

Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Second Annual Report: First Longitudinal Survey **MAKING CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION REAL**

David Kerr, Eleanor Ireland, Joana Lopes, Rachel Craig
with Elizabeth Cleaver
National Foundation for Educational Research

**Research Report
No 531**

***Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Second Annual Report:
First Longitudinal Survey***

MAKING CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION REAL

***David Kerr, Eleanor Ireland, Joana Lopes, Rachel Craig
with Elizabeth Cleaver***

National Foundation for Educational Research

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

© National Foundation for Educational Research 2004
ISBN 1 84478 222 0

Contents

	page
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	i
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background Context	1
1.2 The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Aims and Outcomes	2
1.3 Focus of the Report	3
1.4 Structure of the Report	4
2. METHODOLOGY	7
2.1 Research design of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study	7
2.2 Questionnaires	9
2.3 Sample	9
2.4 Analysis	10
2.5 Summary	11
3. PROFILES OF SCHOOLS, SCHOOL LEADERS, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS	13
3.1 Introduction	14
3.2 School Profiles	15
3.3 Profiles of School Leaders and Teachers	17
3.4 Student Profiles	23
3.5 Overview	33
4. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN THE CURRICULUM	35
4.1 How is Citizenship Education Organised?	36
4.2 Student Experience of Citizenship Education	51
4.3 Overview	53
4.4 Factors Affecting the Ways Schools Approach Citizenship Education in the Curriculum	56
4.5 Emerging Outcomes of Different Approaches to Citizenship Education in the Curriculum	58
5. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOL AS A COMMUNITY	61
5.1 Implementing Citizenship Education in the School as a Community	62
5.2 Are Schools Viewed as Democratic Institutions?	66
5.3 Opportunities for Students to take Part in Extra-Curricular Activities	71
5.4 Students' Sense of Belonging to the School Community	72
5.5 Overview	74
5.6 Factors Affecting Active Citizenship Within the School as a Community	76
6. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION AND THE WIDER COMMUNITY	79
6.1 Relationships Between Schools and the Wider Community	80
6.2 Opportunities for Students to Participate in the Wider Community	80
6.3 Opportunities for the Local Community to Participate in the School	81
6.4 Sense of Belonging to and Membership of the Local Community	84
6.5 The Impact of Citizenship Education on the Wider Community	85
6.6 Overview	86
6.7 Factors Affecting Relationships Between School and Community	87

7. A TYPOLOGY OF SCHOOL APPROACHES TO CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION	91
7.1 Developing a Typology	92
7.2 How the Different Types Compare	96
7.3 What Factors are Associated with the Different Types?	99
7.4 Overview	101
8. CONCLUSIONS AND KEY MESSAGES	103
8.1 Conclusions and Key Messages in Context	104
8.2 What Have We Learned about the Types of Citizenship Education being Provided Nationally?	105
8.3 What Have We Learned about the Factors that Appear to Influence the Development of the Types Citizenship Education being Provided?	109
8.4 What have we learned about the Potential Impact of these Various Factors on the Future Development of Citizenship Education?	113
8.5 How far do our Conclusions Match those of other Citizenship Education Studies and Research?	115
8.6 What are the Key Messages and Action Points in the Findings for Different Audiences Involved in Developing Citizenship Education?	119
8.7 Concluding Comment	123
REFERENCES	125
APPENDIX 1 ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK.....	i
APPENDIX 2 ADDITIONAL TABLES	v

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, conducted by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) on behalf of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), aims to identify, measure and evaluate the extent to which effective practice in citizenship education develops in schools so that such practice can be promoted widely.¹

This report sets out the findings from the first longitudinal survey and visits to nine case study schools drawn from those involved in the first cross-sectional survey of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study (hereafter referred to as the Study). The findings establish a baseline of the attitudes of students, teachers and school leaders to citizenship and education in the first year following the introduction of statutory citizenship education into schools in September 2002.

The report outlines the emerging approaches to citizenship education in schools in the academic year 2002-2003 and begins to identify and explore the factors which influence the decision making process in schools concerning citizenship education. It identifies action points for schools, teachers and policy-makers.

Key Findings

Definition of citizenship education

The report suggests that successful implementation of citizenship education in schools requires a holistic and coherent approach based around three interrelated components: **citizenship education in the curriculum, in the school as a community and in partnership with the wider community.**

School approaches to citizenship education

Emerging approaches to citizenship education in schools suggests that provision is uneven, patchy and evolving. There is considerable work still to do in the majority of schools in developing effective citizenship education. Few schools, have, as yet, recognised the broad scope of citizenship education and attempted to translate it into a holistic and coherent whole-school policy. The survey, based on a nationally representative sample of schools, identifies four types of school approach to citizenship education.

- ♦ **Progressing schools** were developing citizenship education in the curriculum, school community and wider community and were the most advanced in terms of citizenship education provision.

¹ For further information about the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study visit <http://www.nfer.ac.uk/research/citizenship.asp>

- ♦ **Focused schools** were concentrating almost exclusively on developing citizenship education in the curriculum, but neglected to build opportunities for active citizenship in the school and with the wider community.
- ♦ **Minimalist schools** were at an early stage of development in terms of citizenship education, used a limited range of delivery approaches and had relatively few extra-curricular activities on offer.
- ♦ **Implicit schools** were not yet focusing explicitly on citizenship in the curriculum, although they provided opportunities for active citizenship. With a greater focus on citizenship within the curriculum they have the potential to become progressing schools.

Key factors underlying success

Schools appear to be most successful in developing citizenship education where there is:

School level factors

- ♦ A clear, coherent and broad understanding of what is meant by citizenship education and a recognition of the need to develop it through three interrelated components, citizenship in the curriculum, active citizenship in the school as a community, and the wider community
- ♦ Supportive school ethos and values systems that dovetail with the goals of citizenship education
- ♦ Strong senior management support, with senior managers promoting citizenship education through active involvement in planning and delivery approaches in partnership with a strong, well respected coordinator
- ♦ Positive relations at different levels including among staff, between teachers and students, among students and with the wider community
- ♦ Equal status and value accorded to citizenship education alongside other curriculum subjects and areas of school experience
- ♦ Evidence of on-going processes of reflection, planning, action and review in relation to citizenship education
- ♦ Recognition of the need for staff training and development in order to build confidence and improve teaching and learning strategies and identification of training priorities
- ♦ Sufficient time and resources allocated to citizenship education in terms of curriculum space, teaching staff, teaching and learning resources and staff training and development opportunities.

Learning context level factors

- ◆ Dedicated and enthusiastic coordinator who is well respected and has the skills to champion citizenship education with teachers and students as well as teach it
- ◆ Range of delivery approaches, including a regular dedicated, curriculum time slot for citizenship whether as a discrete element or as modules within a PSHE programme. These approaches need to be coherent and well organised and ensure that effective links are made between the curriculum, school and wider community components of citizenship education
- ◆ Growing staff confidence about what citizenship education entails, including adequate subject knowledge and expertise in a range of active forms of learning. The more confident and enthusiastic staff are about citizenship education the more likely they are to develop effective practice and transmit that enthusiasm to students, teachers and community representatives
- ◆ Recognition of gaps in teacher knowledge, understanding and skills in relation to citizenship education and plans for staff training and development to address these issues
- ◆ Emerging assessment strategies for recognising student achievement that are effective, realistic and manageable
- ◆ Active involvement of students in the school as a community, through a range of structures and initiatives, such as school or class councils, peer mediation schemes, house style pastoral systems and extra-curricular activities, which are based on trust, respect and dialogue
- ◆ Opportunities to learn about and experience citizenship education in a range of contexts including not just the classroom but also through whole-school processes and activities and experiences involving the wider community.

Large schools with a positive, participatory ethos, that have previous links with the community; and that encourage active participation in class by students, are more likely to be progressing in citizenship education.

Action Points

The report suggests three main action points for schools and policy-makers in relation to citizenship education.

- ◆ Schools need to review their existing approaches to implementing citizenship education in relation to the typology of schools and the key factors underlying the most successful citizenship education provision.
- ◆ Schools need to develop a more holistic and coherent approach to citizenship education based around the three components of citizenship education: in the curriculum, in the school community and in partnership with the wider community. Such an approach should encompass not only moral and social dimensions but also political literacy and concern with public policy issues.

- ♦ Policy makers need to adopt a broad, ‘developmental’ view of citizenship education that highlights growing signs of progress alongside deficiencies. This provides a strong and realistic evidence base upon which to frame and implement policy approaches that support the development and sharing of good practices. Recognition is required of the need for staff training and development in order to build confidence, address gaps in teacher knowledge, understanding and skills, and improve active teaching and learning strategies.

Future surveys and school case study visits will add to this evidence base in order to point the way forwards for citizenship education and to suggest potential changes to improve the effectiveness of its delivery.

Background

Citizenship education has been at the heart of a major debate and policy review over the past decade. This review has centred on the work of the Advisory Group on *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools*, set up in 1997 and chaired by Professor (now Sir) Bernard Crick. The Citizenship Advisory Group defined ‘*effective education for citizenship*’ as comprising three separate but interrelated strands: social and moral responsibility; community involvement and political literacy (Crick, 1998). In the light of this report, citizenship education has been incorporated for the first time into the school curriculum. Citizenship has now become a statutory National Curriculum subject at key stages 3 and 4 (for students age 11 to 16) from September 2002. There are also development projects underway to explore citizenship education as an entitlement for students in post-16 education and training.²

The overarching aim of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study is to assess the short- and long-term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills and attitudes and behaviour of students. In addition, it aims to identify the different processes, in terms of school, teacher and student effects, that lead to differential outcomes.

Methodology

The first longitudinal survey on was conducted in a nationally representative sample of 112 schools in England during November 2002, soon after citizenship education became a statutory subject in secondary schools in September 2002. Questionnaires were completed by 84 school leaders, 387 teachers and the cohort of 18,583 Year 7 students. This cohort will be surveyed again when the students are in Year 9, Year 11 and Year 13 (or equivalent). Case study visits were conducted at nine schools selected from the first cross-sectional survey during the same academic year, in spring and early summer 2003, and information from these visits illuminates and explores in more depth the factors and issues emerging from the quantitative surveys.

² See Nelson, J., Wade, P., Kerr, D. and Taylor, G. (2004). *National Evaluation of Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects: Key Recommendations and Findings from the Second Year of Development* (Research Report No. 507). London: DfES.

Main Findings

Profiles of school leaders, teachers and students

Profiles of the respondents to the first longitudinal survey provide a contextual background against which the results can be interpreted. School leaders had an average of 25 years teaching experience. Most respondents to the teacher questionnaire were women, and one sixth were citizenship education coordinators; teachers averaged seven years' teaching experience.

In terms of civic participation, school leaders and teachers were most frequently members of cultural organisations and sports clubs and gyms. School leaders were also frequently members of youth and neighbourhood organisations. Many school leaders and teachers felt that they were too busy to volunteer for activities in and out of school. Most felt that politics was important, whilst nearly all school leaders and teachers intended to vote in future elections.

Students who took part in the first longitudinal survey were equally split in terms of gender, and most identified themselves as White British. Nearly one-third of students intended to go to university, whilst a similar proportion was not sure what they would do in the future.

Most students reported watching between one and two hours of television and listening to less than an hour of radio each day. Television was the main way in which students found out about current affairs, with nearly two-fifths reporting that they often watched news on television. Over half the students trusted the information they got from TV, while most expressed a lack of trust in the reliability of newspapers.

In response to the question "What does citizenship mean to you?" these Year 7 students most frequently responded that it was related to caring for and respecting or helping other people.

Citizenship education in the curriculum

Most schools were under way with the implementation of citizenship education: they had conducted an audit, appointed a coordinator and were using a range of delivery methods, the most frequent being citizenship related modules in PSHE, assemblies and extra curricular events. Around a quarter of schools had an agreed policy for recognising achievement in citizenship, and most schools without such a policy planned to develop one. At key stage 3, just under half of schools used certificates or awards to recognise achievement, whilst at key stage 4 less than one fifth of schools were planning to use the new GCSE Short Course in Citizenship Studies.

Nearly two-fifths of teachers had received training in relation to citizenship education. Three-quarters felt they needed additional training, especially in relation to assessment and reporting, teaching methods and subject matter. Topics in which teachers were less confident were those related to the political and justice system, the economy and Europe.

Nearly half of students reported learning about citizenship in school, most frequently in PSHE, RE and tutorials.

The key factors that influenced schools' approaches to citizenship education were related to:

- ◆ concerns over the coherence of students' citizenship experiences and the status and saliency of the subject for students
- ◆ the views and involvement of teachers, coordinators, senior management and parents
- ◆ time and practical issues
- ◆ lack of clarity on assessment
- ◆ school ethos.

Citizenship education in the school as a community

Citizenship education in the school as a community focuses on active citizenship approaches within the school, and explores whether there appear to be shared views of issues in schools regarding citizenship education, and the extent to which the school community is consulted about and involved in implementation.

Approximately half of schools tried to involve teachers and students in planning the implementation of citizenship education. Most teachers felt they had a general understanding of citizenship education; however they were less clear about their school's specific plans.

Responsibility for the development of the citizenship curriculum was shared between the citizenship education coordinator, senior management team and other members of staff in the majority of schools. Teachers and school leaders generally felt that citizenship education would improve students' awareness and participation, and would encourage them to become well-rounded citizens. Concerns were mainly focused around staff and curriculum time, assessment and reporting, and training and expertise.

School leaders, teachers and students generally felt that their schools were somewhat democratic and that students had some say in the organisation and running of their schools; however, most felt that students were less involved in planning teaching and learning.

Nearly half of students had been involved in school council elections, whilst one-eighth had taken part in their school council. Ineffective school councils were badly organised, led and advertised, whilst successful school councils had a high profile and were seen as effective by students.

A range of extra curricular activities were offered by schools. Those that were taken up most frequently by students were sports activities, school councils, arts and fund raising activities.

A range of factors at different levels influence the way in which active citizenship within the school as a community has developed, with student and school level factors being particularly important. These include:

- ◆ Links between students of different ages, including peer mentoring, extra curricular activities and a house style pastoral system
- ◆ School efficacy in terms of students having their views listened to and valued, and feeling that school and the qualifications it promotes are worthwhile
- ◆ Lack of student enthusiasm and interest in participation
- ◆ Lack of leadership, organisation and awareness of school councils
- ◆ Relationships between students and teachers
- ◆ Positive and participatory school ethos and positive attitudes towards citizenship education
- ◆ Practical difficulties such as shortened lunch breaks, lack of facilities, and students coming from large and dispersed catchment areas
- ◆ Local community issues which can impede development of a sense of community within the school.

Citizenship education and the wider community

Schools play an important role in facilitating the interface between students and their wider community, and creating opportunities for students to participate beyond the school. Most schools offered students opportunities for involvement in their local communities, through for example, fundraising for local charities, community based sports competitions and the Duke of Edinburgh Award scheme.

About one-fifth of schools had discussed their plans for citizenship education delivery with members of the local community such as parents and community groups. In addition nearly half of teachers had involved external people in teaching citizenship education.

Nearly two-thirds of students felt a sense of belonging to their local neighbourhoods, whilst approximately half felt a sense of belonging to their town and their country. Over two-fifths of students felt a sense of belonging to Europe. Students trusted their families most, whilst about half of students trusted other people of their own age and their neighbours.

Four-fifths of school leaders and teachers expected that citizenship education would have some impact on students' future participation in the community and propensity to vote in elections.

Factors that influenced reciprocal participation between schools and their communities included:

- ◆ student interest in the local community

- ◆ teachers' and senior managers' involvement in the local community
- ◆ teachers' and senior managers' views of citizenship education and school ethos
- ◆ school links to community groups and other schools, including links facilitated by religious status or specialist school status
- ◆ availability of facilities and organisations for students in the community
- ◆ availability of the school facilities to the community at evenings and weekends
- ◆ historical relations between the school and the local area, and the communities' view of young people.

A typology of school approaches to citizenship education

At this early stage of the implementation of citizenship education, a typology of schools is suggested based on their approaches to citizenship education. Differences between the types may become more pronounced over the course of the Study, with some schools already laying the foundations to be advanced in their approach, whilst others may remain focused or fail to maintain the initial impetus they have achieved. The four types are:

- ◆ **Progressing schools** were developing citizenship education in the curriculum, school community and wider community and were the most advanced in terms of citizenship education. They were seen as democratic, involved a range of people in planning citizenship education, used a range of delivery methods, recognised or planned to recognise achievement through awards, certificates or the GCSE short course, and offered a wide range of extra-curricular activities.
- ◆ **Focused schools** were concentrating almost exclusively on developing citizenship education in the curriculum, but needed to build opportunities for active citizenship in the school and with the wider community. They were not seen as democratic, but involved a number of people in planning citizenship education, and used a range of delivery methods. They used awards and certificates to recognise achievement and offered a reasonable range of extra-curricular activities.
- ◆ **Minimalist schools** were at an early stage of development in terms of citizenship education, used a limited range of delivery approaches and had relatively few extra-curricular activities on offer. They were not seen as democratic, did not involve many individuals in the planning of citizenship education and have not made plans for recognising achievement.
- ◆ **Implicit schools** were not yet focusing explicitly on citizenship in the curriculum. They were seen as democratic and provided a variety of extra-curricular activities, and therefore have opportunities for active citizenship; however they did not include a range of people in planning citizenship education, and had no plans for recognition of achievement. With a greater focus on citizenship within the curriculum these have the potential to become progressing schools.

Large schools with a positive, participatory ethos, that have previous links with the community; and that encourage active participation in class by students, are more likely to be progressing in citizenship education.

Conclusions

There is considerable work still to do in the majority of schools in developing citizenship education. Few schools, have, as yet, recognised the broad scope of citizenship education and attempted to translate it into a holistic and coherent whole-school policy. This suggests the need for schools to revisit the understanding of citizenship education upon which they have based their current policies and practices.

The findings match existing citizenship education studies and research but also add considerably to what is known about the development of citizenship education in schools, particularly in terms of the types of approaches and the factors that influence these approaches.

These are early days for the development of citizenship education in schools and many schools are still feeling their way in terms of understanding, policy and approach. Further research will provide the opportunity to explore in greater detail the processes by which decision making and resource allocation for citizenship education are driven within schools and the approaches to citizenship education which result from these processes. There is also the need to address both the in school and out of school factors which may affect student participation in, and sense of belonging to, the school community and the wider community beyond. Future surveys and school case study visits will add to the existing evidence base in order to point the way forwards for citizenship education and to suggest potential changes both in the short and long term, to improve the effectiveness of its delivery.

The Full Report

KERR, D, IRELAND, E., LOPES, J., CRAIG, R. with CLEAVER, E. (2004). *Making Citizenship Education Real: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study Second Annual Report*. London: DfES.

References

CRICK REPORT. DEPARTMENT FOR EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT. ADVISORY GROUP ON EDUCATION AND CITIZENSHIP AND THE TEACHING OF DEMOCRACY IN SCHOOLS (1998). *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools*. London: QCA.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Context

This report sets out the findings from the first longitudinal survey and visits to nine case study schools drawn from those involved in the first cross-sectional survey of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study (hereafter referred to as the Longitudinal Study). The survey was carried out in the autumn term and the case study visits in the spring and summer terms of the academic year 2002-3, the first year of statutory citizenship education in schools. The findings are based on initial analysis of the data from the students, teachers and school leaders³ who participated. The findings presented in this report are important in five respects:

- ♦ They establish a baseline of the attitudes of students, teachers and school leaders to citizenship and education in the first year following the introduction of statutory citizenship education into schools in September 2002. This is particularly important given that these Year 7 students (over 18,000 in number) comprise the longitudinal cohort whom the Longitudinal Study is going to follow, through their school and college experiences, from now until age 18.
- ♦ They detail not only what was happening in terms of emerging approaches to citizenship education in schools in the academic year 2002-2003 but also begin to identify and explore the factors which influence the decision making process in schools concerning citizenship education.
- ♦ They present a typology of school approaches to citizenship education, which, at this early stage of the citizenship initiative, is helpful to those seeking to understand what is happening at present and how it can be taken forward in the future.
- ♦ They contribute considerably to the limited but growing research base on citizenship education and political socialisation in England, and should be seen alongside other reports on developing practice in citizenship education, such as those by OFSTED and QCA, as well as the outcomes of the evaluation of the Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects.
- ♦ They add to the outcomes of the Longitudinal Study, in particular, they need to be seen alongside the report on the first cross-sectional survey and literature review, and help to clarify the purpose of the longitudinal surveys and their relationship to the Study's other components.

The remainder of this introductory chapter sets the first longitudinal survey and case study visits within the context of the overall aims and outcomes, to date, of the Longitudinal Study. It also explains the focus of this report, why it

³ The school questionnaire was completed by a variety of different respondents in schools, including headteachers, deputy and assistant headteachers, citizenship coordinators and other school leaders and managers. For the purpose of this report, all respondents to the school questionnaires are referred to throughout as 'school leaders'.

was chosen and how it impacts on the report structure. This provides important background context in considering the findings and their implications for the development of citizenship education in schools and communities.

1.2 The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Aims and Outcomes

With citizenship education having moved rapidly from a policy proposal to a real curriculum subject in schools there is a need to identify, measure and evaluate the extent to which ‘effective practice’ in citizenship education develops so that such practice can be promoted more widely. Accordingly, the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) has commissioned the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) to undertake a Longitudinal Study in citizenship education over eight years from 2001 to 2009. This is tracking a cohort of young people who entered secondary school in September 2002 and are the first students to have a continuous statutory entitlement to citizenship education. Indeed, it is this cohort who participated in the first longitudinal survey.

The overarching aim of the Longitudinal Study is to:

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

The Study also has a number of subsidiary aims and objectives which amongst others include:

- ♦ identification of the main ‘types’ of citizenship education being provided nationally and the factors which affect such developments.
- ♦ assessment of the advantages and disadvantages of different types of citizenship education provision on student outcomes.
- ♦ examination of what school, teacher and student effects have a significant impact on student outcomes.
- ♦ examination of how ‘types’ of citizenship education change over time and are adapted as experience accrues in schools.
- ♦ assessment of the impact of citizenship education on students’ knowledge, skills and attitudes over time.
- ♦ gauging of student, teacher and school-leader views on citizenship education and the establishment of the degree of congruence, or lack of it, between school, teacher and student views on citizenship education
- ♦ creation of an informed evidence-based discussion of potential changes for the delivery of citizenship education to improve its effectiveness.

These aims and objectives have shaped the research design and conduct of the Longitudinal Study, including the design, conduct and reporting of the first longitudinal survey and school case study visits.

This report must also be seen in the context of the outcomes and findings to date, of the Longitudinal Study namely:

- ◆ initial exploratory literature review (Kerr and Cleaver, 2002)
- ◆ first cross-sectional survey report (Kerr *et al.*, 2003a)
- ◆ first annual literature review (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004)
- ◆ exploratory analysis of data from the first school case study visits (Kerr *et al.*, 2003b)

The focus and structure of this report have been influenced by these outcomes and findings and seek to build on them. Where appropriate throughout this report, comparisons are made with the findings from the first cross-sectional survey.

1.3 Focus of the Report

Given the size of the first longitudinal survey dataset and the scale of the aims and objectives of the Longitudinal Study there were a number of potential foci for this report. These included, among others, a concentration on student outcomes, or on the effects of teaching and learning approaches or on the establishment of the degree of congruence, or lack of it, between school, teacher and student views on citizenship education. However, in the end, the research team took the decision to focus this report on addressing two key questions:

- ◆ What ‘types’ of citizenship education are being provided nationally in schools?
- ◆ What factors have influenced the development of these ‘types’ of citizenship education?

The decision to focus on these two key questions was taken for a number of reasons. First, these two questions are drawn from the original research aims and objectives set for the Longitudinal Study. Providing answers to them at this stage of the citizenship education initiative creates the foundation to address a number of related aims and objectives in future years. Second, these two questions represent an area of focus that is highly topical and has been occupying the attention and efforts of a number of audiences, including policy-makers, practitioners, researchers and commentators. The focus also dovetails with and has the potential to extend the findings from other citizenship education studies and research. Therefore, the findings are likely to be of interest and value to a wide range of people with an interest in citizenship education in schools and communities.

Third, it builds naturally on the outcomes and findings already produced by the Longitudinal Study, in particular the findings from the first cross-sectional report and first school case-study visits (Kerr *et al.*, 2003a and b) and first annual literature review (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004). Fourth, given the size of the dataset, the use of these key questions provides a way of making the interrogation and analysis of that dataset more focused and manageable. It is not possible to report on all the data collected in each year of the Longitudinal Study. Instead there is a need to narrow the focus from one year to the next. This does not mean that the data collected from the first longitudinal survey will be discarded but rather it will be revisited in later years and included in future annual reports. This is the case, for example, with the data on student outcomes collected in 2002-3, which will be followed up at a later date. Finally, the use of key questions makes for a clearer report structure and sharper, more incisive findings, conclusions and recommendations.

1.4 Structure of the Report

The structure of the report has been determined by the efforts of the research team to provide answers the two key questions set out in Section 1.3 above, namely:

- ♦ What ‘types’ of citizenship education are being provided nationally in schools?
- ♦ What factors have influenced the development of these ‘types’ of citizenship education?

Recognising that citizenship education has:

- ♦ **two dimensions**: learning through the formal and informal curriculum and learning through experience: the active experience of participation in the school and wider community beyond.

Which are translated into:

- ♦ **three components** in schools: citizenship education in the curriculum; citizenship education in the school as a community; and citizenship education in the wider community.

The report is based around three central analysis chapters. Each of these chapters focuses on one of the three components of citizenship education as follows:

- ♦ citizenship education in the curriculum (Chapter 4)
- ♦ learning about citizenship through participation and belonging in the school community (Chapter 5)
- ♦ learning about citizenship through participation and belonging in the wider community (Chapter 6)

Before these analysis chapters however, and following this introductory chapter, the research methodology and the profiles of the schools, teachers and students involved in the first longitudinal survey and case studies are outlined in Chapters 2 and 3. Chapter 2 provides a brief account of the four interrelated components of the Longitudinal Study: the cross-sectional and longitudinal surveys, the school case studies and the on-going literature review. It also details the methodology of the first longitudinal survey and the nine case study schools looking at the questionnaire design, the sample and analysis of the survey and case studies. Chapter 3 provides detailed background information about the schools, teachers and students who participated in the first cross-sectional survey and the case studies. This profile of respondents helps to contextualise and enrich the findings in the other chapters of this report.

