for the cross-sectional surveys), one senior manager and five teachers/tutors are also asked to complete questionnaires.

In addition to the surveys, the project incorporates a literature review and 12 longitudinal case studies. The case-study schools were originally selected, ten from the schools participating in the first cross-sectional survey, and the other ten from the schools involved in the longitudinal survey. Since 2005, the case-study design has been altered, so that 12 schools (seven cross-sectional and five longitudinal) are now visited biennially. School visits include in-depth interviews with key personnel and student discussion groups. Results from the third round of case-study visits to the 12 schools are described in this report.

### Research team

The research team is made up of staff at the NFER:

**David Kerr**, Project Director

**Elizabeth Cleaver**, Project Leader

**Julie Nelson**, Senior Research Officer

**Joana Lopes**, Senior Research Officer

**Kerensa White**, Research Officer

**Susan Stoddart**, Project Administrator

**Thomas Benton**, Project Statistician.

In addition, Professor Pat Seyd (University of Sheffield) and Professor Paul Whiteley (University of Essex) are consultants to the study and work in partnership with NFER.

## Reports

So far, the Study has published five annual reports (including the current report).

The first report **Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: First Cross-sectional Survey** (Kerr *et al*, 2003) focuses on the findings from the first survey undertaken as part of the study, carried out in the year before citizenship education became compulsory. It provides a baseline of evidence of existing knowledge about and provision of, citizenship education in schools, prior to statutory implementation. In addition, it charts the citizenship-related attitudes and knowledge of students at this time.

The second annual report **Making Citizenship Education Real** (Kerr *et al*, 2004) examines findings from the first longitudinal survey, and first round of case-study visits. It establishes a baseline of the attitudes of students, teachers and school leaders to citizenship education in the first year following the introduction of statutory citizenship education. It also outlines the emerging approaches to citizenship education in schools and begins to identify and explore the factors which influence the decision-making processes in schools concerning citizenship education.

The third annual report **Listening to Young People: Citizenship Education in England** (Cleaver *et al*, 2005) sets out the findings of the second cross-sectional survey. It focuses specifically on students' experiences, understandings and views of citizenship education and wider citizenship issues.

The fourth annual report **Active Citizenship and Young People: opportunities, experiences and challenges in and beyond school** (Ireland *et al*, 2006) examines findings from the second longitudinal survey, and the second round of case-study visits. It explores the nature and extent of the opportunities and experiences that young people have had in relation to citizenship as an active practice in their schools, both within the curriculum/classroom and the school organisation/culture, and in wider communities. It identifies the challenges involved in providing such opportunities and experiences and presents key messages for national- and local-level policy makers, school practitioners, representatives of the wider community and young people.

In addition, the Study has published two literature reviews:

The first, **Citizenship Education One Year on: What Does it Mean?** (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004) focuses on ‘definitions, models, approaches and challenges to citizenship education in policy and practice’ in the first year of national curriculum citizenship in England.

The second literature review, **Citizenship Education: the Political Science Perspective** (Whiteley, 2005) draws on research in political science which examines the relationship between education and citizenship engagement. As well as discussing a series of alternative models, which can be used to explain why people engage in voluntary activities in politics, it uses data from the longitudinal survey to test some of these models.

A number of journal articles and book chapters discussing the results from the Study have also been recently published:

**Citizenship education in England – Listening to Young People: new insights from the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study**, (Kerr, 2005).

**Moving citizenship education forward: key considerations for schools and colleges**, (Lopes and Kerr, 2005).

**Foundations and baselines for citizenship: the NFER Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study** (Cleaver, Kerr and Ireland 2006).

**Exploring the meaning of “active citizenship” in England, Europe and beyond** (Cleaver and Nelson 2006).

All outputs from the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study and more information about the Study can be found at the following link:

[www.nfer.ac.uk/research-areas/citizenship/](http://www.nfer.ac.uk/research-areas/citizenship/)

## Appendix 2 Methodology

### A. Questionnaire survey

#### Survey design

The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study comprises cross-sectional surveys which are carried out every two years to gather data from students in Year 8, Year 10 and Year 12, as well as from the leaders and teaching staff in their schools or colleges. In alternate years, a longitudinal cohort of students is being followed from Year 7 through to Year 13, with data also being collected from the leaders and teachers in their schools (see Kerr *et al.*, 2004 for further details). The present report concentrates on data collected during the third cross-sectional survey, which was carried out in spring 2006.

#### Third Cross-sectional Survey Administration

Questionnaires were sent to each participating school or college, for completion by one whole class in either Year 8, Year 10 or Year 12. Each school or college was also sent questionnaires for completion by the headteacher or their deputy in schools, and their equivalent in colleges, and up to 5 teachers or tutors involved in the delivery of citizenship education or related topics.

#### Questionnaires

The questionnaires were identical to those used in the second cross-sectional survey. Therefore it has been possible to make comparisons between the results from the third cross-sectional survey, and those from the second cross-sectional survey.

#### Sample

The sample was a nationally representative sample of 212 schools and 43 colleges<sup>9</sup> in England during the autumn term of 2005-6. Questionnaires were completed by:

Schools					Colleges		
School leaders	Teachers	Year 8 students	Year 10 students	Year 12 students	College leaders	Tutors	Year 12 college students
214	775	2197	2185	952	44	140	1026

<sup>9</sup> Of the 330 schools and colleges that agreed to take part, 255 returned full sets of questionnaires (student, teacher and school leader questionnaires) – a 77 per cent response rate.