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 are each divided into two sections, looking firstly at how the particular component of citizenship education has been implemented within the schools involved in the survey, with more detailed examples from the case studies, and secondly, at what factors have influenced its development at these different levels, again with examples from the case studies. Chapter 4 discusses the way in which citizenship education was being taught through the formal curriculum, examining different delivery approaches, assessment, staff training and confidence. It also looks at some of the initial outcomes of the different approaches taken by schools. In Chapter 5, citizenship education in the school community and active citizenship within schools is explored, looking at democracy and opportunities for students to participate in the organisation and running of their school. The chapter also examines the availability of extra-curricular activities, and the extent to which students feel a sense of belonging to the school community. Chapter 6 focuses on the way in which schools have approached active citizenship within a wider context and looks at opportunities provided by schools for students to interact with their local communities. It also considers the extent to which students feel a sense of belonging to and trust in their local communities.

The remaining two chapters focus on pulling together the outcomes from the three central analysis chapters (Chapters 4, 5 and 6), particularly in relation to the factors identified, in an attempt to answer the two key questions which are the focus of the report. Chapter 7 draws on the factors to present a typology of schools, identifying four different school approaches to citizenship education in the survey schools: *Progressing* citizenship schools, *Focused* citizenship schools, *Minimalist* citizenship schools and *Implicit* citizenship schools. It also highlights the factors that differentiated the school approaches, such as teaching and learning methods and links with the wider community. Finally, Chapter 8, seeks to draw together the findings and factors discussed in the preceding chapters in an attempt to answer the two key questions. It concludes with a discussion of the key messages and action points that the report findings present for the different audiences involved in developing citizenship education, for policy-makers, school leaders, citizenship coordinators and teachers, young people and researchers. Each of the main chapters is prefaced by a summary of the key points raised in that chapter in order to assist the reader.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 Research design of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

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

- ♦ **Four cross-sectional surveys of students, schools and teachers.** The first survey took place in March 2002, and future surveys will be undertaken in school years 2003-4, 2005-6 and 2007-8. The student survey is sent to one tutor group in either Year 8, Year 10 or Year 12 in each participating school or college, together with questionnaires for teachers and school and college leaders. These surveys, based on representative national samples of 250 schools and 50 colleges, will yield a wide range of factual and attitudinal student data, as well as information about developments in citizenship education through the coming years.
- ♦ **A longitudinal survey of a cohort of students** in a representative sample of 100 schools, tracking the whole Year 7 group in 2002-3, through Years 9 and 11 and 13 (or equivalent when they are aged 18). School leaders and teachers are also asked to complete questionnaires each year up to Year 11 so that links can be made between students' experiences, skills, knowledge and attitudes and school characteristics and processes. These surveys will track the way that a particular cohort of students' attitudes and knowledge change over the period of eight years from the beginning of compulsory citizenship education, and at each stage may be contextualised by data obtained in the cross-sectional survey.
- ♦ **Twenty longitudinal school case studies**, in ten schools drawn from the first cross-sectional sample and ten from the longitudinal sample of schools, each to be visited once every two years over the duration of the study. School visits include in-depth interviews with key personnel and student discussion groups, which provide an opportunity for detailed examination of the delivery approaches being used to implement citizenship education in a range of different contexts, their impact on students, and how these evolve over time. The case studies also allow in-depth exploration with senior managers, teachers and students of questions raised by the survey evidence, and emerging issues and topics of interest to policy and practice.
- ♦ **An ongoing literature review:** an initial exploratory scrutiny of key literature on policy and practice in citizenship education and political socialisation was undertaken in 2002 to inform questionnaire design and the study's analytical framework, and the first annual literature review in 2003 focused on *Citizenship education one year on: emerging definitions and approaches*. The literature review will be extended and updated each year for the duration of the project.

The first longitudinal survey

The longitudinal element of the Longitudinal Study will follow a cohort of students from their entry to secondary education in Year 7 through Year 9, Year 11 and on to the post-16 stage. The first wave of this longitudinal survey took place in November 2002, towards the end of the students' first term in Year 7, in the first academic year in which citizenship education became a statutory subject in secondary schools. Questionnaires were sent for completion by all Year 7 students in a nationally representative sample of 112 schools in England, and each school was also sent questionnaires to be completed by the headteacher or deputy, and by up to five teachers involved with the delivery of citizenship education, or citizenship-related topics.

This first longitudinal survey was timed to give a very early measure of how schools were planning and delivering citizenship education as a statutory subject. In the first cross-sectional survey (Kerr *et al*, 2003a), conducted in March 2002, school leaders indicated that they were already delivering at least part of the requirements for citizenship education before it became compulsory, and two thirds at that stage already had an agreed strategy for teaching citizenship. While many schools were therefore building on existing work related to citizenship education, in September 2002 many were also implementing new structures and new schemes of work, often with new staffing in this area. The survey thus identifies the new structures and plans, or the planning process still taking place, for citizenship education as a new formal curriculum subject. Where appropriate throughout this report, comparisons with the findings from the first cross-sectional survey are made.

From the students' perspective, the survey came very early in their secondary school careers, and they had had relatively little time to become aware of how citizenship was being taught in their new schools. Some of their experiences of citizenship teaching or activities, and more generally of school life and extra curricular activities, may therefore relate to their final year at primary school as well as their first couple of months at secondary school. As a relatively young cohort their understanding of issues and their attitudes will also be less sophisticated than those of older students.

Case studies

This report also includes results from in-depth exploration and discussion in nine case study schools which had taken part in the first cross-sectional survey. This qualitative work took place during the spring and early summer terms of 2003, in the same academic year as the longitudinal survey, and also examined citizenship as a newly established subject. Schools were selected to ensure a spread in terms of geographical areas and characteristics, and also to represent a range of approaches to citizenship education. These case studies provided an opportunity to explore the factors and reasons behind the key findings from the first cross-sectional survey (Kerr *et al*, 2003a), and to provide baseline information in the first of a series of visits in alternate years to look at developments over time, complementing the quantitative surveys. Interviews were held with school leaders, citizenship coordinators and

teachers, and discussion groups were conducted with students in different year groups.

A tenth case study school was selected, but ultimately it proved impossible to arrange a visit within the survey period because of a major reorganisation of the school structure within the Local Education Authority.

2.2 Questionnaires

The questionnaires for the 2002 longitudinal survey were designed by the research team at NFER in collaboration with the Longitudinal Study's consultants, Professors Paul Whiteley (University of Essex) and Pat Seyd (University of Sheffield), and were closely based on those used in the first cross-sectional study. The initial questionnaires drew on previous NFER surveys including the IEA Citizenship Education Study⁴ (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002), and on questions used in established surveys in the field of political science, notably the British Election Survey (University of Essex, 2001).

Experience from the first cross-sectional survey suggested some amendments and improvements, and a pilot of the revised instruments in a secondary school demonstrated that these worked successfully, though some students did not manage to complete all of the questions within the time limit. However, given the longitudinal nature of the Longitudinal Study, the decision was taken to retain all the questions. This decision was vindicated in that the majority of Year 7 students who participated in the first longitudinal survey finished the questionnaire although for some questions towards the end the non-response rose to around a quarter. Student questionnaires were completed under supervision in school lessons.

Each school was sent a set of questionnaires for all students in Year 7, five questionnaires for teachers including the citizenship coordinator, and one for the headteacher or deputy (referred to throughout the report as 'school leaders').

2.3 Sample

A random sample of 240 schools with at least 20 students in Year 7 was drawn from the NFER register of schools in England, stratified by school size and region. A letter was sent to sampled schools in June 2002, inviting them to take part in the longitudinal survey. With reminders, where necessary, a total of 125 schools finally agreed to take part in the survey, and of these, 112 returned completed questionnaires (90 per cent).

⁴ The IEA study is known internationally as the Civic Education or CivEd Study. The title was changed in England to the Citizenship Education Study because of the on-going, policy initiative in Citizenship and to avoid any confusion between the terms civic and citizenship education. It was felt the change in title would make it easier for the young people, teachers and headteachers in England who participated to understand the study's aims and purposes.

Questionnaires were sent in early November 2002, and schools were asked to complete them within a two week period. Although most schools complied with this request, a small number asked to have this period extended, and questionnaires were received at NFER up to mid-February 2003.

Overall, 112 schools took part in the longitudinal survey. All schools returned students' questionnaires, but some did not include school leader or teacher questionnaires. The table below shows the types and percentages of questionnaires returned.

Table 2.1

<i>Types of questionnaire</i>	Number of schools	Percentage
Student, school leader and teacher	80	71
Student and teacher	21	19
Student and school leader	4	4
Student only	8	7
Total	112	100

There was some non-response to the survey at two stages: not all schools initially selected participated in the survey; and not all schools returned school leader or teacher questionnaires. With any survey non-response, it is possible that the achieved sample will contain some bias because those not participating are different in some way from those who participated. In this survey, a careful analysis of the achieved sample of schools indicates that this sample is very closely representative of the population of eligible secondary schools in England (see Chapter 3), and it is therefore unlikely that there is any significant non-response bias at this level. There are no similar objective measures against which to assess non-response among school leaders and teachers; however, since responses were received from the large majority of schools, it is likely that the survey response reported here is broadly representative.

A total of 18,583 student questionnaires were completed, together with 84 school leader questionnaires and 387 teacher questionnaires. This represents an average of 3.8 teacher questionnaires in schools where any teacher questionnaires were returned. Chapter 3 provides a more detailed profile of the survey respondents.

2.4 Analysis

Tables of basic frequencies were produced for each question in the student, teacher and school leader questionnaires, and it is these data that provide an initial outline of the survey findings. With such a large sample, and extensive questionnaires producing a very large and detailed data set, it is also important to summarise the data, and to establish relationships between variables, as well as to compare congruence of views between schools, teachers and students. Accordingly, a number of factor analyses have been performed to identify the

underlying structure of the data, and a cluster analysis was carried out to provide groupings of schools with similar approaches to citizenship education. The factors and clusters are described briefly in this report, primarily in Chapters 3 and 7, and a more detailed report on the multivariate analyses is also available from NFER in a separate technical paper.

The in-depth information obtained from the visits to the nine case study schools provides a wealth of detail to illuminate and expand the quantitative data. This information does not attempt to provide statistically significant results, but rather to give qualitative illustrations of how different schools have approached citizenship education in different contexts. All the interviews and discussions were tape recorded, and detailed notes from these recordings have been coded using a qualitative analysis programme, MaxQDA. All tape recordings have been archived to allow potential future analyses.

2.5 Summary

The first longitudinal survey on was conducted in November 2002 among a cohort of Year 7 students in the first year that citizenship education became a statutory subject in secondary schools. This cohort will be re-interviewed when the students are in Year 9, Year 11 and Year 13 (or equivalent).

Questionnaires

Questionnaires were designed for students, teachers and school leaders, based on the initial instruments used in the first cross-sectional survey, with minor amendments and improvements.

Sample

Schools were selected using a stratified random sample and initially invited to participate in the survey in June 2002. A total of 125 schools agreed to take part, 112 of which returned completed questionnaires between November 2002 and February 2003. A total of 18,583 student questionnaires, 387 teacher questionnaires and 84 school leader questionnaires were completed. Almost three-quarters (71 per cent) of participating schools returned questionnaires for each of the respondent groups.

Analysis

Basic frequency tables of responses for each question were created. Further analysis to investigate relationships between data variables was conducted, using factor and cluster analyses. The quantitative analyses are complemented and illustrated by qualitative findings from the visits to the nine case study schools.

3. PROFILES OF SCHOOLS, SCHOOL LEADERS, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Key points

- ◆ This chapter establishes the characteristics of the schools, teachers and students that took part in the first longitudinal survey, to provide a context within which to interpret the findings described in this report.
- ◆ Comparison of the 112 longitudinal survey schools with all maintained secondary schools in England, shows that the survey schools are closely representative of the national population.
- ◆ Nine case study schools were selected to ensure a spread of different regions and characteristics, including a range of approaches to citizenship education. Detailed information from the case studies helps to illuminate and explore, in more depth, the factors and issues emerging from the quantitative surveys.
- ◆ School leader questionnaires were most likely to be answered by deputy heads, and school leaders had an average of 25 years teaching experience. Most respondents to the teacher questionnaire were women, and one sixth were citizenship education coordinators; teachers averaged seven years' teaching experience.
- ◆ In terms of civic participation, school leaders and teachers were most frequently members of cultural organisations and sports clubs and gyms. School leaders were also frequently members of youth and neighbourhood organisations. Many school leaders and teachers felt that they were too busy to volunteer for activities in and out of school. Most felt that politics was important, whilst nearly all school leaders and teachers intended to vote in future elections.
- ◆ Students who took part in the first longitudinal survey, were equally split in terms of gender, and most identified themselves as White British. Nearly one-third of students intended to go to university, whilst a similar proportion was not sure what they would do in the future.
- ◆ Most students reported watching between one and two hours of television and listening to less than an hour of radio each day. Television was the main way in which students found out about current affairs, with nearly two-fifths reporting that they often watched news on television. Over half the students trusted the information they got from TV, while most expressed a lack of trust in the reliability of newspapers.
- ◆ In response to the question "What does citizenship mean to you?" these Year 7 students most frequently responded that it was related to caring for and respecting or helping other people.
- ◆ A range of factor analyses, which are used throughout the report, are described in this chapter. They relate to school leaders' and teachers' views of their school, their attitudes towards citizenship education and

familiarity with key documents, and their own civic and political participation.

- ◆ Factor analyses from the students' responses were also developed, in relation to students' perceptions of school and political efficacy, group membership and trust, media exposure, attitudes towards social issues, and attitudes towards politics and volunteering.

3.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the background of the schools that participated in the first longitudinal survey, and establishes the characteristics of this sample of schools. They are the school sample which provides the cohort of Year 7 students that will be tracked by the Longitudinal Study from Year 7 through to the post-16 stage. There is also a description of the nine case study schools, drawn from the sample of schools that participated in the first cross-sectional survey (Kerr *et al*, 2003a).

Profile information was gathered for school leaders, teachers and students. The analytical framework (see Appendix 1) for the Longitudinal Study recognises that young people's attitudes and behaviour are influenced by the contexts in which they live, including their personal and home background, the school they attend, and the background of their teachers. This background information provides an important context in which to interpret the findings from this first wave of the Longitudinal Study.

This chapter also looks at a number of factor analyses⁵ which have been carried out in order to summarise much of the attitudinal data and identify underlying aspects and trends. This analytical process resulted in the identification of a set of composite variables (or factors) which are referred to throughout this report. At a school level, these factors can contribute important measures of aspects such as school ethos and democracy, views on the impact of citizenship education, and teacher knowledge and understanding. They include some measures of teachers' personal interest and involvement in politics and active citizenship. At a student level, the factors contribute to the exploration of a number of explanatory models and theoretical frameworks developed by educationalists and political scientists to explain political socialisation and political behaviour. These models and frameworks (described in Appendix 1) are based on adult behaviour. It is intended that the Longitudinal Study will explore, as it progresses, how far these adult models are applicable to young people, and the extent of the contribution of citizenship education to the development of young peoples' civic and political knowledge, attitudes and behaviours.

⁵ **Factor analysis** is a technique which is widely used in dealing with large numbers of measurements made on different individuals or objects, when many of the measurements may be strongly correlated with each other. In factor analysis researchers attempt to define a smaller set of underlying factors which are related to the variables measured, and which explain or represent most of the correlation structure of the data.

3.2 School Profiles

3.2.1 Longitudinal survey schools

A representative sample of 240 maintained secondary schools in England was selected for this first longitudinal survey, and questionnaires were returned from a total of 112 schools. Table 3.1 compares the characteristics of the schools which provided data with the national profile of maintained secondary schools, and confirms that the sample is closely representative of the national school population.

The sample covers a spread of geographical regions, types of school and level of achievement at GCSE. There are only minor variations from the national pattern within the sample with:

- ♦ slightly more schools in the south, and slightly fewer in the north;
- ♦ slightly fewer comprehensive schools up to the age of 18, and slightly more ‘other’ schools (not grammar or comprehensive schools)
- ♦ slightly more in the lowest band for achievement at GCSE, and slightly fewer in the highest two bands.

In terms of proportions of students with English as an Additional Language (EAL), those eligible for free school meals (FSM), and ethnic background there is a very close match between the sample and the national profile. Proportions of schools with specialist or beacon status are also similar.

Table 3.1 Comparison of longitudinal sample of schools with the school population

	Longitudinal sample of schools		All Schools in population
	Number	%	%
Region			
North	28	25	29
Midlands	36	32	33
South	48	43	38
Secondary School type			
Comprehensive to 16	46	41	39
Comprehensive to 18	47	42	50
Grammar	3	3	5
Other secondary schools	16	14	6
Achievement of 5+ A*-C GCSEs (5 bands)*			
Lowest band	29	27	22
Second lowest band	25	23	21
Middle band	22	20	20
Second highest band	19	17	20
Highest band	14	13	16
Proportion of EAL students*			
None	36	33	34
1-5%	46	42	40
6-49%	22	20	20
50%+	5	5	5
Eligibility for FSM 2001 (5 bands)			
Lowest band	8	7	6
Second lowest band	26	23	23
Middle band	21	19	27
Second highest band	32	29	24
Highest band	25	22	19
Ethnic group White UK* (5 bands)			
Lowest band	29	26	26
Second lowest band	29	26	22
Middle band	21	19	18
Second highest band	19	17	21
Highest band	14	13	13
Ethnic group Black* (4 bands)			
Lowest band	18	16	15
Second lowest band	31	28	27
Second highest band	35	31	31
Highest band	28	25	27
Ethnic group Asian* (4 bands)			
Lowest band	13	12	15
Second lowest band	26	23	22
Second highest band	39	35	31
Highest band	34	30	31
Specialist status	31	28	32
Beacon school	10	9	10
Faith school	15	13	16
N	112	100%	100%

* There are three schools for which no information is available on Achievement of 5+ A*-C GCSEs, or proportion of EAL students. The percentages for the school sample in these categories is therefore based on 109 schools rather than 112 schools.

3.2.2 Case study schools

In-depth case study investigations took place in nine schools selected from the first cross-sectional sample of schools. These case studies represented a variety of school characteristics, and a range of approaches to, and levels of progress and success in relation to citizenship education.

Two schools were in the North, three in the Midlands, and four in the South of the country. All but one were comprehensive schools, and all had students up to 18, though two were linked to middle schools and entry was at 13 or 14. Four schools were large, with over 1,500 students, four had rolls of between 1,000 and 1,200, while the final school had fewer than 1,000 students. One was a single sex (girls') school, while the remainder were mixed; and two were faith schools.

None of the schools were in areas of severe social deprivation or high ethnic minority populations. In terms of eligibility for free school meals, all schools had relatively low proportions in this category, with the highest proportion being between 10 and 12 per cent in three schools. Similarly most of the schools had between zero and three per cent of students with English as an Additional Language, though one school had 12 per cent of students.

Three schools had achieved specialist status, and a further one was a Beacon school. There was a range of achievement in terms of achieving 5+ A* to C grades at GCSE. Three schools, including the selective school, had scores very much higher than the national average on this measure, four were at or slightly above the national average, while two were below the average, one considerably so. A further measure available is the proportion of lessons rated 'very good' or better in the school's most recent OFSTED report (the date of which varied among the schools). In most of the schools, around one third of teaching was rated as 'very good' or better, while in the selective school this rose to almost half. At the other end of the spectrum, in three schools only between 12 to 14 per cent of lessons achieved this rating. These included the two schools with below average GCSE scores.

The selection process was successful in uncovering a range of approaches to citizenship education across the nine schools. Indeed, as the findings in this report demonstrate, there was considerable variety, in terms of practices, experiences and opinions about citizenship education, across the schools.

3.3 Profiles of School Leaders and Teachers

Headteachers accounted for just under a quarter of the 84 school leaders who responded to the survey, while Deputy Heads accounted for around half, and Assistant Heads the remainder. Two thirds of these senior staff were male, and all were experienced, with an average of 25 years in teaching (up to a maximum of 35 years), and an average of six years in their current post (ranging from someone just appointed to a maximum of 24 years in post).

Questionnaires were completed by up to five teachers in each school who taught citizenship education or related subjects. On average they had been in post for seven years, and in teaching for 15 years, though there were some at the start of their careers with less than a year in teaching, and some with very long experience: up to 32 years in post, and up to 40 years in teaching altogether. Female teachers outnumbered their male colleagues by two to one.

Teachers were asked about the main subjects they taught, and a number of teachers gave more than one main subject, with PSHE (Personal, Social and Health Education) (38 per cent of responses) the most frequently mentioned. One in five gave citizenship as their main subject, while around one in six taught RE (religious education), history, geography or English. Science, maths and PE (physical education) were prominent among other subjects mentioned.

The pattern of main subject specialisms is very similar to that found in the first cross-sectional survey (Kerr *et al*, 2003a), with the exception of citizenship which was rarely mentioned as a specialisation before its introduction as a statutory subject. In most cases, teachers have added citizenship to the other main subject(s) they teach, with PSHE and citizenship (sometimes with other subjects) the most common combination.

3.3.1 Teaching and learning approaches

Teachers were asked about their teaching and learning approaches, and about the kinds of resources they used when planning citizenship education topics, and a factor analysis revealed three composite variables.

Teaching and learning approaches

Factor	Teachers
Active student involvement in class	High scores reflect involvement of the students in lessons e.g. role-plays and debates; discussion of teaching and learning.
Traditional teaching and learning approaches	High scores denote frequent use of traditional teaching and learning strategies e.g. students take notes, listen while the teacher talks, work from textbooks.
Resources for planning citizenship education	High scores indicate frequent use of a variety of sources in planning citizenship-related topics

There were only slight associations between the extent to which teachers encouraged active student participation in class, used more traditional teaching methods, and used a range of resources for citizenship topics. Teaching and learning approaches are addressed throughout the report.

3.3.2 School ethos and democracy

School leaders and teachers were both asked about various aspects of their schools in terms of positive attitudes and relationships among students, staff, parents and the community. They were also asked about the extent to which students participate in the running of the school. Factor analyses were carried

out using a range of attitudinal statements, and helped to identify composite variables relating to a positive school ethos, and to democracy in the school. Similar factors emerged for school leaders and teachers; whereas for school leaders there were separate factors relating to positive ethos and good relationships, these were combined for teachers. The same elements contributed to the factor relating to democracy for both groups. These factors are described briefly below, and are discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

School ethos and democracy

Factor	School leaders	Teachers
Positive ethos	High scores indicate positive attitudes from students and parents about school issues and positive interactions between teachers and students.	High scores correspond to perceptions of positive student attitudes towards school and good relationships within the school and between the school, parents and the community.
Good relationships	High scores indicate the existence of good relationships between the school and the wider community and between staff and students.	
Democracy in school	High scores indicate that the whole school, and students in particular, are involved in the running of the school, and students have a voice in how to work in lessons.	High scores indicate that the whole school, and students in particular, are involved in the running of the school, and students have a voice in how to work in lessons.

3.3.3 Involvement in citizenship education

One in six teachers reported that they were the citizenship coordinator in their school, and a similar proportion that they were the PSHE coordinator (16 per cent and 18 per cent respectively). The single most common teaching approach was through citizenship-related modules or topics in PSHE, mentioned by just over half the teachers, while a quarter said they taught citizenship in a dedicated slot on the timetable. A number of teachers stated that they taught citizenship topics more generally in other subjects, the main ones being RE, history, science and English, as would be expected from the teachers' main subject specialisms. Citizenship through tutorials, and within extra-curricular activities or one off events, were each mentioned by around one in five teachers.

There has been a significant increase in the proportion of teachers reporting citizenship being taught through a dedicated timetable slot, from 9 per cent in the first cross-sectional survey (Kerr *et al.*, 2003a and b) to 26 per cent in this first longitudinal survey. This clearly reflects a change in approach in some schools, since citizenship education became compulsory in September 2002. Apart from this change, however, teachers' involvement in the delivery of citizenship education is very similar to that reported in the first cross-sectional survey.

Both teachers and school leaders were asked about their familiarity with some of the major citizenship education documents, and teachers were also asked

about their understanding of issues relating to the introduction of citizenship education as a statutory requirement, and their confidence in teaching citizenship topics. Among teachers, two factors emerged, one relating to understanding of the purpose of citizenship and its implementation as well as familiarity with key documents; and a second factor relating to the confidence teachers felt in covering a range of citizenship topics.

Citizenship knowledge

Factor	Teachers
Familiarity with citizenship curriculum and key documents	High scores denote familiarity with or understanding of citizenship education issues such as its aims, purposes and implementation, and with the contents of key documents.
Confidence in teaching topic areas	High scores indicate confidence regarding teaching citizenship topics.

It is interesting to note that there was only a slight association between teachers' confidence in teaching citizenship related topics and the extent to which they felt that they understood about the statutory introduction of citizenship education and were familiar with some of the important documentation.

For school leaders, a factor analysis identified a distinction between curriculum and teaching related documents and those relating to policy, assessment and inspection. Not all school leaders were equally familiar with each category of document.

Familiarity with key documents

Factor	School leaders
Teaching and learning-related documents	High scores denote self-reported familiarity with documents such as the National Curriculum Order and QCA Schemes of Work.
Policy, assessment and inspection documents	High scores indicate self-reported familiarity with documents such as Education for Citizenship (The 'Crick' Report) and the QCA assessment guidance.

The levels of school leaders' and teachers' knowledge of citizenship, and teachers' confidence in teaching citizenship related topics are discussed in Chapter 4.

3.3.4 The impact of citizenship education

Attitudes to the importance of citizenship education, and expectations of the impact of its introduction as a statutory subject were assessed among both school leaders and teachers. Similar themes emerged from this analysis for both groups, but three underlying factors were identified for school leaders, whereas these were combined in two strands for the teachers.

Impact of citizenship education

Factor	School leaders	Teachers
Positive impact of citizenship education	High scores reflect the belief that citizenship education will have a positive impact on students' confidence and behaviour (including participation in school and community activities) as well as on the school's relationship with the wider community.	High scores reflect the belief that citizenship education will have a positive impact on students' confidence and behaviour (including participation in school and community activities) as well as on the school's relationship with the wider community; and will encourage students to participate in future elections.
Political impact	High scores denote the belief that citizenship education is important for the country and will affect students' civic and political development and behaviour, as well as the degree to which students will be consulted in the developing policies which affect them.	High scores correspond to the belief that teaching citizenship education in school is important for the country and will affect students' civic and political development; and disagreement that citizenship can best be learned outside school.
Irrelevance of citizenship education	High scores reflect the belief that citizenship can best be learned outside school.	

Among school leaders, there is a distinction between a belief in the positive impact of citizenship education in terms of such aspects as student behaviour, confidence and participation in school activities, and the political impact both generally, and on students' political and civic development and their future propensity to vote in elections. A third strand emerged for school leaders, representing the view that 'the best place to learn about citizenship is outside the school in the wider community' and that schools are 'irrelevant for the development of students' attitudes and opinions concerning citizenship'. (Very few school leaders agreed that schools were irrelevant for citizenship; and though very few strongly agreed that it could best be learned outside school, around a quarter expressed some agreement with this.)

Teachers' views on these issues fell into two rather than three factors, though there are strong similarities with the school leaders. The teachers' factor relating to positive impact encompasses some elements of political involvement (students' likelihood of voting in the future, consultation with students on policies affecting them) which are separately identified in the political impact factor for school leaders. There is no separate factor relating to the irrelevance of citizenship in the school context, though disagreement with this idea is encompassed within the factor relating to political importance. Views on the impact of citizenship are considered in Chapters 5 and 6.

3.3.5 Civic participation

School leaders and teachers were asked about their involvement in political and voluntary activities, so as to give an indication of the personal perspective from which they approach citizenship and citizenship education. When asked about a range of organisations, just over half mentioned membership of a trade

union or teachers' organisation, though many fewer reported active involvement. Participation was most frequently mentioned for cultural, musical or theatrical organisations, and sports clubs or gyms, while school leaders were also likely to cite involvement in youth organisations and residents or neighbourhood organisations.

Views on volunteering were very similar among school leaders and teachers, with only around one in five agreeing that they are too busy to volunteer for activities in school, but twice as many agreeing they are too busy for voluntary activities outside school. Over three quarters agreed with the statement 'politics has an impact on everything we do', and a large proportion claimed to be very interested in politics (56 per cent of school leaders, and 43 per cent of teachers respectively).

Perceptions of what constitutes 'a good adult citizen' were very similar among school leaders and teachers.⁶ Almost all agreed that a good citizen would obey the law, and more than three quarters that they should participate in activities to benefit the community. Slightly lower proportions (around two thirds) felt that a good citizen's duties would include following political issues in the media, writing to MPs, or at a more prosaic level, picking up litter. Very few considered that joining a political party or supporting a football club were part of a citizen's duty

A question on future intentions indicated that virtually all expected to vote in future general and local elections, though the proportion 'definitely' as apposed to 'probably' intending to do this is higher for general elections, as Table 3.2 below shows. Reflecting the 'good citizen' duties outlined above, few expected to join a political party or become involved in local politics, while around three quarters at least 'probably' expected to volunteer time to help others, and to collect money for a good cause.

Table 3.2 Political participation: future intentions

In the future will...	School leaders		Teachers	
	Probably %	Definitely %	Probably %	Definitely %
Vote in general elections	8	89	10	88
Vote in local elections	20	73	20	72
Collect money for a good cause	33	38	39	38
Volunteer time to help other people	42	32	42	30
Join a political party	5	10	7	3
Get involved in local politics	6	4	7	2

N=84 School leaders

N=387 Teachers

Base: All School Leaders; All Teachers

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

⁶ See Table 1, Appendix 2: Duties of adult citizens.

In terms of potential future protest activity if confronted by something they thought was wrong,⁷ around two thirds thought they might contact their MP, and almost half would contact a newspaper; fewer would take part in a peaceful rally or a radio phone-in programme, while only a small minority would consider more radical forms of action.

Teachers' attitudes on these issues have been combined in a factor analysis which identifies six composite variables relating to political participation and group membership. These factors are as follows:

Political participation

Factor	Teachers
Political interest and engagement	High scores indicate interest in politics and in being politically active.
Duties of adult citizens	High scores correspond to views that adult citizens have political and associative duties (e.g. joining a football club), as well as duties towards the community (e.g. picking up litter).
Propensity to conventional participation	High scores denote the intention of participating in public life in the future by non-violent means (e.g. contacting a newspaper or an MP) if "confronted by something I thought was wrong".
Propensity to radical political participation	High scores denote probability of taking part in more radical and violent forms of protest and disagreeing that a good citizen obeys the law.
Future voting intention	High scores indicate intention to vote in general and local elections.
Predisposition to volunteering	High scores correspond to not feeling too busy to volunteer for activities in and outside of school and actually intending to volunteer.

While school leaders were asked the same series of questions on these issues, the small numbers of school leaders participating in the survey meant that a separate factor analysis was not possible in this case, and the same factors have been applied for school leaders and teachers.

3.4 Student Profiles

A total of 18,583 students in Year 7 completed questionnaires in this first wave of the longitudinal survey. They were equally split between boys (49 per cent) and girls (51 per cent), and the majority identified themselves as White British (73 per cent). Among the remainder, one in six regarded themselves as belonging to other ethnic groups: seven per cent as Asian or British Asian, four per cent as White European, and three per cent as Black or Black British, two per cent from mixed ethnic origin, and fewer than one per cent Chinese. One per cent said they were from other ethnic groups, while four per cent preferred not to say, and six per cent did not answer or ticked more than one box.

Previous studies relating to citizenship education have shown that students' social and socio-economic background can influence their development of

⁷ See Table 2, Appendix 2: Potential protest activity.

civic knowledge, with those from less affluent homes and from families with less access to education are likely to have lower levels of civic knowledge. (IEA Citizenship Education Study, Torney-Purta *et al*, 2001; Kerr *et al*, 2002). A number of theoretical frameworks explaining adult political behaviour can be explored through examination of the student data, and some of the analyses described in this section relate to these specific models. A brief outline of these models and frameworks is provided in Appendix 1. In particular, students' socio-economic characteristics contribute to understanding of the *Cognitive Engagement* model. For adults, this shows that the higher the level of political information that individuals are exposed to, the more likely they are to take an interest in politics; furthermore, the better-educated people are, the more likely they are to have access to political information, to develop political opinions and participate in political life.

A number of indicators of socio-economic status were measured, including the number of books in the home. This has been shown to be a predictor of affluence, as well as giving an indication of the emphasis and value that families place on education (see for example Beaton *et al*, 1996), and studies have also shown a relationship between access to books in the home and civic knowledge (Torney-Purta *et al*, 1975 and 2001; Kerr *et al*, 2002).

Table 3.3 shows the responses to the question on the number of books in the home, and reveals that as in the first cross-sectional survey, almost all students reported having at least some books in the home. Almost two fifths said that they had 100 or more books at home, while just under a quarter said that they had 51 to 100 books, or 11 to 50 books. One in ten thought that there were very few (under 10) books at home.

Table 3.3 Home literacy resources

About how many books are there in your home?	Students %
None	2
Very few (1-10 books)	10
Enough to fill one shelf (11-50 books)	22
Enough to fill one bookcase (51-100 books)	23
Enough to fill two bookcases (101-200 books)	18
Enough to fill three or more bookcases (more than 200 books)	20
N = 18,583	

Base: All Students

A single response item; due to rounding percentages may not sum to 100; there was 4% non response to this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

3.4.1 Educational variables

Previous studies of citizenship education (including Torney *et al.*, 1975 and 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002) suggest that students from well-educated families (i.e.

those where parents achieved higher levels of education) appear to be given more opportunities to develop civic-related knowledge than students from less educated families (i.e. those where parents achieved lowest levels of education). Well-educated people have been found to have a more developed sense of *political efficacy* (the feeling that what they do through participation in civic and political life will make a difference) and are more likely to support a particular political party (partisanship). Evidence also suggests that there are relationships between education and civic participation and education and civic knowledge; all this can contribute further to exploring the *Cognitive Engagement* theory of political behaviour.

At this stage of the Longitudinal Study the educational questions asked, about students' own expectations for continuing education beyond the age of 16, and also about the level of education achieved by their parents, elicited high levels of uncertainty from Year 7 students. Many were not yet sure about their own intentions, and did not know about their parents' educational experiences. This is not surprising given the age of these students and the fact that they are at the beginning of their secondary education. It will be interesting to see how the response to these measures changes over the years that the students participate in the Longitudinal Study.

In terms of their own education, around a third of students said they were not sure yet what they would do (32 per cent). Among the remainder almost as many (29 per cent) thought that they would continue their education into their early twenties, contemplating a university or similar course in higher education. Around one in six (16 per cent), expected to leave school after GCSEs or equivalent at the end of Year 11, while one in five thought they might leave at the age of 17 or 18, after taking AS/ A levels or their equivalent.

Over half of these students were not aware of the stage of education their parents achieved: 55 per cent did not know or did not give a response about their mother's education and 60 per cent about their father's. Among those who did give a view, around one in five thought their parents had left school at 15 or 16, (20 per cent for mothers, 18 per cent for fathers), while around one in eight thought that they had studied at university (13 per cent for mothers, 12 per cent for fathers), and a similar proportion had left full time education after sixth form or college (13 per cent for mothers, 10 per cent for fathers).

One of the models of student participation is the *School Efficacy* model, which suggests that the extent to which students believe that they can improve and have an impact on their school may be an important influence on their sense of political efficacy, and therefore on future political participation. Students' views on how much they are able to participate in school life (in terms similar to the 'democracy' factor for teachers and school leaders), teaching styles, and their own feelings of personal efficacy were explored in a factor analysis, which identified three strands, as shown below. Views relating to students' personal efficacy can be grouped separately from those relating to their efficacy as a student. It might be expected that students with high scores on

student efficacy will be more active in the school as a community, and those with high scores on personal efficacy may participate more actively in the wider community; these hypotheses will be explored in future analyses.

School involvement and efficacy

Factor	Students
Exposure to varied teaching methods	High scores mean that students reported using each or most of the delivery methods frequently (both traditional and active participation as described in the teachers' Teaching and learning approaches" factor).
Student efficacy	High scores indicate that students thought they had a say in the running of their school and they work in classes.
Personal efficacy	High scores reflect students' confidence that they can have influence across the governmental, family, school and social spheres of their lives.

The data discussed in this section may be used to explore a number of student level models of participation, such as the *School Efficacy* and *Civic Voluntarism* models of political behaviour, as well as adult models, including the *Cognitive Engagement* model mentioned earlier. These models are outlined briefly in Appendix 1.

3.4.2 Social activity variables

The amount of time students spend outside the house has been found to be a predictor of risky or anti-social behaviour (Currie *et al.*, 2000). This variable has also been shown, in recent citizenship education research, to be related to students' civic knowledge (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002): students who reported spending most evenings outside the home with their friends had lower civic knowledge scores. Accordingly, students were asked about their social activities. Table 3.4 below illustrates that the majority of students (63 per cent) spent time with their friends in the evenings on school days at least several days a week, with over a quarter saying they did this every night. However, one in six said they never or hardly ever went out with friends on school nights, and one in five went out only a few times a month.

Table 3.4 Time spent socialising with friends

How often do you go out with your friends in the evening, on school days?	Students %
Almost every evening (4 or more evenings a week)	28
A few times each week (1 to 3 evenings a week)	35
A few times each month	19
Never or hardly ever	17
N = 18,583	

Base: All Students

A single response item; due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100; there was 1% non-response to this question

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

A question was asked about the amount of free time students felt they had, after going to school, doing homework, eating, sleeping and doing all other necessary things. It would seem that many students at this age were reasonably content with the balance in their lives, with almost half saying they had ‘a fair amount’ of free time (48 per cent), and a third said they had a little (33 per cent). One in eight said they had a lot of free time (12 per cent) while at the other extreme five per cent felt that they had no free time after all their other activities were completed.

As a potential indicator of students’ sense of belonging to their community, they were asked how long they had lived in their current home. One in ten estimated that they had lived there less than one year, while three in ten had been there between one and five years, and twice as many said they had lived there for more than five years. This is a relatively high proportion claiming to have moved house within the last year (compared with 5 per cent in the first cross-sectional survey), and one possible explanation is that the progression to secondary school is associated with more families moving than at other stages of their children’s education.

A factor analysis was carried out on a number of attitudinal questions relating to a sense of belonging at different levels, from local through national to European, integration within their local community, and their trust of authority figures and institutions. These themes relate to the *Social Capital* model of political behaviour. Five factors were identified, as detailed below.

Group membership and trust

Factor	Students
Community attachment at the local to the international level	High scores indicate that students feel a strong degree of belonging in different communities which are nested in each other (from their school through to Europe).
Feeling embedded in a closely knit neighbourhood	High scores reflect the perception of their neighbourhood as being a closely-knit place (e.g. people know and look after each other).
Trust in and engagement with immediate social environment	High scores indicate trust in and good integration amongst groups such as peers and the family.
Trust in authority	High scores denote trust in powerful individuals and institutions (e.g. politicians or the students’ school teachers).
Trust in media	High scores indicate trust in the media.

These factors indicate that students may feel different degrees of attachment to their neighbourhood and the wider community in general. They may also have differing levels of trust in people in their immediate social environment, authority figures and the media. Students’ sense of belonging to their local community is discussed further in Chapter 6.

3.4.3 Exposure to media

Students were asked a series of questions about media use, including watching television, DVDs or videos, listening to the radio and reading newspapers.

This topic was covered because previous research shows a relationship between civic knowledge, political activity and exposure to television news (see Putnam, 1996; Norris, 1995 and Hahn, 1998). There is a strong suggestion that students who spend time watching television news have higher civic knowledge scores (Torney-Purta *et al*, 2001). Thus these data contribute to further exploration of the *Cognitive Engagement* model.

As shown on Table 3.5 below, a third (32 per cent) said that they watched television, DVDs or videos for less than one hour a day ‘on a normal school day’, or did not watch at all. Two fifths estimated that they spent between one and three hours on a school day watching television, DVDs or videos, while one fifth spent three to five hours doing so. Only seven per cent said that they spent more than five hours a day on this activity. Much lower proportions reported radio listening: almost a third said they did not listen at all on a school day, and almost half that they listened for less than an hour. Only six per cent said they listened for three hours or more.

Table 3.5 Time spent watching television

On a normal school/college day, approximately how much time do you spend...before or after school?	Watching TV, DVDs or videos %	Listening to the radio %
No time	6	30
Less than 1 hour	26	48
1-2 hours	40	16
3-5 hours	20	4
More than 5 hours	7	2
N = 18,583		

Base: All Students

A single response item; due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100; there was 1% non response to each of these questions

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

To provide more detail about media use, students were asked how often they watched or listened to news on TV and radio, whether they read national or local newspapers, and in particular whether they read stories about what is happening in Britain and in other countries. Table 3.6 below shows the results.

Table 3.6 Frequency of exposure to media

How often do you...	Watch TV news %	Listen to radio news %	Read a national Paper %	Read a local paper %	Read about news in Britain %	Read about other countries %
Never	12	37	37	28	26	31
Rarely/once a month	17	21	25	26	27	31
Sometimes/once a week	31	21	23	29	29	23
Often/most days	37	17	10	13	14	10
N = 18,583						

Base: All Students

A series of single response items; due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100. There was 4-5% non response to these questions

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

TV is the main source of news for these Year 7 students, with over a third saying that they watched it most days, and a further third watching once a week. Few said they never watched TV news, compared with over a third who never listen to radio news or read national newspapers, and over a quarter who never read local newspapers. Local newspapers (42 per cent) were more likely to be read at least once a week compared with national newspapers (33 per cent) or listening to radio news (38 per cent). Looking at the evidence concerning reading stories about what is happening in Britain and in other countries, these students did not appear to be differentiating strongly between the two areas, and mentioned them with similar frequency to reading local newspapers (for stories about Britain), and national newspapers (for stories about what is happening in other countries).

A later question on trust in various institutions, including the main types of media, showed that students not only were more likely to watch news on TV than to get it from other sources, but they were also more likely to trust TV. Overall just over half said they trusted TV ‘completely’ or ‘quite a lot’ (52 per cent), while the equivalent proportions were 29 per cent for radio, and 13 per cent for newspapers. This low level of trust in newspapers is similar to the findings for 14 year old students in England in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Kerr *et al*, 2002).

Students’ exposure to media was explored in a factor analysis, and three underlying factors emerged, relating to general exposure to news, frequent listening to radio, and watching TV, videos and DVDs. These are summarised below.

Media exposure

Factor	Students
Exposure to news	High scores denote frequent watching news or reading newspapers.
Radio use	High scores mean frequent listening to the radio, including listening to news.
Use of entertainment media	High scores indicate a great length of time spent watching television, videos and DVDs.

3.4.4 Views on social issues

The questionnaire included a number of attitudinal questions relating to social issues, and two factor analyses were performed to draw out the structure of the data, and potentially provide information relating to the *Rational Actor* model of political behaviour. The first analysis dealt with aspects of civic duty and social norms, with four factors emerging, as shown below.

Civic duty and social norms

Factor	Students
Agreement with rules, norms and laws	High scores reflect views that it is often acceptable or justified to break rules (e.g. break school rules or the speed limit).
Commitment to social and political participation	High scores indicate that students think that 'good adult citizens' should, for instance, join a political party and pick up litter in a public place.
Peaceful and law-abiding citizenship	High scores indicate a preference for obeying the law and taking peaceful action about issues.
Self centred focus	High scores indicate a potentially antisocial, egocentric point of view, e.g. that people should look out for themselves, and that newspapers should have the right to print racist views.

It should be noted that the fourth factor contained somewhat disparate elements, and may reflect relatively unsophisticated interpretation of some of the concepts by these Year 7 students. It will be interesting to see whether this factor remains distinct in future analyses as the students become older and more mature.

The second analysis looked at attitudes to national rights and responsibilities on such issues as employment and immigration, and three strands of views were identified.

Attitudes to social issues

Factor	Students
Conservatism (with a small 'c')	High scores reflect conservative views on the rights of women, the unemployed and foreign-born UK residents.
Approval of government control	High scores indicate favourability towards the intervention of government in social and environmental issues.
Nationalism	High scores reflect favourable views regarding the preservation of status quo and of rights of employment (e.g. endorsement of the idea that there is no more room for refugees in Britain).

The ‘nationalism’ factor brings together attitudes to three issues where overall there was a spread of opinion among students. Broadly similar proportions agreed and disagreed with the statement ‘Britain does not have room to accept any more refugees,’ while there was somewhat stronger agreement than disagreement on the idea that non-native residents in Britain should learn English, and that the government should guarantee a job for anyone who wants one.⁸

3.4.5 Voluntary and political participation

The attitudes and factors described in this section contribute to exploration of the *Cognitive Engagement*, *Civic Voluntarism*, *Social Capital*, *Rational Actor* and *Equity-Fairness* models of political behaviour (see Appendix 1). They cover views on participating in voluntary activities, particularly in terms of the costs and benefits, as described in the three factors below, as well as views about interest in politics and future political involvement.

Costs and benefits of participation

Factor	Students
Costs of participation in voluntary work	High scores on the factor indicate that voluntary work is perceived to be too time-consuming and not to be valued by peers.
Instrumental benefits of voluntary work	High scores are obtained by students who think that by doing voluntary work they will enhance their chances of entering university and employment and of meeting other people.
Social and moral benefits of participation in clubs	High scores reflect perceptions that taking part in clubs has benefits (doing one’s duty, enjoyment) rather than costs.

It is interesting to note that students who considered that there were costs of participation in voluntary work may also perceive benefits from it. In addition, there was a distinction between the instrumental benefits of voluntary work and the social benefits of taking part in clubs.

Attitudes to politics generally, and to the importance of politics in day to day life, divided into two broad factors. On the one hand, there was a lack of political interest and engagement, and on the other, there was strong interest and recognition of the impact of politics.

Interest and engagement in politics

Factor	Students
Low political interest/engagement	High scores indicate lack of interest in, and understanding and knowledge of politics.
High political interest/engagement	High scores reflect an interest in politics and a belief that it impacts on the lives of individuals.

Looking at students’ intentions of undertaking active citizenship in the future, two strands emerged, with a differentiation between engagement and distant future participation, as shown in the factors below. These were generally

⁸ See Table 3, Appendix 2: Students’ attitudes to social issues

independent, and students could express different intentions for the two types of involvement.

Future partisanship and participation

Factor	Students
Future engagement in political and current affairs	High scores indicate intention of future participation in politically-related activities such as joining a political party and demonstrating peacefully).
Distant future political participation	High scores denote an intention to participate indirectly in political life (e.g. though collecting money for good causes or voting in elections).

3.4.6 Conceptualisation of citizenship

At the end of the questionnaire students were asked to say in their own words ‘what citizenship means to you’. A number of students did not reach this question. However, those that did responded with varying degrees of detail, and a sample of the answers was coded.⁹ Table 3.7 shows the main categories of responses given; many different aspects were each mentioned by small numbers of students, and 14 per cent said they didn’t know.

Table 3.7 Conceptualisation of citizenship

What does citizenship mean to you?	Students %
Caring for and respecting others/ helping others	19
Belonging to or living in a local neighbourhood/ community	9
Working together/ taking part (in the community/ clubs etc)	8
Responsibilities of nationality (obeying laws/ social rules, e.g. picking up litter)	8
Becoming/ being a good citizen/ being a better person	6
Making the world / community a better place environmentally	4
National belonging and commitment	3
Participation in the democratic process (voting, about politics/ government)	2
Community involvement	2
Rights of nationality (jobs, housing, health, education)	2
Making the world/ community a better place socially	2
Learning about real life issues/ things around you	2
N=3,870	

Base: All Students (sample from total responses)

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

⁹ From the total of 18,583 completed questionnaires, 10,416 students gave answers to this question; a sample of 3,870 questionnaires were coded, representing 37 per cent of all answers, and covering 41 per cent of all schools (46 out of 112). Up to four codes per student were allowed.

Given that these Year 7 students are 11 to 12 years old, and citizenship has only just been introduced as a statutory subject in secondary schools, it is perhaps not surprising that many do not have a very sophisticated conceptualisation of citizenship, with the idea of ‘caring/helping others’ the dominant response, given by almost one in five. Other aspects of social and moral responsibility include ‘being a good person/citizen’, as well as the rights and responsibilities which come with citizenship.

Among the remaining answers, elements of community belonging and involvement were more frequently mentioned than aspects of political literacy, where the only element mentioned by more than one per cent was participation in the democratic process. While some mentioned a sense of national belonging, very few mentioned global or European dimensions (one per cent); some however identified making the world or the community a better place, either environmentally or socially.

3.5 Overview

This chapter details important profile information about schools, school leaders, teachers, and students who participated in the first longitudinal survey. It provides some of the context for interpreting the findings of this report.

School profiles

- ◆ The longitudinal sample of schools is closely representative of the national profile of maintained secondary schools in England. Factors were identified relating to a positive school ethos and democracy in the school.
- ◆ Nine case study schools were selected to ensure a spread of different geographical areas and school characteristics, including a range of approaches to citizenship education.

Profiles of school leaders and teachers

- ◆ School leaders included headteachers, deputy heads and assistant headteachers, with an average of 25 years in teaching, and an average of six years in their current post. Questionnaires were completed by up to five teachers in each school who taught citizenship or related subjects; the majority of teachers were female, with an average of seven years’ teaching experience.
- ◆ Among this sample of teachers, PSHE was the most frequently taught subject (38 per cent), and one in five mentioned citizenship as one of their main subjects. Around one in six were the citizenship coordinator (16 per cent) and the PSHE coordinator (18 per cent).
- ◆ In terms of civic participation, school leaders and teachers were most frequently members of cultural organisations and sports clubs and gyms. School leaders were also frequently members of youth and neighbourhood organisations. Many school leaders and teachers felt that they were too busy to volunteer for activities in and out of school. Most felt that politics

was important, whilst nearly all school leaders and teachers intended to vote in future elections.

- ◆ Factor analyses examined school leaders' and teachers' views of their school, their attitudes towards citizenship education and familiarity with key documents, and their own civic and political participation.

Student profiles

- ◆ A total of 18,583 Year 7 students took part in the survey, equally split in terms of gender; most identified themselves as White British. Nearly a third of students intended to go to university, whilst a similar proportion was not sure what they would do in the future.
- ◆ Two-thirds spent time with their friends on week-day evenings, and many felt that they had a fair amount of free time.
- ◆ Most students reported watching between one and two hours of television and listening to less than an hour of radio each day. Television was the main way in which students found out about current affairs, with nearly two-fifths reporting that they often watched news on television. Over half the students trusted the information they got from TV, while there was much less trust in the reliability of newspapers.
- ◆ In response to the question 'What does citizenship mean to you?' Year 7 students most frequently responded that it was related to caring for and respecting or helping other people. Other aspects of social and moral responsibility included 'being a good citizen'. Elements of community belonging and involvement were more frequently mentioned than aspects of political literacy, and very few mentioned European or international dimensions.
- ◆ Factor analyses from the students' responses were developed, in relation to their perceptions of school and political efficacy, group membership and trust, media exposure, attitudes towards social issues, and their attitudes towards politics and volunteering.

The profiles of the schools, school leaders and teachers, in particular, need to be borne in mind when considering the next three chapters which examine school approaches to citizenship in the curriculum (Chapter 4), in the school as a community (Chapter 5) and in the wider community (Chapter 6).

4. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN THE CURRICULUM

Key Points

- ◆ This chapter examines the way in which citizenship education was being taught through the formal curriculum in the schools involved in the first longitudinal survey and the first round of case studies. It aims to answer a series of questions:
 - How is citizenship education organised within the schools involved in the survey and case studies?
 - What factors appear to affect the ways in which schools approach citizenship education?
 - What are the emerging outcomes of these different approaches to citizenship education?
- ◆ Most schools were well under way with the implementation of citizenship education: they had generally conducted an audit, appointed a coordinator and were using a range of delivery methods, the most frequent being citizenship related modules in PSHE, assemblies and extra curricular events.
- ◆ Around a quarter of schools had an agreed policy for recognising achievement in citizenship, and most schools without such a policy planned to develop one. At key stage 3 just under half of schools used certificates or awards to recognise achievement, whilst at key stage 4 less than one fifth of schools were planning to use the GCSE Short Course in Citizenship Studies.
- ◆ Nearly two-fifths of teachers had received training in relation to citizenship education. Three-quarters felt they needed additional training, especially in relation to assessment and reporting, teaching methods and subject matter. Topics in which teachers were less confident were those related to the political and justice system, the economy and Europe.
- ◆ Nearly half of students reported learning about citizenship in school, most frequently in PSHE, RE and tutorials.
- ◆ The key factors that influenced schools' approaches to citizenship education, were related to concerns over the coherence of students' citizenship experiences and the status and saliency of the subject for students; the views and involvement of teachers, coordinators, senior management and parents; time and practical issues; lack of clarity on assessment; and the school ethos.
- ◆ Initial outcomes of these different approaches to citizenship education mainly related to curriculum issues and the experiences of teachers and students including time and curriculum coverage; workload and time pressure on teachers; and the importance of citizenship education in the eyes of students and teachers.

4.1 How is Citizenship Education Organised?

4.1.1 Provision of citizenship education

All school leaders considered that, prior to September 2002, their school was already delivering at least some of the requirements for citizenship education. Almost one in four respondents (23 per cent) stated that prior to that date they were carrying out 'all or most' of the requirements and just over three-quarters (77 per cent) said that they had been delivering 'some' of them. This compares with one third (35 per cent) of school and college leaders in the first cross-sectional survey, in spring 2002, who said that they were carrying out 'all or most' of the requirements for citizenship education at that stage (Kerr *et al.*, 2003a); it is possible that once the subject was formally introduced some schools became aware of gaps in their provision and so a higher proportion realised that they had not been covering 'all or most' of the subject.

A majority of schools in the longitudinal survey (83 per cent) had carried out an audit to identify previous provision, a higher proportion than in spring 2002 when three quarters of schools had done so. In all but one of the schools where no audit had taken place, school leaders said that they intended to carry one out.

As far as non-statutory delivery of citizenship education is concerned, just over two-fifths (42 per cent) of the school leaders surveyed said that they intended to continue provision of for citizenship education post-16, whereas sixteen per cent said that they did not know and only a minority (two per cent) indicated they would not. The remaining 41 per cent did not have a sixth form. Several of the case study schools explained that they intended to develop citizenship education in post-16 in the future, but that it was not a priority at present.

4.1.2 Delivery approach

Results from the survey of school leaders reveal that the majority of schools used a mixed approach to the delivery of citizenship education in the curriculum. As Table 4.1 below shows, the most popular ways of delivering citizenship education were through dedicated citizenship modules in PSHE and through assemblies (both in just over four-fifths of the schools), followed by delivery through extra-curricular activities. Approximately one-third of school leaders planned to use these methods in the future. Tutorials were used for delivery in half of schools, with over two fifths integrating citizenship into selected subjects, or all subjects when appropriate, and almost as many using special off-timetable events. A dedicated time slot allocated to citizenship education was found in just under one-third of schools. These slots tended to be of between 45 to 75 minutes at both key stage 3 and key stage 4 (65 per cent and 73 per cent respectively), or shorter than 45 minutes (19 per cent and 15 per cent respectively).

Table 4.1 Citizenship delivery in the schools surveyed: current delivery and future plans

Delivery of citizenship education	Schools: Current Delivery %	Schools: Future Plans %
Dedicated citizenship modules delivered in PSHE	82	31
Delivery through assemblies	82	38
Delivery through other extra-curricular activities	62	31
Delivery through tutorials	50	25
Citizenship integrated into selected subjects	45	24
Citizenship integrated into all subjects where applicable	42	29
Delivery through special events (e.g. 'Citizenship Week')	38	36
Dedicated time slot allocated to citizenship every week/two weeks	31	12
Dedicated citizenship modules delivered in other subjects	31	18
N = 84		

Base: All School Leaders

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

School leaders indicated that their schools were using a wide variety of combinations of delivery strategies. In six per cent of schools delivery was exclusively through dedicated citizenship modules in PSHE, and five per cent were using this strategy in combination with the integration of citizenship into some or all subjects where applicable, tutorials, assemblies, special events and other extra-curricular activities. The remaining schools were using different combinations of the delivery methods presented in Table 4.1, but each combination had only been chosen by one or two schools.

Individual strands of delivery were combined into broad types of approach: discrete (dedicated citizenship slots and/ or dedicated citizenship modules in other subjects), cross-curricular (integration of citizenship education into other subjects), tutorial, extra curricular and whole-school (delivery through assemblies and/ or special events). Grouping schools according to these broad approaches, the use of extra-curricular activities for citizenship provided some discrimination between different overall strategies. The largest group of schools (38 per cent) were using **all** five approaches, while one-quarter (24 per cent) used three to four delivery types that **included** extra-curricular delivery, giving almost two thirds who made some use of extra curricular activity. Among the remainder, one quarter used between one and three delivery types but **not** extra-curricular delivery, and 11 per cent used a combination of **all except** extra-curricular activities.

Reflecting the survey results, all of the case study schools who felt they were delivering citizenship education¹⁰ took a mixed approach to delivery, generally using one or two main approaches and supplementing this with other methods. Many schools also took different approaches at key stage 3 and key stage 4, for example including a cross-curricular approach at key stage 3, but a discrete approach at key stage 4 when pupils were no longer all studying the same subjects. There was not one main delivery type that came out as the most frequently used in case study schools.

The popularity of delivering citizenship education within PSHE, indicated by school leaders, was echoed in the survey of teachers, two thirds of whom considered that the **most effective** way of delivering it would be within this subject (shown in Table 4.2). Other ways of delivery which teachers tended to find the most effective included integration into all subjects and as an extra-curricular activity.

Table 4.2 The most effective ways of delivering citizenship education

Most effective delivery of citizenship education	Teachers %
Within Personal Social and Health Education (PSHE)	68
Integrated into all subjects	56
As an extra-curricular activity (e.g. one-off events)	48
Integrated into certain other subjects (e.g. History)	45
In tutorials	43
As a specific subject	42
N = 387	

Base: All Teachers

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Statistical analysis revealed that the delivery approaches schools chose to use were linked to their ethos: the more positively the teachers and the school leader of a school perceived its ethos to be, the more likely a school was to be using all five types of delivery, and the more likely it was to use extra-curricular activities as part of the combination of delivery methods used. This would suggest that adopting a variety of methods for the delivery of citizenship education, particularly extending it to extra-curricular activities, may be influenced by the ethos in the school. Indeed the Crick Report recognises that ‘*the ethos, organisation, structures and daily practices of school, including whole-school activities and assemblies, have a significant impact of the effectiveness of citizenship education*’ (Crick, 1998 p.36).

There were indications that constraints, particularly those relating to curriculum time, practicality of delivery and level of senior management

¹⁰ It should be noted that one case study school had not decided upon a particular delivery approach for citizenship education.

support for citizenship education, were also influential in the choice of delivery approach. Indeed, one-third of schools surveyed indicated that they had chosen their particular approach to delivering citizenship education as it built on current practice, whilst nearly a quarter of schools gave other pragmatic reasons for their choice (main reasons for choosing approaches are shown in Table 4.3). This was supported in the case study findings, where several schools felt that a mainly cross-curricular approach was practical as citizenship-related topics were already taught through other subjects, so they were able to make use of existing staff expertise and interest.

Table 4.3 Reasons for choosing the selected approach to delivering citizenship

Reasons for approach	School Leaders %
Approach builds on/complements current practice	33
Other practical considerations (e.g. most practical solution; solution which seems feasible)	24
Avoid over-crowding of curriculum	13
Whole school approach adopted	13
To meet statutory requirements	12
To ensure CE is cross-curricular/integrated into curriculum	11
To enable specialist team delivery	5
Clear distinction given to citizenship as a subject	5
To maintain quality	5
Workload/staffing constraints	4
N = 84	

Base: All School Leaders

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Time was a reason given by one-eighth of schools surveyed who indicated that they chose their particular approach to avoid over-crowding of the curriculum. Indeed, many of the case study schools chose not to approach citizenship through discrete lessons because they would have to sacrifice time from other subject areas, a possibility which was seen as unpopular with staff in those areas. One school coordinator felt that due to time pressures a cross-curricular approach was the only option open to them: [a cross-curricular approach was chosen] “because otherwise we would not have time to fit it all in”. Some schools that were able to fit in discrete lessons found that the only available time slot was so short and infrequent that there was not enough time to cover the citizenship education curriculum and engage students’ interest.

In some case study schools there were concerns about how coherent a cross-curricular approach could be, particularly at key stage 4 where students take different GCSE options. As one headteacher stated:

The problem is... some children will do history, some will do geography and some will do religious studies. Some might do art

while others might do media studies... You cannot guarantee a common experience.

Two methods used to try to ensure coverage of the citizenship curriculum were the carrying out of regular audits, and the use of discrete lessons or one-off events such as assemblies to ‘plug the gaps’.

As well as ensuring curriculum coverage, discrete lessons were also used by schools to increase the profile and status of citizenship education as a recognised curriculum subject. Another school had gone some way to ensuring clarity in the minds of the students, by making it explicit that certain topics taught in other subjects were ‘citizenship’; to consolidate this the students kept citizenship portfolios to record the topics they had learned about. Interestingly, nearly a quarter of school leaders felt that one of the impacts of the introduction of citizenship education would be that citizenship related topics in other subjects would become more explicit.¹¹

In some case study schools it also appeared that the approach to citizenship education was directly affected by the status of citizenship in the eyes of the senior management. One coordinator described how she would have liked to use discrete lessons to deliver citizenship education, however the headteacher did not want to give the subject that much time, so this approach was not pursued. By contrast, in another case study school the headteacher was passionate about citizenship, and as a result had been delivering citizenship through discrete lessons for several years prior to its statutory introduction as a national curriculum subject.

4.1.3 Links to other subjects

Both survey and case study findings reveal that in many schools there were links between citizenship education and Personal Social and Health Education (PSHE). Table 4.1 earlier showed that 82 per cent of schools used dedicated citizenship slots in PSHE. In addition four fifths of school leaders that said that citizenship was taught through other subjects, with the largest proportion saying that it was taught through RE or Religious Studies (RS) and history, followed by geography and English (see Table 4.4 below). One fifth again indicated that it was taught through PSHE (all but one of these school leaders had earlier mentioned dedicated citizenship modules in PSHE).

¹¹ See Table 4, Appendix 2: Impact of citizenship education on teaching other subjects.

Table 4.4 Lessons in which citizenship education topics are taught

Lessons including citizenship topics	School Leaders %
RE/RS (Religious Education or Religious Studies)	88
History	87
Geography	76
English	69
Business Studies/ Economics	40
PSHE (Personal, social and health education)	20

N=67

Base: School Leaders who said that citizenship education is delivered through existing subjects

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

About half of all students were aware of being taught citizenship, and the majority indicated that they had learned about it in PSHE (61 per cent), with relatively fewer mentioning RE/RS (38 per cent), history (22 per cent) or geography (19 per cent). A number of students mentioned coverage through tutor groups, while other students identified ‘citizenship classes’, (which may correspond to dedicated citizenship modules within PSHE or other subjects).

However, it should be remembered that the Year 7 students surveyed were only in the first term in their new secondary school. Therefore, their answers as to where they are taught about citizenship may be an amalgam of their previous primary school and current secondary school experiences.

Findings from the case studies supported the experiences of the students surveyed. In some case study schools citizenship education and PSHE shared the same time slot, and often had the same coordinator. Many of the case study schools felt that there was some overlap between the topic areas in citizenship education and PSHE. In addition, many case study schools felt that citizenship education built on the work they were already doing in history, geography and RE. History and geography teachers, in particular, felt passionately that their subject was the perfect vehicle through which to deliver citizenship education, as one teacher stated: ‘*As a geography teacher I do not believe that there is another subject where citizenship education is more relevant, because it is about people and the whole world*’.

4.1.4 School focus for citizenship education

The schools involved in the case studies were asked if they emphasised a particular strand of the tripartite division set by the Citizenship Advisory Group (Crick Report, 1998) – social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy – in their delivery of citizenship education. Although all schools felt that they aimed for a broad coverage of all three strands, many schools mentioned that they emphasised the social and moral responsibility strand above the other two. One school felt that this element

fitted in particularly well with their ethos as a church school, whilst a teacher in another school emphasised this area in order to combat some of the unacceptable attitudes he felt were held by students:

I find particularly with the older students at the school... attitudes towards immigrants and asylum seekers are really quite a shocking thing that needs addressing...Another thing which I think is rife in all schools is homophobia. I think it's something that needs addressing.

Furthermore, some schools felt that they were placing most emphasis on the political literacy strand of citizenship. Two schools chose to emphasise this strand as they felt it was a new and distinct feature that was not addressed anywhere else in the curriculum. It was a strand with which many students were not, as yet, familiar. Another school coordinator commented that he chose to emphasise the political literacy strand as it reflected his own interest in the area. Interestingly, none of the case study schools chose to emphasise the community participation strand of citizenship education. Indeed two school leaders stated that community involvement was the least important element of citizenship education for their schools. One headteacher explained that he felt encouraging students to participate in the community through school would mean that they are doing it for the wrong reasons:

Good citizens do things because they are good citizens rather than because... I don't want to create artificial and bogus opportunities... tokenism in some fashion.

This suggests that school leaders define community involvement in citizenship education in terms of participation in the wider community beyond the school rather than the school as a community.

4.1.5 Assessment and recognition of achievement

Of the teachers surveyed, only just over one-third said that they attempted to assess students specifically in relation to their progress in citizenship education. For these teachers, the most commonly reported forms of assessment used were teacher-led, i.e. responses from students in class and observation of students, as shown in Table 4.5. Group work and written tasks were also frequently reported.

Table 4.5 Methods of assessment in citizenship education

Assessment methods	Teachers Current %	School Leaders Planned	
		Key stage 3 %	Key stage 4 %
Responses from students in class	70	75	71
Observation of students	66	60	67
Group tasks	63	50	48
Written tasks and essays	50	50	52
Student self-assessment	49	60	57
Portfolio of evidence	46	65	62
Peer assessment	21	30	33
Tests	20	20	38

N = 137 (Teachers)

N = 20 (School Leaders, key stage 3)

N = 21 (School Leaders, key stage 4)

Base: Teachers who said they assess students' progress in citizenship education; School leaders who had a policy for recognising achievement in citizenship education at each key stage (Note that these bases are small and percentages should be regarded as indicative)

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Consistent with teacher responses, at both key stages 3 and 4, the majority of school leaders said they did *not* yet have an agreed policy for recognising achievement, although most planned to do so (68 per cent at key stage 3 and 66 per cent at key stage four). A quarter of school leaders indicated that they *had* already agreed a policy for recognising achievement at key stage 4 and a similar proportion (24 per cent) had done so for key stage 3; in most cases these were schools which had agreed policies for both key stages.

As Table 4.5 above shows, school leaders' plans for future assessment tended to reflect the current assessment practice by teachers (it should be noted that these percentages are based on only a small number of school leaders, and should be regarded as indicative). Thus the most common future assessment plans, as for current practice, were for teacher-led assessment, i.e. responses from students in class and observations of student behaviour. However, many school leaders also planned to introduce student-led assessment, such as portfolios of evidence and students' self-assessment exercises. This suggests that, as assessment plans are implemented, the adoption of student-led assessment in schools may increase in coming years.

There are indications that there is a tendency for schools to be ahead in defining a policy for recognising achievement in circumstances where citizenship education is taught in more informal situations (tutorials, special events) or in lessons or subjects other than PSHE. At key stage 3, where citizenship education delivery included tutorials, modules in non-PSHE subjects and through special events, school leaders were more likely to have defined a policy for recognising achievement (rather than leaving it to the

individual teacher or having no policy). The same was true at key stage 4 for schools delivering citizenship education through special events¹².

When asked about the use of awards or certificates to recognise achievement in citizenship at **key stage 3**, just under half (47 per cent) the school leaders reported that they used them, while half did not use or plan to use these. The main reasons given for not using awards or certificates were that the issue was under or awaiting review (64 per cent of schools), or among a minority that it was deemed unnecessary or inappropriate (14 per cent). The schools which already had a system were mostly using certificates for achievement (28 per cent) or had a merit system in place (eight per cent). Of the schools which were planning to use awards or certificates, most intended to use certificates for achievement (23 per cent).

At **key stage 4**, less than one-fifth of school leaders (17 per cent) indicated that they were planning to use the GCSE Short Course in Citizenship Studies. In the remaining schools, nearly two-fifths (38 per cent) said they would not use the short course and over two-fifths (44 per cent) had not yet decided. As far as non-GCSE qualifications or awards to recognise achievement are concerned, one in five (20 per cent) school leaders indicated that they were using them, while a similar proportion (23 per cent) were not and over half (54 per cent) had not yet decided.

In many of the case study schools coordinators explained that they did not yet have an agreed policy for assessment as they were not sure how to go about it. This was despite their efforts to seek further advice, guidance and support, for example through attending training courses. One coordinator stated ‘*There does not seem to be a lot out there to support me in this*’. In addition, another coordinator explained ‘*Advice about assessment and reporting has been very difficult to get hold of*’. Another citizenship coordinator had particular problems tackling assessment of cross-curricular citizenship:

I really don't know how we are going to deal with that within the realms of what is possible in a secondary school scenario, especially given that in key stage 3 they are doing different facets in different subject areas...I don't think it is manageable.

Several case study schools had chosen not to pursue formal assessment as they found citizenship education very difficult to assess. There were two main reasons given for this difficulty. First, citizenship education tended to be seen as a subject that by its very nature is difficult to measure and quantify. The views of many interviewees were expressed by one teacher who explained: ‘*I think it is very difficult to assess how good a citizen you are*’. One school approached teaching in citizenship education through discussion and debate, and, as a result, felt that they could not assess this approach as it would be a purely subjective judgement by the teacher. In addition, some teachers felt formal assessment would primarily be a measure of students’ literacy skills, rather than their citizenship skills ‘*I don't think it can be measured, so much*

¹² See Table 5, Appendix 2: Policies for recognising achievement in citizenship education

depends on their ability to write decent English' (coordinator). This was confirmed for one teacher in another case study school who found that low achieving students, who had performed well in a coursework project focused on participation, would not get good grades for the project as they were unable to write it up well, despite the teacher's view that they were '*really good citizens and human beings*'.

The case studies provided further insights into the reasons that may underlie decisions as to whether schools' formally assess citizenship or not. Case study schools that had chosen to do so through the GCSE short-course or through school-based examinations and coursework, felt that this was necessary to give the subject status and coherence in the eyes of the students, staff and parents. One coordinator in a particularly exam-focused school felt that if the school did not formally assess citizenship education the students would not feel that the subject mattered and it would lose importance in the same way as PSHE had done in the school. Another coordinator felt that the students and parents would question why they were teaching citizenship if it did not result in a GCSE qualification. Indeed, students in one school explained that were pleased that they were taking the GCSE, as they felt that they were getting something out of doing citizenship education. In addition, another attainment-focused school, had trialled citizenship education in the previous academic year as an additional, non-examined subject, and had received negative feedback from the students about this approach.

On the other hand, some case study schools who had chosen not to use formal assessment, explained that they felt their mostly high achieving students were over already over-examined, and citizenship education gave them the opportunity to explore issues without the pressure of exams and coursework. In addition, less exam-oriented schools felt that using the GCSE short course would put their students under unnecessary pressure, and that overall citizenship education would not lose value as a subject with students by not being formally examined.

Finally, a further issue revealed by the case study visits was that difficulties were experienced in terms of teacher workload for schools which used both formal and informal types of assessment. In a school which was using student self-evaluation forms, verified and reported by staff, it was felt that there was too much work for the form tutors to do, relative to the short amount of time they spent with the students. Another school using the GCSE short course in citizenship studies, felt that the coursework element of the course provided an unnecessary burden on already over worked teachers.

Statistical analysis of the survey data showed that a school's assessment approach was associated with the extent to which the use of teaching and learning strategies with active involvement outweighs the use of more traditional teaching methods, in the school leader's view (see the factor relating to teaching and learning approaches in Chapter 3). Indeed, schools where more active involvement of students in the class is prioritised, were also

those where the school leaders plan to use all three assessment approaches in the school, and the least likely to have no plans for assessment or recognition.

The role of a citizenship coordinator may also be an important influence on this issue: in those schools which had *not* appointed a citizenship education coordinator, none reported any plans to introduce assessment, nor were using or planning to use the GCSE qualification to recognise student achievement in citizenship education.

4.1.6 Use of ICT in citizenship education

All school leaders surveyed indicated that they had access to computers and the internet for teaching or educational purposes. Most reported that computers were available in the teachers' work area and in instructional areas such as libraries, for use by both staff and students, though only two-fifths said that computers were available in classrooms.¹³ Just under three-quarters (71 per cent) of teachers stated that they had access to these for citizenship education lessons and activities, with more than one-quarter (27 per cent) saying they did not. Most of those without current access to computers and the internet said they envisaged that it would be used for citizenship education lessons and activities in the future (18 per cent of all teachers). However, this leaves a small proportion of teachers who said they did not envisage such use of the internet being made in the future.

Teachers who said they had access to computers and the internet for citizenship education-related activities were asked how they and students used the internet, and Table 4.6 below shows their responses. While relatively few teachers said they used the internet most or all of the time, most said that they used it sometimes for research and planning for citizenship education lessons, and in lessons with students. In addition, most of these teachers felt that students *sometimes* used the internet in citizenship education tasks and activities outside lessons and at home. In terms of students' citizenship activities in the local community, most teachers predicted that they never used the internet, though a quarter said they did not know.

¹³ See Table 6, Appendix 2: Availability of computers and the internet for educational purposes

Table 4.6 Frequency of internet use for citizenship education lessons and activities

Internet use by ...	Teachers			
	Never/ almost never %	Some- Times %	Most/ all of the time %	Don't know %
Teachers in researching topical issues and events	23	62	11	n/a
Teachers in planning lessons and activities	23	56	15	n/a
Teachers in lessons with students	36	57	1	n/a
Students working on tasks and activities outside lessons	28	56	5	9
Students working at home	23	55	5	15
Students working in the local community	54	20	<1	24
N = 276				

Base: Teachers with access to computers and the internet for citizenship education activities. A series of single-response items. There was 2-5% non response for these questions. Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

One issue regarding the use of the internet which surfaced in case study schools was that some teachers reported having little time to research citizenship topics on the internet themselves.

While most (81 per cent) of the surveyed schools had made information available on the internet about the school, most had not included information related to citizenship education and links to other schools or the local community.¹⁴ Community links are discussed in more detail in Chapter 6.

4.1.7 Staff involved in citizenship education

Most schools surveyed had not recruited new staff specifically to deliver citizenship education and most were not planning to do so (82 per cent in each case). The majority (88 per cent) had appointed a citizenship education coordinator, almost always from existing staff members though five per cent of school leaders reported making an external appointment. The remaining schools had either not appointed a coordinator (eight per cent) or indicated that, although they had made no appointment, they intended to do so (four per cent). Most schools chose the coordinator because he or she had prior experience of teaching in relevant subjects.¹⁵

¹⁴ See Table 6.1, Chapter 6: Information made available by schools on the internet

¹⁵ See Table 7, Appendix 2: Reasons why citizenship coordinator was appointed

School leaders were asked whether any staff had been given additional spine points for their work in citizenship education, in terms of delivery or planning of the curriculum, and coordination of the curriculum in the school. In half of the schools giving a response, citizenship education coordinators had been given an additional spine point for their role, and in a further five per cent additional spine points would be given in the future, while in two-fifths there were no plans to do this. Few had given or planned to give teachers spine points for planning the curriculum or delivery.¹⁶ Reflecting this, most teachers reported that they had not been given and did not expect additional spine points for their involvement in citizenship education. Apart from citizenship coordinators, those most likely to have been given additional spine points for citizenship-related responsibilities were teachers involved in citizenship education as PSHE coordinators, or teachers of citizenship within cross-curricular or one-off events.

A variety of individuals were reported to be responsible for developing the curriculum for citizenship education, as shown in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7 People responsible for developing the curriculum for citizenship education

	School Leaders %
Citizenship coordinator	88
Senior Management Team (SMT)	66
Heads of Year	45
Teachers who will be delivering citizenship education	42
Others	18
<i>Combinations of team members</i>	
Citizenship coordinator, SMT and others	44
Citizenship coordinator alone	17
Citizenship coordinator and SMT only	14
Citizenship coordinator and others (not SMT)	13
SMT only, or with others (no coordinator in school)	7
Neither SMT nor coordinator	5
N =84	

Base: All School Leaders

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

In all schools where there was a citizenship coordinator, he or she had been involved in developing the citizenship education curriculum, and two-thirds of schools had senior management input, while only five per cent had neither coordinator nor senior management involvement. In one in six schools, the citizenship education coordinator alone had responsibility for curriculum development, while in most other schools responsibility was shared, the main

¹⁶ See Table 8, Appendix 2: Allocation of additional spine points for work in citizenship education

combinations being the citizenship education coordinator with the senior management team, or the coordinator with the senior management team and others. Other individuals involved in the curriculum development included the PSHE coordinator and a range of other school staff, with only one school leader mentioning governor involvement.

The involvement of the senior management team in citizenship education in the case study schools varied considerably, from one school where the coordinator felt that the headteacher was not supportive of citizenship education, to a school at the other extreme where the only staff involved in citizenship education were the headteacher and the assistant headteacher. Several schools deliberately chose to involve the senior management team in the teaching of citizenship education in order to give the subject status within the school. One coordinator described the school's decision to involve SMT members in teaching citizenship as a conscious one to ensure that it would not be seen as *'another of those bolt on subjects that has to be taught'*.