The numbers of schools and colleges returning each type of questionnaire were as follows:

	Schools		Colleges	
	Number returning questionnaires	% of those returning any information	Number returning questionnaires	% of those returning any information
Returned any type of questionnaire	241	100%	46	100%
Returned any pupil questionnaires	241	87%	46	88%
<i>Returned year 8 questionnaires</i>	92	84%	-	-
<i>Returned year 10 questionnaires</i>	93	85%	-	-
<i>Returned year 12 questionnaires</i>	56	97%	46	88%
Returned any teacher/college tutor questionnaires	235	85%	45	87%
Returned school/college leader questionnaire	214	77%	44	85%
Returned <b>all three</b> types of questionnaire	212	76%	43	83%

## B. Case Studies

### Sample of schools

Following an agreement with DfES in 2005, the number of case-study schools visited during the course of the Study has been reduced from the initial 20 to 12. The 12 schools which are currently part of the Study were visited in the Spring and Summer terms of 2006, and will be visited once more in the Spring and Summer Terms of 2008. The data collected from the 2006 visits is referred to in this report.

The case-study schools were not selected to be representative of schools nationally, but rather illustrative of the range of different approaches to and experiences of citizenship education. However, the 12 remaining schools were selected from the original pool of 20, based on consideration of a range of criteria including approaches to the delivery and assessment of citizenship education, geographical location of the schools, school type and specialism. The characteristics of the 12 case-study schools are described below.

- Three schools were in the North, two in the Midlands and seven in the South of the country.
- Eleven were comprehensive schools and one was a selective grammar school.
- Eight schools had students from 11 to 18 years old, two from 13/14 to 18, and two from 11 to 16.<sup>10</sup>
- Three schools were large with over 1,500 students, eight schools had between 1,000 and 1,500 students and one school had fewer than 1, 000 students.
- Eleven schools were mixed and one was a single sex (girls) school.
- Two schools were faith schools.
- Only one school did not have Specialist Status. Of the 11 schools with Specialist Status, there were three Language colleges, three Technology Colleges, one Humanities College (with citizenship as one of its lead subjects), one Sports College, one Mathematics and Computing College, one Business and Enterprise College and one Science College.
- Eight schools had between one and nine per cent of students eligible for free school meals, two schools had between ten and nineteen per cent eligible and a further two schools had between 20 and 35 per cent.
- Nine schools had between zero and four per cent of students with English as an Additional Language, though one school had 35 per cent and another 73 per cent.
- Three schools, including the selective school, had achievement in terms of 5+ A\* to C grades at GCSE very much higher than the national average, four were at or slightly above average and three were considerably below this average.

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<sup>10</sup> In the 13/14 to 18 schools, citizenship coordinators from feeder schools were also interviewed.

### **Interviews conducted in case-study schools**

Visits typically included interviews with:

- the school's citizenship coordinator
- a school leader
- at least two teachers involved with citizenship
- one group of key stage 3 students
- one group of key stage 4 students.

Schools were asked to select six to seven students at each key stage to take part in a group discussion with a member of the research team. In some schools, teachers made every attempt to ensure that the groups of young people selected were as representative of the wider school population as possible in terms of achievement and enthusiasm levels, and drawn from different tutor groups or classes, where relevant. However, in other schools, students were clearly all drawn from one tutor group or citizenship class (often with a particularly dynamic teacher), or were higher achieving students, or those that were particularly enthusiastic (such as one school in which all the students interviewed were school council representatives, for example). This point is worth making, because it has an impact upon the nature of student response and means that direct comparisons between student responses are not wholly appropriate.

### **Citizenship education in case-study schools**

The case-study schools had a range of approaches to citizenship education and many used more than one delivery method at key stages 3 and 4, outlined in the table below.



## The 12 Longitudinal Case-Study Schools – An Overview

Schools	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
Type	Voluntary	Community	Community	Community	Community	Community	Community	Foundation	Community	Community	Foundation Grammar	Voluntary Aided
Age range	14-18	11-18	11-18	11-16	11-18	11-18	11-16	11-18	11-18	13-18	11-18	11-18
Sex	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Girls	Mixed
Free school meals %	4	5	9	35	8	7	11	20	11	2	1	2
English as an additional language %	2	1	1	73	2	3	9	35	0	4	4	3
Number of students	1500	1000	1000	1200	1300	2000	1200	1300	800	1200	1000	1700
Specialism	Technology	None	Mathematics & Computers	Sports	Technology	Business & Enterprise	Languages	Humanities	Technology (& Arts)	Languages	Languages	Science
Delivery model: KS3 discrete	No KS3 provision	●						●				
KS3 cross-curricular			●	●	●				●		●	●
KS3 Part of PSHE				●		●				●	●	●



KS3 In tutorial programme					•	•	•		•		•	
KS3 Collapsed timetable			•	•			•		•			
KS4 discrete	•	•	•					•			No KS4 provision	
KS4 cross-curricular				•	•				•			•
KS4 Part of PSHE				•		•				•		•
KS4 In tutorial programme					•		•		•			
KS4 Collapsed timetable				•			•		•			
Use GCSE short course	•					•		•				

Source: NFER register of schools from DfES Edubase website and school census data

## Appendix 3      References

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