Three of the case study schools recruited staff to teach citizenship education, based on those people that had time free on their timetable. They all experienced the same difficulty, namely that these teachers were not always committed, enthusiastic or experienced in citizenship education, particularly given that timetable changes meant that they probably would not be involved in citizenship education the following academic year. Even schools where those that taught citizenship education were highly experienced members of senior management, encountered difficulties, in that these teachers had many other priorities and were not able to dedicate as much time as they wanted to citizenship education. There were only two schools where there was not a problem concerning staff enthusiasm and time. In these two schools, citizenship education was taught by a small team of dedicated teachers.

4.1.8 Professional development and experience

Almost two in five teachers (38 per cent) had received some kind of training in relation to citizenship education. Of these, most had attended either formal external training (62 per cent) or formal internal training in the school (51 per cent), and almost half (48 per cent) had received informal internal training in the school. Teachers who had attended external training had participated in events provided by the LEA (51 per cent), citizenship organisations (37 per cent), commercial organisations (34 per cent) and charities (four per cent). In only one case study school had teachers attended external training; indeed the case studies revealed that the most frequent form of professional development and training that took place was internal meetings between teaching staff and the citizenship coordinator.

Teachers in the survey tended to find the training they had received either very useful or quite useful (see Table 4.8) and the same pattern was found for other types of training which small proportions of teachers had received, including PGCE (Postgraduate Certificate in Education) and QTS (Qualified Teacher Status) training (3 per cent). This suggests that some teachers are starting their careers with expertise in citizenship education from their initial teacher

training courses, though it is not known whether this has been gained on the new Citizenship PGCE courses or as part of PGCE courses in other curriculum subjects.

Table 4.8 Usefulness of training received

Type of training		Teachers		
		Very Useful %	Quite Useful %	Not at all useful %
External training	N=90	29	59	12
Internal training/INSET	N=74	22	74	5
Informal training/staff meetings	N=69	16	81	3

Base: Teachers who had received training in relation to citizenship education

A series of single-response items; due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Most teachers (74 per cent) felt that they needed additional training in relation to citizenship education. Of these, almost two-fifths (38 per cent) said they would like to receive training on assessment and reporting, almost one third (32 per cent) would like training on teaching methods, and just over one in four (27 per cent) on subject matter.

Teachers' perception that they need training on subject matter has been consistent, from the IEA Study in 1999 (Kerr *et al*, 2001) through the first cross-sectional survey in spring 2002 (Kerr *et al*, 2003a), to this survey in November 2002 immediately after citizenship education became a statutory subject in secondary schools. In the IEA Study the need for training in subject matter knowledge was identified. However, in the first cross-sectional study, in the preparatory period before the introduction of compulsory citizenship education, teaching methods were also highlighted as an area where training was required. In the latest survey, at the early stages of formal implementation, training on assessment and reporting had overtaken both teaching methods and subject matter as the most frequently mentioned area of need.

Teachers in nearly all case study schools also indicated that they would like further citizenship education related training, particularly covering the political literacy strand, assessment and citizenship related teaching methods. Some staff whose main subject was more scientific, felt that teaching methods used in citizenship education were quite alien to them; as one teacher explained:

Because I am a mathematician, I am not very good at lessons where the kids do a lot of discussion and sharing of ideas and role play...and I know that is on quite a few of the skills in the citizenship scheme of work... and I know that is a weakness in my teaching.

As well as improving the skills and knowledge of staff, training seemed to help encourage a positive attitude amongst staff towards the subject. An example where lack of training resulted in a negative staff attitude was seen in one case study school where a collapsed timetable citizenship day had to be cancelled at the last minute. This was due to the fact that the staff involved had received little training and as a result they felt ill-equipped to take part and so refused en masse to participate in the event

A minority (four per cent) of teachers surveyed said they or a colleague(s) in their school were members of the newly formed subject association for citizenship education, ACT (Association for Citizenship Teaching). Almost three-quarters (74 per cent) said that they did not know whether this was the case, suggesting that the association is not very well known in schools as yet.

4.1.9 Staff confidence

The previous section showed that while most teachers would like more training on citizenship education, training on subject matter was not the greatest area of need. A further question asked about confidence in teaching citizenship-related topics, and survey results showed that at least three quarters of teachers said they felt either somewhat or very confident on most topics.¹⁷ Areas in which teachers were least likely to feel confident were those concerning the political literacy strand, notably Parliament, government and the courts, the economy and business, and the European Union (EU).

This was supported in the case study findings where schools felt that their teaching was weakest in terms of developing political literacy, and, in particular, in relation to the topics of the law and judicial system and international issues such as the United Nations (UN), Europe and the Commonwealth. One school coordinator found it difficult to cover these areas as teachers were generally unfamiliar with the topics, so needed to spend a lot of time preparing for lessons. Another teacher admitted that she did not fully cover the political literacy strand as she was '*politically apathetic and I have no interest in politics at all*'. This underlines the perception among some teachers that the political literacy strand of citizenship education is primarily concerned with improving students' political knowledge and their understanding of party politics.

4.2 Student Experience of Citizenship Education

Nearly half of students surveyed (48 per cent) said that they were taught about citizenship at school, whilst seven per cent said that they were not taught about it at all and almost half either said that they did not know, or gave no response. The survey took place during these students' first term at secondary school, and some may therefore not yet have been fully aware of how citizenship education was approached at their school and/or may have reported their

¹⁷ See Table 9, Appendix 2: Teacher confidence in teaching citizenship-related topics.

experiences in the last year of primary school.¹⁸ As described earlier, students most frequently reported being taught about citizenship in PSHE, Religious Education or Religious Studies, tutor or form groups, ‘citizenship’ classes, history and geography.

The topics which students reported learning about most often were the environment and rights and responsibilities followed by laws, crime and punishment (shown in Table 4.9). The topics which students most often said they had not been taught were the economy and business, parliament, voting and elections, the media and voluntary groups. Around one third said they did not know whether they had been taught about the economy and businesses, voluntary groups, resolving conflict, the media and the global, European and international organisations. While coverage of some of these topics might be expected in later years rather than in Year 7, it is notable that several of the topics students do not recall being taught are the ones that teachers feel least confident about teaching.

Table 4.9 Citizenship-related topics which students reported learning about

Citizenship related topics	Yes %	No %	Don't know %
The environment	80	8	9
Rights and responsibilities	72	8	17
Laws, crime and punishment	59	21	17
Different cultures and ethnic groups	52	19	25
The global community, European and international organisations	34	31	31
Parliament, voting and elections	32	41	23
Voluntary groups	27	37	32
Resolving conflict	24	37	35
The media	23	39	34
The economy and businesses	14	52	30
N = 18,583			

Base: All Students

A series of single-response items; there was 2-5% non response to these questions

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

The students interviewed at the case study schools were generally aware of most citizenship-related topics, and many students felt they had learned about these topics in a variety of lessons, including citizenship, history, geography, RE, PSHE, English and science. There were some areas in which students were generally less familiar, such as the judicial system, voluntary work, and

¹⁸ This question came very near the end of the questionnaire, and non response was also affected by some students not completing all questions.

the European Union, again reflecting the areas in which the schools felt there was little coverage. In some case study schools students commented that they found citizenship education lessons interesting and useful, and some teachers noted that that citizenship may be more relevant for low achieving young people than some other more traditional subjects as it gave them skills they would need after completing their education.

There was a degree of relationship between whether the students said that they were taught certain topics and the degree of confidence which the teachers surveyed in their school felt relative to teaching given topics:

- ◆ in schools where students tended to say that they were taught about ‘rights and responsibilities’ and ‘laws, crime and punishment’, fewer teachers said they were not at all confident regarding teaching about these topics
- ◆ where students tended to say they were *not* taught about ‘parliament, voting and elections’, more teachers said they did not feel at all confident teaching about ‘parliament, government and the courts’
- ◆ where students tended to say they were *not* taught about the ‘economy and business’, more teachers reported being not at all confident regarding teaching about ‘consumer rights’.

Although the teachers who were surveyed did not necessarily teach the Year 7 students who participated in the first longitudinal survey, nevertheless they can be expected to be amongst those teachers most closely associated with the implementation of citizenship education in their schools (given the instructions sent to schools as to which teachers should complete the teacher questionnaire). Therefore, these associations indicate that the degree to which teachers are confident about teaching citizenship-related topics may impact on the extent to which such topics are made available to students in their schools, perhaps through influencing their own teaching and/or the guidance they provide to others in charge of delivering those topics.

4.3 Overview

In taking an overview of the information in this chapter, looking at the ways in which schools involved in the surveys and case studies were delivering citizenship education in the curriculum, it is useful to revisit the main research question posed at the beginning of the chapter:

- ◆ How is citizenship education organised within the schools involved in the first longitudinal survey and case studies?

Previous and Post-16 provision

- All school leaders felt that they were already carrying out some of the requirements for citizenship education prior to statutory implementation (100 per cent).
- The majority of schools had carried out an audit to identify previous provision (83 per cent).

- Two-fifths of schools surveyed intended to continue provision post-16, whilst many case-study schools said that they intended to address post-16 citizenship, but that it was not currently a priority.

Delivery approach

- Most schools adopted a mixed approach to citizenship education, most frequently delivering it through citizenship related modules in PSHE, assemblies and extra-curricular events. Just under one-third used a dedicated time-slot (31 per cent).

Links to other subjects

- School leaders reported that the main subject in which citizenship education was taught was PSHE, whilst students and respondents from the case study schools also indicated that citizenship education was taught through humanities subjects.

School focus for citizenship Education

- Schools involved in the case studies felt that they emphasised the social and moral responsibility strand of citizenship education, as outlined by the Citizenship Advisory Group (Crick Report, 1998), or the political strand as they felt that this was appropriate to their schools' needs. None of the case study schools chose to emphasise the community involvement strand.

Assessment and recognition of achievement

- Around a quarter of school leaders had an agreed policy for recognising achievement (24 per cent at key stage 3 and 25 per cent at key stage 4), whilst the majority of school leaders did not yet have such a policy (68 per cent at key stage 3 and 66 per cent at key stage 4).
- Just over one-third of teachers attempted to assess students specifically in relation to citizenship education, using mainly teacher-led assessment.
- Future plans for assessment mainly focused on teacher-led assessment, however many school leaders also planned to introduce student-led forms of assessment.
- Schools who taught citizenship education in more informal settings such as through tutorials or special events, were more likely to have an agreed policy for recognising achievement.
- Approximately half of school leaders reported that they used certificates to recognise achievement at key stage 3.
- Less than one-fifth of school leaders indicated that they were planning to use the GCSE short course in Citizenship Studies (17 per cent), whilst one-fifth (20 per cent) of school leaders indicated that they were using non-GCSE qualifications or awards to recognise achievement at key stage 4.

Use of ICT in citizenship education

- Just under three-quarters of teachers said that they had access to computers and the internet for citizenship education lessons and activities (71 per cent).
- Most teachers said that they used the internet sometimes for research and planning citizenship related lessons, and in lessons with students.

Staff involved in citizenship education

- The majority of schools surveyed had not and did not plan to recruit new staff specifically to deliver citizenship education (82 per cent).
- Most schools had appointed a citizenship education coordinator (88 per cent), who was chosen generally on the basis of previous experience in relevant subjects. Half of the schools surveyed planned to give coordinators additional points for their role.
- In most schools, responsibility for developing the citizenship curriculum was shared between the citizenship education coordinator, the senior management team and other members of staff.

Professional development and experience

- Almost two-fifths of teachers (38 per cent) had received some kind of training in relation to citizenship education, and mostly found their training very or quite useful.
- Most teachers (74 per cent) felt that they needed additional training in citizenship education, particularly in relation to assessment and reporting (38 per cent), teaching methods (32 per cent) and subject matter (27 per cent).
- A minority of teachers (four per cent) said that they or a colleague were members of ACT (Association for Citizenship Teaching)

Staff Confidence

- Over half of teachers felt either somewhat or very confident in teaching citizenship-related topics, however areas in which they felt least confident were Parliament, government and the courts, the economy and business and the European Union.

Student Experiences of citizenship education

- Nearly half of students surveyed (47 per cent) said that they were taught about citizenship at school, most frequently in PSHE, RE and tutorials.
- Citizenship related topics which students reported learning about included the environment, rights and responsibilities and laws, crime and punishment. Topics which they were less familiar included parliament, voting and elections, the media and voluntary groups. There also appeared to be a relationship between teachers' confidence in teaching certain topics and students' familiarity with these topics.

4.4 Factors Affecting the Ways Schools Approach Citizenship Education in the Curriculum

Analysis of the first longitudinal survey and case study data has revealed a number of factors that appear to influence the ways in which schools have chosen to approach citizenship education in the curriculum. These are at five levels:

- ◆ Student
- ◆ Curriculum
- ◆ Teacher
- ◆ Management
- ◆ Community

The factors at each level are examined, in turn, in what follows.

4.4.1 Student level factors

- ◆ **Coherence of experience** In some schools there were concerns about how coherent a cross-curricular approach to the delivery of citizenship education could be, and, as such, many schools had chosen to use regular audits to monitor delivery and to use discrete lessons to ‘plug the gaps’.
- ◆ **Status and salience** Students’ understanding of what citizenship education actually was, and the importance of the subject in their eyes, was a factor that influenced the approach of many school to citizenship education. Some schools chose to use discrete lessons to give citizenship status and salience with the students. It also appeared that exam-orientated schools used the GCSE short-course and other types of formal assessment to try to ensure that citizenship education was seen as an important subject by the students.
- ◆ **Pressure on students** The amount of stress and pressure that students were under seemed to be a factor that influenced exam-orientated schools and also schools in favour of a more rounded curriculum in their approach to citizenship education. Some exam-orientated schools seemed to believe that their students were already over examined and that a non-formally assessed citizenship curriculum, would help their students become more rounded individuals. Less attainment oriented schools believed that their students would react negatively if they introduced citizenship education through the GCSE short course and that it would put students under unnecessary pressure.

4.4.2 Curriculum level

- ◆ **Time and practicality** Time and practicality appeared to be major factors influencing how schools chose to deliver citizenship education. In particular, time and practicality were the key factors influencing schools which chose a cross-curricular approach to citizenship education.

- ♦ **Lack of guidance on assessment** Many schools explained that they had not implemented formal assessment in citizenship education as they did not know how. It was felt that training on assessment was either not available or, where it was available, was not sufficient. In addition, many schools felt that there was, as yet, insufficient guidance available from the LEAs, QCA or the DfES.

4.4.3 Teacher level factors

- ♦ **Staff perceptions of the status of citizenship education** Some schools chose to deliver citizenship education at key stage 4 through the GCSE short course as they felt that this ensured that staff, as well as students would see it as an important subject. In addition, some schools chose teachers who had status within the school, to deliver citizenship, partly to give the subject status in the eyes of other staff.
- ♦ **Staff understanding of citizenship education** Staff awareness of and training in citizenship education appeared a key factor in influencing the success of the implementation of citizenship education, especially for whole school events.
- ♦ **Staff views on the nature of citizenship education and assessment** Staff views of citizenship influenced whether or not some schools chose to use formal assessment. Many teachers viewed citizenship as something that was rather nebulous and immeasurable and therefore was not something that could be formally assessed through written tests or essays. Others felt that the most important aspects of citizenship education revolved around developing skills in discussion and debate, and in building up students' confidence and self esteem, themes which were not easily assessed in a formal way.

4.4.4 Management level factors

- ♦ **Senior Management perceptions of status of citizenship education** Senior management views on the importance of citizenship education for their school and its students directly affected the extent to which some schools adopted citizenship education, from the particular delivery approach they chose, to the type of assessment they used, to the topics and areas of citizenship education on which they focused.
- ♦ **Management views on the nature of citizenship education** Many senior managers as well as staff viewed citizenship education as something that was, by its very nature, difficult to assess, and as a result chose not to use formal assessment in their school.
- ♦ **School Ethos** The ways in which schools approached citizenship education in the curriculum, seemed to be strongly influenced by school ethos. Some schools chose to emphasise the social and moral responsibility strand as it fitted in well with the school's religious status. In addition, the more positive a school's ethos the more likely it was to use a wide range of delivery models, including extra-curricular activities.
- ♦ **Coordination** Whether or not schools had a citizenship education coordinator appeared to be a factor affecting the development of

citizenship in the curriculum. In addition, the status, enthusiasm, level of senior management support for and resources available to the coordinator seemed to impact further on the extent of development of citizenship in the curriculum.

4.4.5 Community level

- ♦ **Views of parents** Some schools stated that one of the factors influencing their approach to citizenship education was the views of parents: they felt that parents would not view citizenship education as an important or worthwhile subject if students did not take the GCSE short course.

4.5 Emerging Outcomes of Different Approaches to Citizenship Education in the Curriculum

The five factors explored above are interesting in their own right, but what do they suggest, when looked at in combination, about the approaches that schools are taking to citizenship education in the curriculum? At this stage most of the outcomes of citizenship education appear to be at curriculum, student and staff level, and relate to practical issues regarding implementation. These could be seen as first stage outcomes as they are issues related to the experiences of people directly involved in the implementation of citizenship education. Outcomes that may be seen in future years may be related to changes in practice in the wider school and the school's relationship with the community, as well as attitudinal changes in students.

4.5.1 Curriculum level outcomes

- ♦ **Time and coverage** Delivering citizenship education explicitly across the curriculum, as well as through other approaches, seemed to work well in terms of time and curriculum coverage. Some schools which took a cross-curricular approach were able to devote quite a lot of time overall to citizenship. In addition, many schools could not find the time to fit a discrete citizenship lesson into the timetable and some schools that could, found that they could not cover enough of the curriculum by only using the discrete lesson allocation.
- ♦ **Staff time** Time that staff had available to commit to citizenship education was an issue for many schools. In some cases, staff were recruited to teach citizenship education because they had time free in their timetable. Many of the schools that used this method of appointing citizenship teachers found that the staff were not always enthusiastic or experienced in teaching citizenship related topics. Even where experienced staff were involved in teaching citizenship education, schools found that these teachers often had many other priorities, so were not able to dedicate much time to citizenship education.

4.5.2 Staff level outcomes

- ♦ **Pressure on staff** Some schools found that using a cross-curricular approach, added additional pressure to staff, as it was yet another thing that they had to be aware of in their lessons. In particular, assessment was seen as causing particular problems for staff workload in schools which had a cross-curricular approach, as it caused too much paper work relative to the small amount of time for which the staff taught the students citizenship related topics. However, some schools found that the coursework of the GCSE short course also brought excessive work for teachers.
- ♦ **Staff perceptions of status** Teachers, as well as students, in some exam-orientated schools felt that citizenship as a non-examined subject lacked status compared to other subjects.

4.5.3 Student level outcomes

- ♦ **Incoherence of citizenship experience** Some case study schools felt that a cross-curricular delivery approach resulted in rather disjointed delivery of citizenship, and that, as a consequence, not all students received the same citizenship education depending on which teachers they had and which subjects they took. However schools which used discrete lessons to deliver citizenship education also experienced this problem in that the lessons were often too few and far between to engage and enthuse students.
- ♦ **Students' perceptions of status** Concerns in some schools about the need to give citizenship status as a subject through formal assessment, rang true in the experiences of students and teachers in exam-orientated schools. Such exam-orientated schools had found that citizenship as a non-examined subject was not well received by students, and that students felt that citizenship was a worthwhile subject when taking the GCSE short course. In less-exam orientated schools however, it seemed that it was not necessary to use the GCSE short course to give citizenship education status in the eyes of students, and in some cases teachers felt that students enjoyed the subject more, because it was not examined.
- ♦ **Usefulness of citizenship education** Both students and teachers commented that students found the contents of citizenship related teaching to be very useful. Some students felt that the knowledge they learned was more applicable to their everyday lives than knowledge learned in other subject areas. Furthermore, some teachers felt that citizenship education equipped less able young people, who may not go on to post-compulsory education, with more useful skills than other more traditional subject areas.

This chapter has examined how citizenship education was being taught through the formal curriculum. However, as was underlined in Chapter 1, citizenship education also involves an active citizenship dimension related to the school as a community and the wider community. How schools are approaching citizenship education in the school as a community is explored in the next chapter.

5. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOL AS A COMMUNITY

Key points

- ◆ This chapter looks at citizenship education in the school as a community and focuses on active citizenship approaches within the school. It explores whether there appear to be shared views of issues in schools regarding citizenship education, and the extent to which the school community is involved in implementation. It seeks to answer several key questions:
 - How do schools approach the implementation of citizenship education in the school as a community?
 - Are schools viewed as democratic institutions, and what opportunities exist for students to participate in the organisation and running of their schools?
 - What opportunities exist for students to take part in extra curricular activities?
 - Do students feel a sense of belonging to their school community, and what factors influence this?
 - What factors affect active citizenship within the school as a community?
- ◆ Approximately half of schools involved students in planning the implementation of citizenship education, and half the teachers surveyed reported that they had been involved in its planning. Most teachers felt they had a general understanding of citizenship education; however they were less clear about their school's specific plans.
- ◆ Responsibility for the development of the citizenship curriculum was shared between the citizenship education coordinator, senior management team and other members of staff in the majority of schools. Teachers and school leaders generally felt that citizenship education would improve students' awareness and participation, and would encourage them to become well-rounded citizens. Concerns were mainly focused around staff and curriculum time, assessment and reporting, and training and expertise.
- ◆ School leaders, teachers and students generally felt that their schools were somewhat democratic and that students had some say in the organisation and running of their schools; however, most felt that students were less involved in planning teaching and learning.
- ◆ Nearly half of students had been involved in school council elections, whilst one-eighth had taken part in their school council. Ineffective school councils were badly organised, led and advertised, whilst successful school councils had a high profile and were seen as effective by students.
- ◆ A range of extra curricular activities were offered by schools. Those that were taken up by students, most frequently were: sports activities, school councils, arts and fund raising activities.

- ♦ Most students felt part of their school community. Factors that encouraged a sense of belonging to and participation in the school community included respecting student opinions, good relationships between students and teachers, forging links between students of different ages, and a school ethos and senior management that encouraged participation.

5.1 Implementing Citizenship Education in the School as a Community

This chapter begins with an exploration of the approach schools took to implementing citizenship education, through the component of the school as a community. There follows an examination of how students and teachers were involved in developing plans for its introduction, and the perceived benefits, challenges and impact of citizenship education. The extent to which there is congruence in the views among school leaders, teachers and students is also explored.

5.1.1 Developing plans for delivery

Survey results reveal attempts in some schools to involve students and staff in the implementation of citizenship education. Indeed, almost half of the school leaders (48 per cent) said that there had been discussion with students about the plans for delivering citizenship education.¹⁹ In addition, just under half (47 per cent) of the teachers surveyed said that they had been involved in planning how citizenship education would be organised in their school. Of the half of teachers who said they were not involved in planning, two thirds (65 per cent) said they had been informed about the school's plans for the implementation of citizenship education.

However, this leaves around one sixth of teachers (17 per cent) who said they had neither been involved in planning for citizenship education nor been informed about their school's plans. Since the survey was among teachers who are most closely linked with citizenship education,²⁰ this may indicate that even larger proportions of the teacher population, in general, are not well informed of their school's plans for citizenship education.

Nevertheless, as Table 5.1 below shows, most of the teachers surveyed considered that they understood the aims and purposes of citizenship education and the requirements for its delivery and implementation. Half felt that they understood the specific requirements of the National Curriculum Order for citizenship, and more than half indicated that they understood how their own school was planning to implement the Order. However, one in five said they did *not* understand their own school's plans and a further one-fifth indicated that they were unsure. These issues are also covered in the factor relating to teachers' citizenship knowledge in Chapter 3.

¹⁹ See also Table 6.2, Chapter 6: Stakeholders involved in discussing plans for citizenship education
²⁰ Instructions to schools were that '*teacher questionnaires should be completed by teachers most closely involved with the delivery of citizenship education, or citizenship-related topics in the school*'.

Table 5.1 Teachers' understanding about the implementation of citizenship education

Proportion agreeing that they understand...	Teachers %
The aims and purposes of citizenship education	76
What needs to be covered in citizenship education	67
How citizenship education can be implemented in schools	64
The requirements of the National Curriculum Order for citizenship	51
How my school is planning to implement the National Curriculum Order	58
N = 87	

Base: All Teachers

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Most teachers claimed familiarity with the National Curriculum Order for citizenship (61 per cent), and half said they were familiar with the key stage 3 schemes of work (51 per cent), with slightly fewer saying this about the key stage 4 schemes of work and the DfES citizenship website (39 per cent and 40 per cent respectively). Considerably fewer mentioned familiarity with the Crick Report (Crick, 1998), (25 per cent of respondents), or the Advisory Group report on citizenship for 16-19 year olds (19 per cent) (FEFC, 2000). School leaders were generally more likely to be aware of most documents; all were aware of the National Curriculum Order and more than four fifths were familiar with the QCA schemes of work and the OFSTED inspection framework. Around three fifths of school leaders were familiar with the Crick Report and the QCA draft assessment guidelines for citizenship. Familiarity with these key documents is covered in the factors described in Chapter 3, which highlights a differentiation among school leaders between curriculum focused documents and those relating to policy, assessment and inspection.

5.1.2 Citizenship education: benefits and challenges

School leaders and teachers were asked, in an open question at the end of their questionnaires, to identify what they perceived as the main benefits and challenges of citizenship education. This provided the opportunity to look at issues about the wider and longer term effects of citizenship education on the school as a community and beyond, as well as citizenship education's place in the curriculum. Table 5.2 below summarises the key issues mentioned.

Table 5.2 Potential benefits and challenges of citizenship education for schools

Proportion mentioning benefits and challenges		School Leaders %	Teachers %
Benefits	Awareness of community or current affairs	33	27
	Participation: political, in school and in the community	24	19
	Benefits for students, staff and school	23	16
	Students making informed decisions/ thinking critically	18	11
	Fostering well-rounded citizens	16	25
	Improved tolerance/ respect/ relationships	14	25
	Students feeling empowered/ valued	13	13
	Developing the school as a community	13	5
	Improved social and moral behaviour / attitudes	7	21
Challenges	Staff time/workload	25	18
	Engaging the students	20	23
	Burden on curriculum time	20	18
	Assessment, recording and reporting	19	10
	Training/expertise	17	21
	Enthusiasm of staff	12	10
	Resources	10	11
	Coordination/ consistency across schools	7	13
N=84 (School Leaders) N=387 (Teachers)			

Base: All School Leaders; All Teachers

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

The benefits of citizenship education which were most often mentioned by teachers and school leaders related to the **development of students**, such as fostering an awareness of community or current affairs, participation (political, in school and in the community) and becoming well-rounded citizens, as well as more general benefits for the students, staff and/or the school such as improving the school ethos or more staff development activities. Thus perceptions of the positive effects of citizenship education very much focus around enhancement of the school as a community. The most frequently mentioned challenges, on the other hand, were primarily concerned with **teaching and delivery issues**, particularly staff time and workload; as would be expected, the challenges they identified reflect school leaders' and teachers' concerns as highlighted in Chapter 4. Engaging students' interest was also seen as a challenge by a significant proportion of school leaders and staff.

While the broad pattern of responses was similar for both teachers and school leaders, they did not necessarily hold the same views in the same school on many of these issues. There was, however, congruence between the degree to which school leaders and teachers in the same school perceived that fostering well-rounded citizens will be a benefit of citizenship education and that engaging the students remains a challenge.

5.1.3 Citizenship education: impact on the school as a community

School leaders and teachers were also asked about their perceptions of the potential impact that the introduction of the National Curriculum for citizenship education will have on the school as a community, and responses are shown in Table 5.3 below. While most of those predicting that citizenship will affect the school's life were anticipating 'some impact' rather than a 'large impact', nevertheless there are strong expectations that the introduction of citizenship education will make a difference to the school as a community.

Table 5.3 Impact of citizenship education on the school as a community

Proportion who expect some/ a large impact on:	School leaders %	Teachers %
Consulting with students when developing policies on issues which affect them	89	83
Behaviour of students in school	80	61
Students' confidence / self esteem	79	80
Students' participation in school activities (e.g. school council/ clubs and teams)	66	80
N=84 (School Leaders)		
N=387 (Teachers)		

Base: All School Leaders; All Teachers

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

It is clear that both school leaders and teachers expect that introducing citizenship education will lead to greater consultation with students on issues affecting them. The majority also expect to see an impact on student behaviour, confidence and participation in school activities, though there was a slight difference in emphasis, with school leaders more likely to expect changes in behaviour and confidence, and teachers to expect changes in confidence and participation.

5.1.4 A shared view of citizenship education within schools

At this early stage of implementation of citizenship education as a statutory subject, it is clear that there is a range of different perceptions of and attitudes to citizenship education and its impact on the school as a community. This section has highlighted instances where different views were held by the

school leader and teachers within the same school. They include instances where:

- ♦ school leaders and teachers within a school were not necessarily equally familiar with key documents relating to teaching citizenship education, and policy, assessment and inspection;
- ♦ there were different views from the school leader and teachers within a school about the impact of introducing citizenship education on the school as a community;
- ♦ there was little shared vision among the school leader and teachers within a school of either the benefits or the challenges of citizenship education which schools will have to deal with in the future

Overall, in response to a direct question on this issue of congruence, 46 per cent of school leaders said that they felt there was a common understanding of citizenship education in their school. However, around one-quarter (26 per cent) thought this was *not* the case and about the same proportion (27 per cent) said they did not know. This finding is consistent with what would be expected given the very early stage of development of citizenship education in many schools.

Composite measures have been compiled to summarise school leaders' and teachers' views on a range of issues relating to school ethos, as outlined in Chapter 3. These measures show that teachers and schools leaders broadly agree on the extent to which their school has a positive school ethos. It is probable therefore that as citizenship education becomes more established, there may be increased convergence of these in the future.

5.2 Are Schools Viewed as Democratic Institutions?

It has been argued that for citizenship education to become successful, schools must be democratic institutions in which structural change takes place to include a place for the student voice in all aspects of school planning and governance (Flecknoe, 2002; Alexander, 2002; Trafford, 2003; Ruddock, 2003). To provide a measure of how democratic schools were perceived to be, school leaders and teachers were asked about decision making in the school, and they, together with students, were asked about the extent to which students have an opportunity to play an active role in school organisation and management. These issues are identified in Chapter 3 in factors relating to democracy in school for teachers and school leaders, and student and personal efficacy for students.

5.2.1 School leaders' and teachers' views on opportunities to participate in the school

Almost four fifths (79 per cent) of school leaders surveyed agreed with the statement that the whole of the school is involved in discussions and decision making,²¹ while almost one-fifth (18 per cent) neither agreed nor disagreed.

²¹ See Table 10, Appendix 2: Perceptions of participation in school life and relationships in the school

Teachers were less likely to agree, although half (50 per cent) of teachers did feel that the whole of the school is involved in discussions and decision making. Both teachers (97 per cent) and school leaders (85 per cent) also considered that there were positive relationships within the school between staff and students.

Furthermore, looking at opportunities for student involvement in school, most school leaders and teachers tended to agree that:

- ◆ students had at least some say in how their school is run and organised, particularly through their involvement in school and student councils
- ◆ if students worked together rather than individually, they had more influence
- ◆ that students had the opportunity, at least sometimes, to discuss with teachers how to work during lessons
- ◆ students did not have much involvement in planning teaching and learning in class.

However, school leaders were considerably more likely than teachers to think that students were, at least sometimes, consulted about the development of school rules and policies.

Views on these issues are shown in Table 5.4 where the findings for school leaders and teachers are compared with those for students.

5.2.2 The students' perspective on participation

As Table 5.4 shows, students broadly appeared to share the views of school leaders and teachers in that most thought that they had at least some say in their school's organisation and management. Students were fairly positive about opportunities they had to participate in lessons. The proportion indicating that they could discuss with teachers how to work during lessons 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' was more than double the proportion of school leaders and almost double the proportion of teachers putting forward those views.

Table 5.4 Opportunities for student involvement in the school

Opportunities for students in school	Respondents	Not at all/ Not much %	Some %	Quite a bit / A lot %
Having a say in how the school is organised and run	School Leaders	23	48	30
	Teachers	28	50	22
	Students	32	30	36
Involvement in running the school, through school/student councils	School Leaders	6	31	63
	Teachers	14	37	48
	Students	24	22	51
Being consulted about the development of school rules and policies	School Leaders	9	50	40
	Teachers	36	35	28
	Students	26	25	45
Involvement in planning the teaching and learning in class	School Leaders	65	32	2
	Teachers	65	30	5
	Students	70	14	11
Discussing with teachers how to work during lessons	School Leaders	34	44	21
	Teachers	32	44	25
	Students	24	24	49
Having more influence when working together than individually	School Leaders	10	41	45
	Teachers	10	48	40
	Students	12	25	58
N =84 (School Leaders) N =387 (Teachers) N =18,583 (Students)				

Base: All School Leaders; All Teachers; All Students

A series of single response items; there was between 1-5% non response on some of the items.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Many students also considered that they were consulted, at least some of the time, about the development of school rules and policies, and that they had a say in how the school was organised and run. However, students had less involvement in planning the teaching and learning strategies in the class, with similar proportions of teachers, school leaders and students indicating that students were either ‘not much’ or ‘not at all’ involved in this. Furthermore, while half or more students, teachers and school leaders agreed that students could be involved ‘quite a bit’ or ‘a lot’ in running the school through school or student councils, a greater proportion of students than teachers and school leaders said students had little or no involvement through school or student councils.

Analysis of the survey data also revealed that there were links between opportunities for students to participate in school, the school’s ethos, and perceptions of the likely impact of citizenship education (factors which are

outlined in more detail in Chapter 3). Where school leaders or teachers felt that their school's ethos was positive, and where the impact of citizenship education was expected to be favourable, there were more opportunities for students (and staff) to take part in the organisation and running of the school.

5.2.3 The role of the school council

As noted earlier, around half the students felt that school councils provided an important opportunity for participation in running their school, and a further fifth that there was some opportunity for this. A later question established that almost half (45 per cent) reported electing school or class council members within the last 12 months,²² although only one in eight (12 per cent) said they themselves had been involved in a school council (this may often have been interpreted narrowly as being a council member). With the proviso that these students were in their first term at secondary school, and some of their reported involvement in school councils may relate to their experiences in primary schools, it would seem that school councils are perceived by many to represent an important way in which they can contribute to school life.

However, around a quarter of students felt that they as a student body had little or no influence on the running of the school through a school council, with students being much more likely to believe this than teachers or especially school leaders. This may reflect the fact that, in some instances, school councils may not be particularly visible to students, while some students may feel that they can have little influence since only a small proportion of students in any one school become representatives on such councils.

Evidence from the case studies can shed some light on these issues. School councils existed in seven of the case study schools, with varying degrees of success. In several schools student attitudes limited the success of the school council: either students were not interested in taking part at all, or initial enthusiasm fell away after a few months. This may be linked to another limiting factor mentioned by students in several of the case study schools, namely lack of awareness and organisation. Many students were unsure who their student representatives were, when elections took place and in some cases whether or not a school council existed in their school. Conversely, in a school where the school council was particularly high profile, it was seen as successful and effective by the students as evidenced in the comment of one student that '*Everyone knows who their form reps are because it's quite a big thing*'. In addition, several students in case study schools expressed frustration at the lack of organisation of the school council and their inability to make any difference. Some council representatives also described how the school council decision-making process was overly bureaucratic.

Teachers in schools where school councils existed, but were ineffective, described two particular problems: firstly a lack of leadership and secondly a non-participative school ethos. School councils were described as struggling or failing when the students in charge of the school council did not lead it

²² See Table 5.5 later in this chapter: Opportunities for participation in school and reported levels of participation

well, or when there was a lack of guidance and leadership from senior management in the school. In one school, teacher guidance and involvement in the school council resulted in the council being particularly successful. The second issue was described by two teachers in different schools who felt that it was difficult for school councils to be successful in their schools, because there was not a participatory ethos:

I think we are perhaps trying to talk about bringing democracy into a school which isn't democratic ... at the end of the day there is an authority there rather than a complete democracy.

In some of the case study schools, students did not feel that they had a voice in the school, despite the fact that school councils did exist. These schools appeared to have one characteristic in common: lack of support for participation from senior management. Students in one school felt that their headteacher was intimidating and unapproachable and that although teachers may listen to their views, the headteacher would most likely not act upon them. In another school the students felt that their headteacher would just dismiss their views. As a student in one school explained '*I don't think the school makes it very easy for you to get involved in things*'.

These findings are consistent with much of the literature in this area. A number of researchers have argued that society and schools in England are historically hierarchical and undemocratic, providing a difficult setting in which to establish successful opportunities for active participation through such mechanisms as a school council (Parker, 2003). It has been found that those who feel marginalised from the ethos of the school are less likely to participate in organisations such as school councils (UNICEF, 2002). Other researchers have emphasised the need for democratic institutions and processes, such as school councils, to be embedded in school structures and relationships, to be related to other citizenship provision and practices, and to be based on notions of consultation, transparency, respect and change in schools if they are to have a chance of success (Taylor and Johnson, 2002; Inman and Burke, 2002; Trafford, 2003; Hannam, 2003).

5.2.4 Congruence of views on democracy

The examination of the implementation of citizenship education earlier in this chapter highlighted the fact that, just after its introduction as a statutory subject, views were not necessarily the same among different groups within the same school. This is also the case in relation to perceptions of the school as a democratic institution. Analysis of the composite measures of democracy and student participation in school life (described in Chapter 3), revealed that while there are some areas of agreement between school leaders and teachers within the same school, generally there is not a strong correlation between their views. In addition, there was no correlation between the extent to which students felt that there were opportunities to participate in the running of their school, and the extent that school leaders and teachers felt that their school was democratic.

At present, therefore, it would seem that in many schools there are mismatches among management, staff and students in perceptions of democracy and opportunities for participation in school life and organisation. As citizenship education becomes more firmly established over time, and potentially begins to influence the whole school ethos, the views of the different groups may be expected to converge more closely.

5.3 Opportunities for Students to take Part in Extra-Curricular Activities

The first longitudinal survey included a question for school leaders about which clubs, groups and activities were available to students in their schools, and students were also asked which clubs, groups and activities they were involved in at school in the last 12 months. For Year 7 students this would include both activities at their new secondary school as well as those in their previous primary school. Table 5.5 below shows the activities most frequently mentioned.

Table 5.5 Opportunities for participation in school and reported levels of participation

Clubs, groups and activities	Availability in school	Involvement in last year
	School leaders %	Students %
Raising money for a good cause or charity	100	57
Sports clubs/teams	99	50
Art, drama, dancing or music clubs/groups	99	32
Computer clubs/groups	99	17
School/student councils	98	12
Voluntary activities in the local community	88	18
Peer mentoring or counselling	81	7
Preparing a school newspaper/magazine	75	11
Environmental clubs/groups	67	10
Religious groups or organisations	61	4
Mock elections	57	7
A school students exchange programme to another country	57	5
Electing school/class council members	n/a	45
Debating clubs/groups	38	4
Human rights groups or organisations	23	2
Political clubs/groups	16	3
N=84 (School Leaders)		
N=18,583 (Students)		

Base: All School Leaders; All Students

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Responses from school leaders show that schools offered a variety of opportunities for students to become involved in extra-curricular activities. Almost all school leaders reported offering activities in relation to raising money for charity, sports clubs or teams, performing arts clubs or groups, computer clubs, and school and student councils. A majority of school leaders reported that most of the activities shown were available to students in their school, though it is notable that debating clubs, and particularly political and human rights clubs or groups were only offered in a minority of schools.

Among students, the activities they most often reported taking part in were also among the most widely available according to school leaders, they include raising money for charity, sports activities and performing arts clubs or groups. In addition, many students mentioned that they were involved in academic activities such as subject-specific or homework clubs. While relatively few mentioned each of the other activities shown, almost one in five said they were involved in voluntary work in the community through their school. One in eight mentioned involvement in their school council, though as noted earlier, this low level of participation may be related to students interpreting this as being a council member. However (almost half of the students (45 per cent) mentioned that they had participated in electing class or school council members.

Analysis of the survey data revealed that there were links between school size, school ethos and extra-curricular activities. The larger a school and the more positive its ethos (as perceived by school leaders), the greater number of extra-curricular activities school leaders reported were available. However, there was not a strong link between perceptions that the school was democratic and the extent to which extra-curricular activities were available.

Many of the students in the case study schools reported taking part in a variety of activities, and one school, in particular, stood out as having a wide range of clubs for students to take part in such as debating club, film club and human rights club. Interestingly, this school also had a very active school council, and students reported that they had a voice in the school and felt that they were very much part of the school. Other schools reported practical difficulties in organising extra-curricular activities such as lunch breaks being too short for any activities to take place, and difficulties in students getting home following after-school activities in schools with large catchment areas. One school had overcome this problem by organising an after school bus service to take students home who wanted to participate in after school activities home.

5.4 Students' Sense of Belonging to the School Community

The majority (62 per cent) of students surveyed said that they felt part of their school either 'completely' or 'quite a lot', while 23 per cent said they felt that way 'a little' and six per cent 'not at all'. This is included as one of the elements in the factor relating to group membership and trust in Chapter 3. This finding is encouraging given that after the time of the survey in November 2002, these Year 7 students were still adjusting to the changed environment of

their new secondary school. It will be interesting to see in future surveys if there are any changes in this sense of belonging as the students become more familiar with and move up the school

In three of the case study schools, students felt very much part of the school community, whilst in an additional two case study schools, students felt part of the school community but only to a certain extent. Students and teachers pointed out a variety of factors that influence students' sense of belonging to the school community. Schools in which links between students of different ages were encouraged seemed to foster a greater sense of belonging. For example one school found that peer education initiatives between older and younger students helped students feel part of the school, whilst another school found that lunchtime activities had a similar affect.

A pastoral system organised by house rather than year group was seen by both students and teachers, as helping one school feel like a community, as it united students across year groups and allowed friendly inter-house competition. Evidence to support this came from a teacher in one school which had recently changed from a house system to a year group system, who felt that students were much more isolated and it was more difficult for teachers to form long term relationships with students.

Students who did feel part of their school community, often expressed a sense of commonality with other students; as one student stated '*we are all friends*', whilst another explained that there was a sense of community in her school '*maybe because we're from similar backgrounds*'. In contrast, a student who did not feel part of the school community stated '*I wouldn't say there is a community ... there are very few common experiences in school other than exams*'.

The case studies reveal that students who felt an affinity with the school ethos and the values it promoted were also more likely to feel part of their school community. A teacher in one school felt that '*The majority of them [students] do [feel a sense of belonging to the school] because the majority are willing to learn.*' On the other hand students in one case study school explained how they did not feel that school was a worthwhile activity as it did not teach them useful skills that they would be able to use after they left. Some students in case study schools also mentioned the impact of a sense of safety in school, in particular they noted that that they felt a sense of alienation from their local communities as they did not feel that they were safe places to be, by contrast they felt a sense of belonging to the safe, accepting place that school represented.

Another important factor in influencing students' sense of belonging to their school was whether or not students felt that their opinions were listened to and respected: students who felt that they did belong to their school, often stated that their views were valued and taken into account. Correspondingly, in schools where students did not feel part of the school community, many students believed that their opinions were not taken seriously. In addition student and teacher relations in general seemed to impact on students' sense of

belonging to the school community. Students in the case study schools who felt that their teachers were friendly and approachable appeared more likely to feel that the school valued their opinions, and as such that they had a place in the school community.

Given the importance of this type of factor, it is worth noting that the survey indicated that the majority (59 per cent) of students said they trusted their teachers in school either quite a lot or completely and just over one-fifth (21 per cent) said they trusted them a little. However, nine per cent said they did not trust their teachers at all, and a small proportion were uncertain, indicating that in some cases this might be an aspect of the relationships between staff and students which will need to be considered as the implementation and development of citizenship education progresses. The group membership and trust factor (see Chapter 3) includes the extent to which students say they trust teachers as well as other authority figures and institutions.

The case studies also highlighted that there were issues relating to the school catchment area which were linked to students' sense of belonging to the school. Schools with large catchment areas had contrasting experiences: some schools found that the long distances that students had to travel to school, meant that students felt part of the school community, as they made many of their friends at school rather than in their local communities. However, another school with a large catchment area found that students were often very divided as there was a strong sense of rivalry between students from different local villages which carried over into the school.

5.5 Overview

It is helpful, in order to review the ways in which schools involved in the survey and case studies were approaching citizenship education in the school as a community, to remind ourselves of the research questions set out at the beginning of the chapter. Each of these questions is considered in turn.

How did schools approach the implementation of citizenship education in the school as a community?

- Some schools tried to involve the school community in the implementation of citizenship education. Just under half of school leaders discussed plans for citizenship with students (48 per cent), whilst a similar proportion of teachers were involved in citizenship planning (47 per cent).
- Most teachers felt they understood the aims and purposes of citizenship education (76 per cent) and the requirements for its delivery (67 per cent). However, one-fifth said that they did not understand their school's plans for citizenship education; while over half (53 per cent) of school leaders said that there was not a common understanding of citizenship education in their school.
- In many schools, a range of staff including senior management, heads of year and teachers were involved in the development of the citizenship education curriculum (69 per cent). In some cases this did

not lead to a unified understanding of citizenship education and introduced the potential for a range of different views on how citizenship was being and should be implemented.

- The perceived benefits of citizenship education by teachers and school leaders were: to help students foster and awareness of community and current affairs, improve their participation and help them to become well-rounded citizens. They were concerned mainly about staff time and work load, curriculum burden, assessment and reporting and training and expertise. Within schools, school leaders and teachers did not generally share a similar vision of the benefits and challenges that citizenship education may bring, perhaps reflecting their different roles in the school or the early stage of implementation.

◆ **Are schools viewed as democratic institutions?**

- Half of school leaders and most teachers (79 per cent) felt that the whole of their school was involved in discussions and decision making.
- Most schools leaders (85 per cent) and teachers (97 per cent) felt that there were positive relationships between school staff and students.
- Most school leaders and teachers felt that students had some say in how their school is organised and run (78 per cent and 72 per cent respectively); students in their schools have more influence when working together, rather than alone (86 per cent and 88 per cent); students sometimes had opportunities to discuss with teachers how to work in lessons (69 per cent and 86 per cent); and that students did *not* have much involvement in planning teaching and learning in class (65 per cent of both school leaders and teachers).

◆ **What opportunities exist for students to participate in the organisation and running of their schools?**

- Students were generally more positive than teachers or school leaders about the opportunities they had to participate in lessons.
- Students felt that they were consulted some of the time about the development of school rules and policies and that they had a say in how the school was organised and run. Students had less involvement in planning teaching and learning strategies in class.
- More than half of teachers, students and school leaders believed that students were involved in the running of their school through school councils, however a greater proportion of students than school leaders or teachers felt that students had little or no involvement.
- There was little agreement in the extent to which school leaders and teachers perceived there to be democracy within their school, and the extent to which students felt there were opportunities for them to participate in the running of their school.
- Almost half (45 per cent) of students had been involved in school or class councils elections, although only one-eighth (12 per cent) had taken part in the school council.

- Case studies found that school councils were often limited by a lack of continual student interest, and that many school councils were badly organised and promoted. Teachers also attributed the ineffectiveness of school councils to a lack of leadership by students, a lack of support by senior management and a school ethos that did not encourage participation. Schools where student councils were successful, were ones where the council had a high profile and was seen as effective by students.
- ◆ **What opportunities exist for students to take part in extra-curricular activities?**
 - School leaders indicated that they offered a variety of opportunities for students to become involved in extra-curricular activities; most frequently sports clubs or teams, school and student councils, arts clubs and raising money for charity. A smaller proportion of students said that they took part in the activities than school leaders mentioned were available, however the most popular activities were similar.
- ◆ **Do students feel a sense of belonging to their school community?**
 - Most students said that they felt part of their school either ‘completely’ or ‘quite a lot’ (62 per cent), and students in the about half of case study schools felt a sense of belonging to their schools to a certain extent.
 - Case studies revealed a variety of possible factors that may influence students’ sense of belonging to the school community, such as encouraging links between students of different ages, the pastoral system, students’ affinity with and respect for the aims and ethos of the school and valuing and respecting students opinions.
 - Factors from case study schools which limited students’ sense of belonging to the local community included large catchment areas, and a history of rivalry between local communities.

5.6 Factors Affecting Active Citizenship Within the School as a Community

Case study and survey evidence points to a range of factors at different levels that influence the way in which active citizenship within the school as a community has developed within the schools involved in the Longitudinal Study. Student level and school level factors appear to be particularly influential at this early stage in the implementation of citizenship education. These factors include:

Student level factors

- ◆ **Links between students of different ages** Both teachers and students in case study schools revealed that they believed that measures that encouraged links between students of different year groups, such as peer mentoring, extra-curricular activities and a house style pastoral system,

helped foster a greater sense of belonging to and participation in the school community.

- ♦ **Students having a say** Students who felt that their opinions were listened to and valued by the school, appeared to be more likely to be happy to contribute to the school as a community, and to feel that they were part of the school community.
- ♦ **Attitude towards usefulness of school** Students who valued the school and felt that the qualifications it promoted were worthwhile and would be useful for them, were more likely to feel a sense of belonging to the school, compared to students who felt alienated by the education system and school in general.
- ♦ **Lack of enthusiasm and interest** Lack of student enthusiasm and interest in participating in mechanisms to make their voice heard, such as school councils, seemed to impact negatively upon students' contribution to the school community.
- ♦ **Lack of organisation and awareness of school councils** In many of the case study schools we visited, students were unaware of how they could contribute to the school as a community. Other students, although aware of the workings of their school council, did not feel that it was an effective route for communication, due a lack of organisation.
- ♦ **Lack of leadership** Many teachers indicated that their school council had not been a success because the students who led the council, were either not able to motivate other students, or were not motivated to participate themselves.

Teacher level factors

- ♦ **Relationships between students and teachers** Good relationships between teachers and students, seemed to foster a sense of belonging to the school community among students.

Management level

- ♦ **Lack of leadership of school councils** As well as lack of leadership at student level, lack of leadership and support for school councils from the senior management within a school, seemed to impact negatively upon the success of the school council.

School level

- ♦ **Pastoral system** A house based pastoral system, as opposed to a year based pastoral system, encouraged friendly inter-house competition and fostered links between students of different ages, and seemed to encourage a greater sense of belonging to and participation in the school community.
- ♦ **Safety in school** Students who felt that they and their belongings were safe within the school, and who did not feel threatened by other students, were more likely to feel a sense of belonging to the school community.

- ♦ **Non participatory ethos** Several teachers stated that they felt that the development of the school as a community was hindered by the non-participatory ethos of their school.
- ♦ **Lack of SMT support for participation** In addition, lack of senior management support for participation in the school, was cited as having a negative impact on the students' ability and desire to participate in the school as a community.
- ♦ **Practical difficulties** Practical difficulties, such as shortened lunch hours and a lack of facilities, appeared to limit the development of extra-curricular activities, which may lead to a greater sense of belonging to and participation in the school
- ♦ **School ethos and attitudes towards citizenship education.** Both teachers' and school leaders' views on how positive their schools' ethos was, and their views of citizenship education, seemed to be linked to the availability of opportunities for students to participate in extra-curricular activities, and the organisation and running of the school. This suggests that schools which have a positive ethos and promote positive attitudes towards citizenship education, are more likely to promote participation in the school as a community.

Community level

- ♦ **Catchment area** Schools with large and dispersed catchment areas appeared to have a variety of problems in terms of fostering a community within the school. Some schools found that students were unable to participate in after-school activities as many of them would have no way of travelling home afterwards. However some schools found that students felt a sense of commonality with other students in the school, as they all had to travel so far to be at the school.
- ♦ **Local community issues** Some case study schools found that they had difficulty in fostering a sense of whole school community, as many students at the school came from areas where there was a fierce sense belonging within the communities, but also rivalry between different communities, and that the school was not able to overcome these local differences.

These factors, operating at a number of different levels, serve to illustrate how different combinations of circumstances can facilitate or hinder the development of active citizenship in the school as a community. The next chapter moves on to explore the dimension of the development of citizenship education in relation to the wider community.

6. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION AND THE WIDER COMMUNITY

Key points

- ◆ Recognising that schools also play an important role in facilitating the interface between students and their wider community, this chapter considers the ways in which schools are creating opportunities for students to participate beyond the school. It investigates evidence from the schools surveyed and the case study schools and attempts to answer the following questions:
 - What opportunities exist for students to participate in their wider communities?
 - What opportunities exist for local communities to participate in the schools involved in the survey and case studies?
 - Do students feel a sense of belonging to and trust in their local communities?
 - What factors affect the opportunities schools provide for school and community interaction; and young people's relationship with their local communities?
- ◆ Most schools offered students opportunities for involvement in their local communities, through for example, fundraising for local charities, community based sports competitions and the Duke of Edinburgh Award scheme.
- ◆ About one-fifth of schools had discussed their plans for citizenship education delivery with members of the local community such as parents and community groups. In addition nearly half of teachers had involved external people in teaching citizenship education.
- ◆ Nearly two-thirds of students felt a sense of belonging to their local neighbourhoods, whilst approximately half felt a sense of belonging to their town and their country. Over two-fifths of students felt a sense of belonging to Europe. Students trusted their families most, whilst about half of students trusted other people of their own age and their neighbours.
- ◆ Four-fifths of school leaders and teachers expected that citizenship education would have some impact on students' future participation in the community and propensity to vote in elections.
- ◆ Factors that influenced reciprocal participation between schools and their communities, included student interest, teachers' and senior managers' views of and involvement in citizenship education, availability of facilities for students in the community, and for the community on the school site, historical relations between the school and the local area, and the communities' view of young people.

6.1 Relationships Between Schools and the Wider Community

In order to investigate opportunities for participation to take place between schools and communities, it is necessary first to look at the relationships the schools feel they have with their communities. The majority of school leaders (86 per cent) and teachers (72 per cent) involved in the survey felt that the relationships between their school and the wider community were positive.²³ Most schools had made information about the school available on the internet, although only a minority had done so for citizenship education information as shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Information or materials made available by the school on the internet

Information/materials available on internet	School Leaders %
Information about the school	81
Internet links to the local community	35
Internet links to other schools	32
Citizenship education lessons and activities	12
Citizenship education curriculum guidelines	11
N = 84	

Base: All School Leaders

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Many of the case study schools felt that they had good relations with their wider communities. Two schools felt that links between the school and community were facilitated by their status as faith schools, as they carried out charity work with local churches and members of local religious groups regularly visited the school. Other schools believed that their links with the wider community had benefited from their status as Specialist schools, as it involved working with other schools and groups in the community. Three of the schools visited acted as education and recreational centres for their communities in the evenings and at weekends, and these schools felt that this use of the school facilities enhanced the image of the school within the locality.

6.2 Opportunities for Students to Participate in the Wider Community

Most school leaders surveyed reported that their schools offered students opportunities to participate in voluntary activities in the local community (88 per cent). The schools least likely to do so were the more academic schools,

²³ See Table 10, Appendix 2: Perception of participation in school life and relationships in the school

and those where the school leader believed that the best place to learn about citizenship education is outside rather than within schools.

The case study schools cited a wide range of activities that provided their students with opportunities to participate in the local community. These included the Duke of Edinburgh Award scheme, Youth Enterprise scheme, working with and raising money for charities, visits to local hospitals and care homes, work experience opportunities, working to improve the local environment, musical and dance performances in the community and inter-school and community based sports competitions.

Of the case study schools visited, only a few emphasised the schools' relationship with the global community. Those that did, worked with schools in developing countries to offer exchange programmes, and raised money for improvements to the overseas schools' facilities. Over half of the survey schools indicated that they offered a school or student exchange programme to another country (57 per cent), with larger schools and those with the smallest proportion of students eligible for free school meals being the most likely to offer this. Larger schools may find it easier to resource the organisation of and participation in this kind of programme, while schools with a high proportion of pupils eligible for free school meals may be deterred if student financial contributions are required.

6.3 Opportunities for the Local Community to Participate in the School

As Table 6.2 shows, three in four school leaders had discussed their plans for delivering citizenship education with governors, and just under half had discussed plans with students. Fewer school leaders reported that other stakeholders were involved in the planning of citizenship education: just under one in four respondents had discussed their plans with parents, one in five with community groups and just over one in ten with feeder primary schools. For consultations with governors, students and parents, these proportions are higher than those reported in the first cross-sectional survey before citizenship education became a statutory subject for secondary schools, though there is very little increase in terms of involving community groups, and no change for feeder primary schools as shown in Table 6.2 (Kerr *et al.*, 2003a).

Table 6.2 Stakeholders consulted about plans for delivering citizenship education

Proportion of schools consulting...	First longitudinal survey (November 2002)	First cross-sectional survey (Spring 2002)
Governors	75	60
Students	48	29
Parents	23	12
Community groups	21	15
Feeder primary schools	12	13
N= 84 (November 2002)		
N = 245 (Spring 2002)		

Base: All School Leaders

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Schools which had made a wide variety of information available on the internet were more likely to have involved a greater number of people in planning citizenship education delivery. In particular, it would seem that existing established relationships with others in the community may have influenced which groups were consulted: those that had made links to other schools available on the internet, were more likely to have discussed plans for citizenship education delivery with feeder primary schools; and schools that had made internet links to local community groups were more likely to have involved community groups in planning discussions.

Almost half (47 per cent) of the teachers surveyed stated that they had involved someone external to the school when teaching citizenship-related topics. The main groups of visitors involved are shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 External visitors involved with citizenship education

Visitors to school:	Teachers %
Police or the armed forces	69
Voluntary groups	60
Local business people	24
Parents	20
Local politicians	18
Lawyers or judges	13
Prison, fire or social services	8
Health-related professionals	7
National politicians	6
Performing artists	6
Journalists	6
N=181	

Base: Teachers who had involved external visitors in citizenship education

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Teachers who involved more external people in the teaching of citizenship-related topics, tended to be those who felt their school had a positive ethos, who believed that citizenship education will have a positive impact on students and the school's relationship with the wider community, and who were themselves involved in the greatest variety of organisations in the community. This indicates that a positive school approach, as well as the teachers' own positive attitudes regarding citizenship education, might encourage them to introduce people from the wider community into the school. The extent to which teachers as citizens participate in the wider community also appears to be a factor, possibly in part because their own active involvement may extend the network of contacts they could draw on to take part in school activities.

Schools involved in the case studies also indicated that there were a range of external people involved in the delivery of citizenship. The majority of case study schools however, felt that links with the local community needed to be improved. Indeed, survey results reveal that almost two-fifths (39 per cent) of school leaders and over a quarter (28 per cent) of teachers said they had concerns about the involvement of the community.

Some case study schools explained that lack of time, money and the burden of risk assessment limited the opportunities they could offer, whilst other schools felt that large catchment areas and the geographical location of the school inhibited relations with their local communities. In addition, some schools felt that the students were not interested in participating in their local communities, whilst some members of a student charity group complained that many students only took part so that they had additional information for their UCAS university entrance forms. These findings suggest that this may be an

area in which some schools and professionals may benefit from further support.

6.4 Sense of Belonging to and Membership of the Local Community

Most of the students in the survey (60 per cent) felt part of their neighbourhood either 'quite a lot' or 'completely'. However, fewer said that this was the case in relation to their local town (49 per cent), their country (53 per cent) or Europe (41 per cent).

In over half of the case study schools, students generally felt a sense of belonging to their local communities. In some schools, respondents felt that this sense of belonging to the local community was due to the proximity of many of the students' homes to the school, who thus felt that the school's local community was *their* community. In other schools, the opposite was the case: students did not feel a sense of belonging to the school's local community, as they lived some distance away. In addition, some students lived in areas where there had traditionally been a sense of rivalry with the area in which the school was situated, which worked against a sense of belonging.

Attachment to the local community was not only linked to geographical location and local history, however. In a faith school, one student explained that her own and the school's religion provided a community and support network for her:

Being part of a community is important. Being part of the Catholic community is a privilege because there are always people there to support you - even if your family cannot.

Both students and teachers in the case study schools stated that the relationship between students and their local communities was negatively affected by the attitude of some members of the local community towards young people. They felt that young people were generally seen as trouble makers; as one student described, some members of their community believed that '*teenagers equal trouble*' due to the actions of a small minority. Many students felt that they were treated with unfair suspicion by adults in their community '*They are suspicious of you if you are like walking around. I was in an English Heritage thing and they were watching me walk around*'. In a similar vein one student described the reaction of his neighbours to a game he was playing '*They phoned the police 'cos I threw a stick at a conker tree*'.

In addition, teachers and students in the case student schools felt that there was a lack of free, safe facilities for young people in their local communities and that places which were provided for their use such as recreation grounds and youth clubs, had been ruined by older age groups through for example vandalism and drug taking. Without any spaces that young people could call their own, they felt that they had little opportunity to take part in their

neighbourhoods beyond formal groups such as sporting clubs and church groups.

Some teachers and students alluded to the way in which a lack of community facilities can lead to self-perpetuating negative stereotypes of young people. One student summed this up: *'People think of teenagers as stereotypes: hanging around causing trouble. But if you think why they do it: there's nothing else to do but to hang around'*. Consequently, young people may feel that their community holds unfairly negative views of them: as a teacher explained: *'I think that they [young people] see their position in the local community as very much "I'm a hooligan and they don't like me"'*. As such, young people may be unwilling to take part in a community which they feel holds such a view. As a headteacher in another school said: *'They don't see themselves as part of the local community because they don't see the local community as offering them anything'*.

Despite this negative relationship between some young people and their local communities, many students involved in the case study schools did feel a sense of duty towards other members of their community. Students at one school felt that within a community people *'have a duty to look after each other and make sure we get along well'*. In addition, students in many schools expressed a degree of disgust about the small minority of young people who vandalised their communities, thereby perpetuating negative stereotypes of young people. Furthermore, some felt that it was their responsibility to combat these stereotypes, one student stated *'Young people ought to make old people aware that they are not all trouble makers and they do not need to be scared of them'*.

The survey results show that approximately half of the students surveyed trusted people their own age (53 percent) and their neighbours (49 percent) 'quite a lot' or 'completely'. Case study findings show that the students held similarly mixed opinions about whether or not they trusted those in their community. Some students knew and trusted the majority of people in their neighbourhoods, whilst others stated that they would not walk about at night on their own, and some felt increasingly unsafe in their local communities. Perhaps, not surprisingly, given the age of these Year 7 students, their family was the group which most of the students in the survey (89 per cent) said they trusted as either 'quite a lot' or 'completely'. Composite variables summarising students' feelings of trust and belonging in their neighbourhood and within a tightly knit community are described in Chapter 3.

6.5 The Impact of Citizenship Education on the Wider Community

The three essential strands of effective education for citizenship, social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy, as defined in the Crick report (Crick, 1998), are intended to be developed through young people's education and training experiences from pre-school to adulthood. Thus citizenship education in secondary schools can be expected to contribute

to students' development as future adult citizens. School leaders and teachers were therefore asked about the longer term impact they thought the introduction of citizenship education would have on aspects of students' participation in the wider community in the future.

Around four-fifths of both school leaders and teachers thought that citizenship education would have an impact on the likelihood that students will vote in elections in the future, and their future participation in community activities such as voluntary work.²⁴ As with the expected impact of citizenship education on aspects of the school community (described in Chapter 5), most felt that there would be 'some' rather than a 'large' impact.

Similarly, around four-fifths of school leaders and teachers expected citizenship education to have an impact on the school's relationship with the wider community, including parents. These issues are summarised in the factors relating to the impact of citizenship education, described in Chapter 3.

6.6 Overview

In order to sum up the ways in which schools involved in the survey and case studies are approaching citizenship education and the wider community, the research questions posed at the beginning of the chapter are revisited:

- ◆ **What opportunities exist for students to participate in their wider communities?**
 - Most school leaders (88 per cent) reported that their schools offered students opportunities for involvement in the local community. Case study schools described a range of activities that they provided for students to participate in their local communities from the Duke of Edinburgh Award, to fundraising for local charities, to community based sports.
 - A smaller proportion of schools (57 per cent) offered opportunities for involvement in the global community, through student or school exchange programmes.

- ◆ **What opportunities exist for local communities to participate in schools involved in the surveys and case studies?**
 - Approximately one fifth of school leaders had discussed their plans for the delivery of citizenship education with parents (23 per cent) and with community groups (21 per cent), whilst a smaller proportion had discussed plans with feeder primary schools (12 per cent).
 - Nearly half (47 per cent) of teachers had involved external people in citizenship related teaching, most frequently the police and armed forces, and voluntary groups.

²⁴ See Table 11, Appendix 2: The expected impact of citizenship education

- ◆ **Do students feel a sense of belonging to and trust in their local communities?**
 - Nearly two-thirds of students felt a sense of belonging to their local neighbourhoods (60 per cent), whilst approximately half felt a sense of belonging to their local town (49 per cent) and their country (53 per cent), and a smaller proportion to Europe (41 per cent).
 - Approximately half of students trusted other people of their own age (53 per cent) and their neighbours (49 per cent), whilst the group most trusted were students' families (89 per cent).

6.7 Factors Affecting Relationships Between School and Community

Analysis of the survey and case study data revealed a number of factors, at different levels, that appeared to influence the relationships between the schools involved in the survey and the case studies and their local communities. They included:

Student level factors

- ◆ **Student Interest** Student interest in their local community influenced the extent to which students were involved with their local community. Students who had little interest in their local community, and who felt that it did not offer them anything were less likely to participate.

Staff level factors

- ◆ **Teachers' community involvement and views of citizenship education** Teachers' involvement in their local community, their views of citizenship education, and of their school, influenced the number of external people they involved in citizenship teaching. Teachers who involved the most external people, were more likely to be involved in their local community, to believe that citizenship education has the potential to affect students and the schools relationship with the community, and to believe that the school has a positive ethos.

Management level factors

- ◆ **School leader views and academic performance** Opportunities that schools provided for students to participate in their local community appeared to be influenced by how academic a school was, and the views of the school leader. Schools that were more academic and those whose leaders viewed citizenship education as something that should take place out of school were less likely to provide opportunities for their students to be involved in voluntary activities in the community.
- ◆ **Links to community groups and other schools** Links to other schools and groups in the community, affected the extent to which schools involved the wider community in their planning of citizenship education. Schools with

well established links to the wider community were more likely to have drawn on these in their planning discussions.

- ◆ **Community use of school facilities** Allowing the community to use school facilities at evenings and weekends for educational and recreational use influenced the image of the school within the locality.

School level factors

- ◆ **Religious status** Religious status appeared to influence schools' relationships with their communities. Church schools were able to access the organised and established church community, whilst some students felt a sense of support from and belonging to this community.
- ◆ **Specialist schools status** Specialist school status also seemed to influence schools' relationship with their communities, as it established formal links and relationships with other schools and groups in the local area.
- ◆ **Resource availability** Time, money and availability of resources influenced the ability of schools to offer their students opportunities to be involved in the community. Larger schools and those with fewer students claiming free school meals were the most likely to offer opportunities for community involvement.

Community level factors

- ◆ **Catchment area** The catchment area of a school affected the school's relationship with the community in a variety of ways: the distance which students had to travel to school influenced their attachment to the school's local community; whilst local history played a part in student perceptions of the local area.
- ◆ **View of young people in the community** The perceived view of young people within the locality influenced the willingness of students to participate in the community. The negative attitude of the community towards young people discouraged students from getting involved with and contributing to their local areas.
- ◆ **Facilities for young people** The facilities and organisations available to young people in their local area influenced the extent to which they were able to be involved in the community. A lack of facilities limited the opportunities for their involvement and did not encourage them to feel a valued part of that community.

In summary, factors that influenced reciprocal participation between schools and their communities were multi-layered and, included student interest, teachers' and senior managers' views of and involvement in citizenship education, availability of facilities for students in the community, and for the community on the school site, historical relations between the school and the local area, and the communities' view of young people.

Following the previous chapters on citizenship education in the curriculum (Chapter 4) and in the school as a community (Chapter 5), this chapter has explored the third component of citizenship education, in relation to the interface between the school and its wider community. All three of these aspects of citizenship education are drawn together in the next chapter in order to arrive at a typology of schools and the different approaches that have been adopted to citizenship education in the first year of statutory citizenship education in schools.

7. A TYPOLOGY OF SCHOOL APPROACHES TO CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Key Points

- ◆ The preceding chapters have examined the ways in which schools are approaching delivery of citizenship education in the curriculum, and how this fits in with the school as a community and schools' interactions with the wider community. In this chapter a typology of delivery approaches is developed, and the factors which influence the different approaches are identified. In particular the following questions are addressed:
 - What types of citizenship education are being provided nationally?
 - How do the different types compare?
 - What which factors are associated with the different types?
- ◆ Cluster analysis revealed four types of schools with different approaches to citizenship education.
 - **Progressing schools** were developing citizenship education in the curriculum, school community and wider community and were the most advanced in terms of citizenship education. They were seen as democratic, involved a range of people in planning citizenship education, used a range of delivery methods, recognised or planned to recognise achievement through awards, certificates or the GCSE short course, and offered a wide range of extra-curricular activities.
 - **Focused schools** were concentrating almost exclusively on developing citizenship education in the curriculum, but needed to build opportunities for active citizenship in the school and with the wider community. They were not seen as democratic, but involved a number of people in planning citizenship education, and used a range of delivery methods. They used awards and certificates to recognise achievement and offered a reasonable range of extra-curricular activities.
 - **Minimalist schools** were at an early stage of development in terms of citizenship education, used a limited range of delivery approaches and had relatively few extra-curricular activities on offer. They were not seen as democratic, did not involve many individuals in the planning of citizenship education and have not made plans for recognising achievement.
 - **Implicit schools** were not yet focusing explicitly on citizenship in the curriculum. They were seen as democratic and provided a variety of extra-curricular activities, and therefore have opportunities for active citizenship; however they did not include a range of people in planning citizenship education, and had no plans for recognition of achievement. With a greater focus on citizenship education within the curriculum these have the potential to become progressing schools.

- ◆ The factors that highlighted differences between these different groups of schools indicated that large schools with a positive, participatory ethos, that have previous links with the community; and that encourage active participation in class by students, are more likely to be progressing in citizenship education.

7.1 Developing a Typology

The preceding chapters have examined the ways in which schools are approaching delivery of citizenship education in the curriculum, and how this fits in with the school as a community and schools' interaction with the wider community. In this chapter a typology of delivery approaches is developed, and the factors which influence the different approaches are identified. In particular the following questions are addressed:

- ◆ What types of citizenship education are being provided nationally?
- ◆ What characteristics differentiate between these types?

It should be noted that, while student results are drawn from a total sample of 112 schools, this analysis is based on the 84 schools where school leader questionnaires were completed and returned.

7.1.1 What types of citizenship education are being provided nationally?

Drawing together information on citizenship education in the curriculum and its delivery, the school as a community, and schools as part of the wider community, a cluster analysis has been performed to identify groupings of schools with similar approaches to citizenship education. The key differentiators are the extent to which school leaders perceive their school to be democratic, and offer extra-curricular opportunities to their students, as well as issues specifically relating to citizenship education, such as the extent to which they use different delivery methods, involving a range of stakeholders (including students, parents, governors and others in the community) in developing plans for citizenship education, and implementing a scheme to recognise achievement. This typology identifies four types or clusters of schools, with about a quarter in each category:

- ◆ Progressing (24 per cent)
- ◆ Focused (27 per cent)
- ◆ Minimalist (23 per cent)
- ◆ Implicit (26 per cent).

The different characteristics of each cluster are described below.

Cluster 1 Progressing Citizenship Schools

These schools are explicitly carrying out citizenship education. They tend to have made the most progress in terms of implementation across all three components: citizenship education in the curriculum, and active citizenship in the school as a community and in the wider community. They are the most likely to have the following characteristics:

- school leaders tend to perceive them as democratic
- they tend to involve a variety of individuals or organisations in planning the delivery of citizenship education
- a wide range of delivery methods for citizenship education are used, and they are the most likely to include cross-curricular and whole school approaches (e.g. assemblies) and tutorials; most also use discrete lessons and extra-curricular activities
- they recognise or plan to recognise achievement using either awards or certificates, and in some cases the GCSE short course in Citizenship Studies
- they offer a wide range of extra-curricular activities and most offer an international exchange programme.

Case study example: a democratic school

One case study school visited was perceived not only by school leaders, but also by teachers and students, as very democratic. There were three key elements that appeared to facilitate democracy within the school.

- ◆ The first was the headteacher, who was seen by both students and teachers to be very approachable: many students indicated that they would be happy to talk to the head if they wanted discuss something. One teacher also stated: *'There's always an open door policy to the Head if necessary.'*
- ◆ The second element was the school council, which students were aware of and felt was important - one student reported: *'Everyone knows who their form reps are because it's quite a big thing.'* Most importantly, and uniquely among the case study schools, the students felt that the school council was effective and were able to point out its achievements: *'We asked for a water cooler and we've got one. We've got new trousers because the old ones were like the boys' ones and nobody liked them.'*
- ◆ The third way in which the school promoted democracy was by allowing students to have their say on key decisions made in the school, through for example allowing them to be involved in the staff recruitment process. One teacher described: *'Pupils do have a voice, they are treated as adults and listened to e.g. a panel of pupils interviewed the new Head.'*

Cluster 2 Focused Citizenship Schools

These schools have made some progress in implementing citizenship education, but their main focus has been a narrow one on developing explicit

citizenship education **in the curriculum**, and there is a need to build opportunities for active citizenship in the school community and with the wider community. They exhibit the following characteristics:

- school leaders tend to perceive their schools as not having a strong democratic tradition
- they have generally involved a number of individuals in the planning of citizenship education delivery
- they use a range of delivery methods, being the most likely to use discrete lessons and a whole school approach; many also use tutorials and the majority include extra-curricular activities for citizenship education
- awards and certificates are used for recognising achievement in citizenship
- they offer a reasonable range of extra curricular activities, though few offer international exchange programmes to students.

Almost all of this group of schools used discrete citizenship lessons, tutorials and whole school delivery (for example through assemblies) while three-quarters used a cross-curricular approach. Around two-thirds included extra-curricular activities within their citizenship provision, with others concentrating mainly on classroom based delivery.

Case Study example: an approach to assessment and recognition

One of the case study schools had tried to implement a plan for recognition of achievement in citizenship education, but did not feel that they had been successful. When the coordinator was asked how the school approached assessment, she replied '*badly*'. However, she did not feel that this was due to a lack of organisation or effort on her part.

- ◆ One element that influenced the school's approach to assessment was their belief that citizenship by its very nature was difficult to assess. Teachers in the school felt that citizenship education was about a '*whole person and way of life*' and as such was difficult to quantify.
- ◆ Furthermore, some teachers felt that teaching methods used in citizenship did not facilitate assessment. One teacher described using a lot of discussion and debate in citizenship education as the students enjoyed and gained a lot from these lessons. She felt however, that due to the teaching methods she used, assessment would be very difficult and completely subjective.
- ◆ The coordinator had tried to seek advice and support regarding recognition of achievement and assessment in citizenship education, in order to resolve some of the concerns the school had. She had attended training courses on assessment and sought advice from the LEA citizenship adviser, however, she did not feel that any information she had received had been helpful.

Cluster 3 Minimalist Citizenship Schools

These schools appear to be still at a planning stage regarding the implementation of citizenship education. Typically they:

- are not perceived by school leaders to be democratic
- did not involve many individuals in planning for the implementation of citizenship
- use the most limited range of approaches to citizenship education: while most have discrete lessons they are the least likely to use cross-curricular or whole school approaches or tutorials, and only a minority include extra-curricular activities
- have not yet made plans for recognising achievement in citizenship
- offer relatively few extra-curricular activities to students; there is a mixed approach to international exchange programmes.

Case Study example: limited extra-curricular opportunities

In one of the case study schools visited, neither teachers nor students felt that there were many opportunities for students to take part in extra-curricular activities:

- ◆ The Citizenship Coordinator commented that he did not really feel as though there were any citizenship related clubs for students to take part in.
- ◆ Some students mentioned that although there were some clubs available for them, there was very little for students who did not want to take part in sports related clubs.
- ◆ Lack of student interest in taking part in extra-curricular activities was a contributing factor. Some students explained that although some clubs existed they did not want to take part, as one student described '*they are either expensive or take up your time*'. Students also described their form tutors volunteering them for activities in which they did not want to be involved.
- ◆ The catchment area of the school also played a factor in activities that could be provided. As many students were bussed in from some distance, and there was poor public transport provision in the local area, few students were able to stay after school to take part in extra-curricular activities.

Cluster 4 Implicit Citizenship Schools

Schools in this group are perceived to be democratic, and make wide use of extra-curricular opportunities for students, though they are not far advanced in their implementation of citizenship education. In particular, they have given little consideration to the development of explicit citizenship education **in the curriculum**. Typically, they exhibit the following characteristics:

- school leaders consider their schools to be democratic

- their delivery of citizenship education is particularly likely to involve discrete lessons and extra-curricular activities, while they are less likely to involve a tutorial programme
- they offer a wide range of extra-curricular activities for students; some offer an international exchange programme.

However, schools in this cluster

- did not include a range of people in developing their plans for citizenship education
- have not developed schemes for recognition of achievement in citizenship education.

It appears that the introduction of statutory citizenship education may have had little impact on practice in these schools. They seem to have a laissez-faire approach to the delivery of citizenship education through the curriculum, opting for implicit citizenship education through existing approaches prior to the introduction of statutory citizenship related to students' active experiences in the school as a democratic institution and through considerable opportunities for extra-curricular activities. This contrasts with the explicit citizenship education approach of *Progressing* and *Focused* schools; however, if these *Implicit* schools put more emphasis on citizenship within the curriculum they have the potential to become *Progressing* schools in the future.

Case Study example: a laissez-faire approach to citizenship

One school involved in the case studies had appointed a citizenship coordinator, and were considering plans for citizenship education, but had not yet implemented it fully within the curriculum. They were however covering certain aspects of the citizenship education curriculum through existing activities:

- ◆ The school had fairly active year councils and provided a range of extra-curricular activities including a very active charity committee.
- ◆ As a Specialist Language College, there was a focus throughout the school on the global community and anti-racism.
- ◆ Certain aspects of citizenship were covered in subjects such as Religious Education, history, geography and English.
- ◆ However, citizenship education as a subject had little status in the school and in fact had received a fairly negative reception from some teachers. Furthermore the headteacher did not see it as a major priority: *'I can't say I'm happy about trying to deliver it as a core element'*.

7.2 How the Different Types Compare

Table 7.1 on the next page summarises the key characteristics of each cluster of schools, and allows comparisons of their key features.

Progressing schools stand out from those in other clusters as being more advanced in their approach to citizenship education: they are the most likely to involve a variety of individuals or organisations in planning their delivery, and more of them reported offering extra-curricular activities and international exchange programmes. In terms of the curriculum, they use the widest range of delivery methods for citizenship education, almost all reporting cross-curricular delivery, a whole school approach (including assemblies and special events), discrete lessons and tutorials. In contrast, other clusters of schools are less likely to have adopted a cross-curricular approach.

Both *Progressing* and *Focused* schools have implemented or made plans for schemes for assessment and recognition of achievement, while most *Minimalist* citizenship and *Implicit* schools have not done this. *Progressing* schools are the most likely to be offering the GCSE short course in Citizenship Studies.

Overall an **explicit** approach to citizenship education has been adopted in *Progressing* and *Focused* schools, though in *Focused* schools this is mainly concentrated within the curriculum, while *Progressing* schools also include democratic practices in the school and extra-curricular provision within their delivery approach. *Minimalist* citizenship and *Implicit* schools are at an earlier stage of implementation of citizenship education, with *Implicit* schools taking a more understated approach. *Minimalist* schools are the least likely to have adopted any delivery approach other than discrete lessons. *Implicit* schools, like *Progressing* schools but in contrast to *Focused* and *Minimalist* schools, make widespread use of extra-curricular activities. *Focused* schools are the least likely to offer international exchange programmes for students.

The extent to which schools are viewed as democratic institutions also highlights an important difference between clusters: *Progressing* and *Implicit* schools tend to be seen as democratic, while *Focused* and *Minimalist* schools are not.

Table 7.1 Characteristics of schools in each cluster regarding citizenship education implementation

Variables:	Progressing	Focused	Minimalist	Implicit Citizenship
Democracy in school	Mostly high	Mostly low	Mostly low	Mostly high
How many involved planning citizenship education	Mostly high	Mostly medium or high	Mixed	Medium or low
Recognition of achievement	Either Awards/ Certificates or GCSEs	Awards/ Certificates almost exclusively	Mainly non-existent	Mainly non-existent
Delivery methods (apart from extra-curricular)	Use most methods, especially cross-curricular, tutorials	Use most methods, especially discrete lessons, tutorials	Use fewest methods, least use of cross-curricular, tutorials	Use a range of methods, especially discrete lessons, often <i>not</i> tutorials
Use of extra-curricular activities for citizenship	Mostly including extra-curricular	Mixed, mostly including extra-curricular	Mostly <i>do not</i> use extra-curricular	Mostly including extra-curricular
Amount of extra-curricular activities offered	Mostly high	Low or medium	Low or medium	Mostly medium or high
International exchange programme	All offer	Most <i>do not</i> offer	Mixed	Mixed
N = 84	N=20	N=23	N=19	N= 22

7.2.1 Future scope for analysis

Two further variables were considered in the cluster analysis, though they did not at this stage contribute to differentiating between groups of schools. One of these was the issue of involving external visitors in teaching citizenship topics, where there was a range of answers within each of the groups identified. The second issue was offering opportunities for students to take part in voluntary activities in the community, and a high proportion in each group did this.

The scope for additional detailed analyses is limited by the small number of schools in each group, in a total sample of 84 schools (although 112 schools participated in this longitudinal survey, school leader questionnaires were returned for only 84). This typology of schools can be applied in future surveys, and for instance in the second cross-sectional survey, to be conducted in spring 2004 there will be a sample of 300 schools which may allow more detailed differentiation.

7.3 What Factors are Associated with the Different Types?

A number of factors have already been described throughout the report that are associated with various features of the way in which schools are implementing citizenship education. In this section these factors are examined to establish how they were associated with the four groups of schools in our typology.

The factors which differentiated between the four groups of schools were as follows:

- ◆ **Positive school ethos:** on average, according to both school leaders and teachers, *Progressing* schools had the most positive school ethos whereas *Focused* and *Minimalist* schools had the least positive ethos.

Case Study example: different effects of school ethos

The case studies highlighted the ways in which school ethos had an impact on the implementation of citizenship education in different schools.

- One case study school was a faith school and had a strong religious ethos. The social and moral responsibility strand of citizenship education fitted in well with their ethos, and as such they found this aspect of citizenship easy to embed.
- In another school, teachers felt that the school ethos did not encourage participation and active citizenship. One teacher described the ethos as ‘*about keeping kids in check, rather than making them feel welcome*’. Consequently, they found that their students were not enthusiastic to take part in extra-curricular and voluntary activities.

- ◆ **Information made available on the Internet** about the school, citizenship education, other schools and the community: on average, *Progressing* schools had made the most information available and *Minimalist* and *Implicit* schools had made the least available.

Case Study example: community links

The case studies revealed that schools which had well established links to other schools and community groups, through for example religious connections, or through Beacon or Specialist College status, found that they had a good base from which to develop the community participation element of citizenship education. As the survey suggested, schools which make information available on the internet are likely to be those with well established community links, so may have found the implementation of this element of citizenship education relatively straightforward.

- ◆ **School size:** *Progressing* schools were typically the largest (average size 1209), *Minimalist* schools were in the middle range (average 1033), and *Focused* and *Implicit* schools were the smallest (average size 927 and 911 respectively)

Case study example: different effects of school size

The case study schools demonstrate an example of where school size was *not* advantageous for citizenship in the school as a community:

- The citizenship coordinator in one school felt that because the school was so large, many students did not feel a sense of belonging and duty to the school, and as such were reluctant to participate in and contribute towards the school community.

However the school was able successfully to implement citizenship the curriculum. Larger schools may have more resources and skills available to them, and more flexibility in using them, so may be able to mobilise these resources for the introduction of citizenship education to the curriculum more quickly than other schools.

- ◆ **Active involvement in class by the students** as reported by teachers: on average, this was greatest for *Progressing* schools and least for *Focused* schools.

Case study example: active teaching and learning

In one case study school visited, citizenship was delivered through the humanities department by teachers with a range of experience and teaching styles. The citizenship coordinator believed that those teachers that normally used participatory, active methods of teaching were more likely to be comfortable and confident teaching citizenship education than those with more traditional didactic teaching methods. Furthermore, the coordinator felt that because teachers who used active teaching styles took more naturally to citizenship teaching, they were more likely to view it in a positive light. This suggests that in schools where active teaching methods are encouraged, the implementation of citizenship education may be somewhat smoother.

Other factors did not highlight important differences between the four groups of schools, though again in part this may be related to the small number of schools in each group, which limited the potential for analysis. In particular, it is interesting to note that there was no significant differentiation in terms of school leaders' or teachers' attitudes towards citizenship education in terms of the positive impact on students and relationships with the wider community, and its importance and political impact, nor according to whether school leaders felt that there was a common understanding of citizenship education in their schools.

Some additional variables were examined to explore further differences between the four groups of schools. Although not at a statistically significant level, school leaders' concerns about developing community relationships emerged as an area of differentiation: school leaders in *Implicit* citizenship schools were the most likely to be concerned about this, while those in *Focused* schools were the least likely. The emphasis on extra-curricular

activities in *Implicit* schools may have helped to make them particularly aware of the challenges of forging strong community links, while in *Focused* schools a focus on citizenship in the curriculum may have been given priority over looking at the school's role in the wider community.

Another area where a difference emerged between clusters of schools was in the reasons given for their school's approach to delivery of citizenship education. School leaders in *Progressing* and *Minimalist* schools tended to say that their approach was chosen to avoid over-crowding the curriculum. This concern had been addressed in two very different ways. *Progressing* schools, which had made the greatest strides in their implementation of citizenship education, were the most likely to be using a cross-curricular approach, and were using most other delivery methods as well. In contrast *Minimalist* schools, which had made the least progress in developing citizenship education, used the most limited range of delivery methods overall, being the least likely to have a cross-curricular approach or to use extra-curricular activities.

7.4 Overview

The characteristics of different clusters of schools described in this chapter are evidence of the early stage of implementation of citizenship education, and the variety of ways that schools are approaching it. Differences between the clusters may become more pronounced over the course of the Longitudinal Study, with some schools already laying the foundations to be advanced in their approach, whilst others may remain focused. However this may not be a linear development and, in particular, schools which are currently categorised as *Implicit* schools may become *Progressing* schools in future years, whilst some *Progressing* schools may develop no further and become more like *Implicit* schools in their approach.

The previous three chapters have outlined school approaches to citizenship education in the curriculum, school community and wider community. The next chapter seeks to draw together these findings in order to identify the main factors that are influencing school approaches to citizenship education and to summarise the key lessons and action points that emerge from the first longitudinal survey and school case studies.

8. CONCLUSIONS AND KEY MESSAGES

Key Points

- ◆ The preceding chapters have examined how the survey and case study schools are approaching the three components of citizenship education: in the curriculum, in the school as a community and in the wider community. The aim of this chapter is to draw together the findings of the previous chapters in an attempt to answer the following key questions:
 - What have we learned about the types of citizenship education being provided nationally, the factors that appear to influence the development of these types of provision, and the potential impact of these various factors on the future development of citizenship education?
 - How far do our conclusions match those of other citizenship education studies and research?
 - What are the key messages in the findings from the first longitudinal survey for different audiences involved in developing citizenship education? (policy-makers, school leaders, citizenship co-ordinators and teachers, young people and researchers)
- ◆ Reviewing the types of citizenship education currently being provided in survey and case study schools suggests that they are uneven, patchy and evolving. There is considerable work still to do in the majority of schools in developing citizenship education. Few schools, have, as yet, recognised the broad scope of citizenship education and attempted to translate it into a holistic and coherent whole-school policy. This suggests the need for schools to revisit the understanding of citizenship education upon which they have based their current policies and practices and review these approaches.
- ◆ The most salient factors that influence approaches can be divided into two groups: factors related to the **implementation of citizenship education** and factors relating to the **school context**. From these it is possible to identify and summarise the key factors that underlie the most successful provision of citizenship education to date. These are those relating to **school level** and **learning context level** factors.
- ◆ The findings both match existing citizenship education studies and research but also add considerably to what is known about the development of citizenship education in schools, particularly in terms of the types of approaches and the factors that influence these approaches.
- ◆ The findings contain a number of key messages and action points for policy-makers, school leaders, citizenship co-ordinators and teachers, young people and researchers. They underline the need for the findings to be made more widely available in ways that enable these groups to review and adjust their current attitudes and approaches to citizenship education.

8.1 Conclusions and Key Messages in Context

The preceding chapters have examined how the survey and case study schools are approaching citizenship education in the curriculum, in the school as a community and in the wider community. They have looked at the different approaches schools are following and examined some factors that are influencing the ways in which citizenship education is being developed. The aim of this chapter is to draw together the findings of the previous chapters in an attempt to answer the following key questions:

- ♦ What have we learned about the types of citizenship education being provided nationally, the factors that appear to influence the development of these types of provision, and the potential impact of these various factors on the future development of citizenship education?
- ♦ How far do our conclusions match those of other citizenship education studies and research?
- ♦ What are the key messages and action points in the findings from the first longitudinal survey for different audiences involved in developing citizenship education? (policy-makers, school leaders, citizenship coordinators and teachers, young people and researchers)

However, before attempting to answer these questions it is important to remind ourselves of the context within which this report is framed in terms both of the conduct of the Longitudinal Study and the progress of the citizenship education initiative. As was outlined in Chapter 1 the findings presented in this report are important in five respects.

- ♦ They establish a baseline of the attitudes of students, teachers and school leaders to citizenship and education in the first year following the introduction of statutory citizenship education into schools in September 2002. This is particularly important given that these Year 7 students (over 18,000 in number) comprise the longitudinal cohort whom the Study is going to follow, through their school and college experiences, from now until they are 18.
- ♦ They detail not only what is happening in terms of emerging approaches to citizenship education in schools in the academic year 2002 to 2003 but also begin to identify and explore the factors which influence the decision making process in schools concerning citizenship education.
- ♦ They present a typology of school approaches to citizenship education, which is helpful at this early stage of the citizenship initiative, in clarifying what is happening and in identifying positive aspects and areas for development.
- ♦ They contribute considerably to the limited but growing research base on citizenship education and political socialisation in England, and need to be seen alongside other reports on developing practice in citizenship education, such as those by OFSTED and QCA, and the outcomes of the evaluation of the Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects.

- ◆ They add to the outcomes of the Longitudinal Study, in particular, they need to be seen alongside the first report on the first cross-sectional survey and first annual literature review, and help to clarify the purpose of the longitudinal surveys and their relationship to the Study's other components.

It is vital that this context is understood because it provides the backdrop against which the conclusions and key messages should be reviewed, debated and acted upon.

8.2 What Have We Learned about the Types of Citizenship Education being Provided Nationally?

Four types or clusters of schools were identified in the previous chapter based on information about how citizenship education was being approached in the schools surveyed. They are as follows:

- ◆ **Progressing schools** which were seen as democratic, involved a range of people in planning citizenship education, used a range of delivery methods, recognised or planned to recognise achievement through awards, certificates or the GCSE short course, and offered a wide range of extra-curricular activities.
- ◆ **Focused schools** which were not seen as democratic, but involved a number of people in planning citizenship education, and used a range of delivery methods. They used awards and certificates to recognise achievement and offered a reasonable range of extra-curricular activities.
- ◆ **Minimalist schools** which were at an early stage of development in terms of citizenship, they used a limited range of delivery approaches and offered relatively few extra-curricular activities. They were not seen as democratic, did not involve many individuals in the planning of citizenship education and have not made plans for recognising achievement.
- ◆ **Implicit schools** which were seen as democratic and provided a range of extra-curricular activities, but did not include a range of people in planning citizenship education, and had no plans for recognition of achievement.

Given the representative nature of the school sample, it is probable that the characteristics of the schools surveyed are consistent with how citizenship education is being approached nationally across schools in England. However, it is important to emphasise the exploratory nature of the school clusters or types at this early stage of the development of citizenship education. They are a first attempt to categorise school approaches to citizenship education and, as such, are liable to review and revision during the course of the Longitudinal Study.

Nevertheless, the clusters or types provide a useful function in identifying not only the types of citizenship education that are being provided by schools but also their approaches to each of the three components of citizenship education, as set out in Chapter 1, namely citizenship education in the:

- ♦ Curriculum
- ♦ School as a community
- ♦ Wider community

Indeed, it is the approach to these three components that differentiates the four school clusters or types identified in this report.

So what have we learnt about school approaches to these three components and how they combine to define a school's approach to citizenship education? The preceding chapters reveal a strong foundation for the development of citizenship education in the survey and case study schools. There is:

- ♦ general support among school leaders and teachers for the introduction of citizenship education
- ♦ understanding of what citizenship education is about based on a reading of the key curriculum documents
- ♦ confirmation of existing coverage of some aspects of the new citizenship curriculum
- ♦ good relationships with the wider community
- ♦ recognition of the potential benefits of citizenship education for schools young people and communities.

As a result, every school has views about citizenship education and existing practice which influences the approach being taken to the new statutory subject.

8.2.1 Citizenship education in the curriculum

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 reveal that in the survey and case study schools, the majority of effort and activities concerning citizenship education, in 2002 to 2003, was focused on the development of this component. This is not surprising given the need for schools to respond to the introduction of statutory citizenship as a new national curriculum subject in September 2002. The only exception was *Implicit* schools, where it was assumed that this component was covered by their existing approaches to citizenship education prior to September 2002. Most schools have the implementation of citizenship in the curriculum well under way: they have conducted an audit, appointed a coordinator, are considering assessment, and are employing a range of delivery methods. This explains the increased identification in these schools, as compared to the results from the first cross-sectional survey (Kerr *et al.*, 2003a), of citizenship as a specialist subject in the curriculum, most commonly as modules in PSHE programmes.

Two factors tend to differentiate school approaches to citizenship in the curriculum, namely, the range of delivery approaches and the extent of the development of assessment policies. *Progressing* schools, in particular, stand out as employing the widest range of delivery methods, though this may be a sign of schools experimenting with different approaches at this stage to see

which works best for them. If this is the case, there may be a reduction of delivery methods used in schools as citizenship education practice becomes more established. *Progressing* schools are also those with the most clearly defined policy for recognition of student achievement. Evidence from Chapter 4 indicates that many schools have not yet developed policies for recognising achievement because they were not sure how to assess and report citizenship education and teachers reports a lack of official guidance on this area.

8.2.2 Citizenship education in the school as a community

In terms of **citizenship education in the school as a community**, most teachers feel they have an understanding of citizenship education, though they are less clear about their schools' plans for implementation. Two factors tend to differentiate schools in their approach to this component, namely, the degree of involvement of the school community (school leaders, teachers, young people and community representatives) in the planning and implementation of citizenship education, and the extent of student participation and active involvement in the school as a democratic community. Almost half of schools have attempted to involve the school community in the planning of citizenship education with a range of middle to senior managers engaged in the development of the citizenship curriculum. *Progressing* schools are those that have involved the widest range of people in the development of citizenship education within the school.

Progressing schools are also those that are seen as democratic by school leaders. Chapter 5 shows that school leaders, teachers and students generally feel that their schools are somewhat democratic and that students have some say in the organisation and running of their schools, though they are less involved in planning teaching and learning. Whilst nearly half of students have taken part in school council elections, the case studies reveal that many school councils are not seen as effective by students and are often badly organised, led and advertised.

However, findings also reveal a gap in many schools between the development of citizenship in the curriculum and that of active citizenship in the school as a community, at this stage. The relationship between the two components is not straightforward. One does not necessarily lead to the other. Rather they can be developed and exist separately and exclusively, as highlighted in the approaches of *Implicit* and *Focusing* schools. Whereas *Implicit* schools are seen by school leaders as democratic they do not involve a range of people in planning citizenship in the curriculum, while *focusing schools* are the exact reverse. This suggests that the development of active citizenship in the school as a community may not have been directly influenced by the statutory implementation of citizenship education but rather may or may not have existed prior to September 2002.

8.2.3 Citizenship education and the wider community

Overall, most schools feel that they have a positive relationship with the local community upon which to build. Indeed, a variety of opportunities exist in the

survey and case study schools for interaction with communities beyond the school. However, as Chapter 6 reveals, the relationship between schools and the wider community is not always simple or straightforward.

Developing citizenship education in the wider community appears to be less of a priority for many schools and school leaders, in comparison to developing the other two components of citizenship education. Indeed, a significant proportion of school leaders cited this component as an area of concern. What tends to differentiate school approaches to this component is the extent of provision of extra-curricular activities and the degree of support for and priority given to its development. The evidence of a wide range of extra-curricular activities on offer in both *Progressing* and *Implicit* schools suggests that provision of extra-curricular activities and even links to the wider community overall, may not be things that have been directly influenced by the statutory implementation of citizenship education, but rather may facilitate the future development of citizenship education within the local community.

Reviewing approaches to the three components of citizenship education, in combination, reveals that the most striking feature of the types of citizenship education currently being provided in survey and case study schools is that they are uneven, patchy and evolving. There is considerable work still to do in the majority of schools in developing citizenship education not just in the curriculum, but also through the school community and wider community. Few schools, beyond those identified as *Progressing*, have, as yet, recognised the broad scope of citizenship education and attempted to translate it into a holistic and coherent whole-school policy. This suggests the need for schools to revisit the initial understanding of citizenship education upon which they have based current policies and practices, in the light of the broad scope of the three components of citizenship education, and to amend those policies and practices accordingly.

Such a review would reveal both the considerable gaps and weaknesses as well as the strengths in the current approach of schools to each of the three components of citizenship education. It would highlight, for example, that the most workable approach to citizenship in the curriculum requires more thought as to the right mix of delivery methods and a response to improved advice and guidance on how to develop policies for recognising achievement. It would also reveal that the approach to citizenship education in the school as a community needs further consideration of the policies and practices that promote meaningful consultation and participation in schools not just for school leaders and teachers but also for community representatives and, crucially, for students. Finally, it would underline that the approach to citizenship education in the wider community needs to be made a higher priority and activities developed which not only strengthen this component but also provide greater connectivity to the other two components of citizenship education. These are important messages for those involved in developing citizenship education in schools.

We have also learnt that the types of citizenship education being provided by schools have been influenced in their development by a range of factors which work at many different levels, including school, school leader, teacher, student, curriculum, management and community levels. Indeed, it is the complex interaction of these factors that helps to explain how citizenship education is being approached and developed in the survey and case study schools.

8.3 What Have We Learned about the Factors that Appear to Influence the Development of the Types Citizenship Education being Provided?

The investigation in the longitudinal survey and case study schools, not just of what schools are doing in terms of citizenship education but also of some of the reasons why they are taking these approaches, is a new and exciting development for the Longitudinal Study. It has led to the identification and exploration of a number of key factors that are influencing the development of citizenship in the curriculum (Chapter 4), school community (Chapter 5) and wider community (Chapter 6), and enabled the drawing up of a typology of school approaches to citizenship education (Chapter 7). It has helped the research team to learn more about:

- ♦ the most salient factors at different levels (school, teacher, student, community, for example) and how they group
- ♦ a division between factors related to the implementation of citizenship education and those relating to the school context
- ♦ how this division played out in practice as citizenship education engaged with existing school contexts.

This learning has also enabled the research team to begin to:

- ♦ identify and summarise the key factors that appear to underlie the most successful citizenship education provision to date.

Each of these aspects is explored briefly, in turn, in the sections that follow.

The identification of factors that appear to influence the development of citizenship education in schools underlines the complex processes behind such development and the multi-layered nature of their influence. Approaching citizenship education in schools is much more than turning a curriculum policy document into practice. It involves, among other things, interaction of people and their belief and value systems, influence from a range of contexts and experiences both in and beyond the schools, such as school ethos and pastoral systems, and the need to strike a balance between the competing pressures and priorities from a range of factors at different levels. Though there are similarities in how these processes play out across schools there are also subtle nuances and striking differences which are peculiar to each school context.

Analysis of the survey data and case study evidence reveals that many of these factors are similar within and across schools. The most salient factors are outlined below. They can be usefully divided into two groups. First there are those factors which may have arisen directly in relation to the **implementation of citizenship education**, such as understanding of citizenship education, resources allocated to it and the status of this new subject in school. Second, there are those factors which are part of the **existing school context**, such as school ethos and values systems, relationships between teachers and students and student attitudes to school and the wider community. The interesting dynamic is how these two groups of factors have played out, in practice, as citizenship education has been introduced into the school context. The findings from the preceding chapters highlight the powerful influence of school context on how citizenship education has been approached in many schools. While in some schools this influence has had a positive effect on the development of citizenship education, in others the impact has been negative and the others, still, a mixture of negative and positive. The two groups of factors are listed below.

Factors related to the implementation of citizenship education

- ◆ **Time versus coverage:** the tension between curriculum and staff time, on the one hand, and the quest for coherence of student experience, curriculum coverage and status and saliency in the eyes of students, on the other, was a factor that influenced many schools in their choice of both delivery approach and type of, or lack of, assessment.
- ◆ **Pressure on students, lack of guidance on and staff views of the nature of citizenship:** were key influences on schools that had not yet developed a policy for recognition of achievement and schools which had chosen not to formally assess citizenship.
- ◆ **Lack of organisation, leadership and advertising of school councils:** affected the willingness of many students in the case study schools, to participate in the school as a community. Lack of awareness of the school council and a belief that school councils where they existed were ineffective, discouraged students from voicing their opinions and contributing to the school as a community. Furthermore, difficulties with many school councils were attributed to a lack of leadership by both students and teachers.
- ◆ **Teachers understanding of, awareness of, and involvement in citizenship education:** was an important influence on a range of issues, including success of implementation, staff confidence in teaching certain citizenship topics, and provision of learning and activities for students.
- ◆ **Coordination:** of citizenship education – whether or not there was a coordinator and whether or not they had senior management support, the coordinators status within the school and the level of their enthusiasm for citizenship, were all influences on the development and success of citizenship education.
- ◆ **Status of citizenship education in the eyes of staff, senior management and parents:** were key issues influencing many schools choice of delivery

approach, particularly in relation to the GCSE Short Course. These considerations also influenced staff involved in citizenship education, and the resources that were made available for developing citizenship.

- ♦ **Resources:** that were available, or that schools made available for citizenship education were vital in establishing citizenship in the curriculum, in the school community and in the local community.

Factors relating to the school context

- ♦ **Student appreciation of the schools' values and ethos** affected the extent to which they were willing to participate in the school community. Students who felt an affinity with the school and its values and felt that it was a useful and interesting place to be, were more likely to want to contribute to the school community.
- ♦ **Encouragement of links between students of different ages** through for example peer mediation initiatives, extra-curricular activities, and a house style pastoral system, appeared to encourage a sense of belonging to and participation in the school as a community.
- ♦ **Openness to and respect for student opinions** appeared to be a key factor affecting students' sense of belong to and participation in the school community. It was not just that students valued having the opportunity to express their opinions, but that they appreciated their opinions being responded to and acted upon where appropriate. Good relationships between students and teachers also encouraged trust and participation.
- ♦ **Practical arrangements for extra-curricular activities** such as short lunch breaks, cost and travel arrangements all affected whether or not extra-curricular activities existed, and whether students were able to take part or not.
- ♦ **School ethos** was a key factor influencing the approach to and focus for citizenship education and the level of students' participation in the school community.
- ♦ **A tradition of school and community links** facilitated active citizenship in the community. Schools which had well established links with the community, sometimes initiated by the type of school (for example religious or Specialist status), were more likely to be easily able to develop active citizenship in the community, than schools without such a tradition.
- ♦ **Local community issues** had both positive and negative affects in relation to citizenship education inside and outside of school. Rivalry between local neighbourhoods limited the extent to which a school acted as a community, whilst large catchment areas, in some cases, encouraged and in others discouraged, participation in school. Negative stereotypes of young people, which students felt many community members held, sometimes limited the extent to which students were willing to participate in the local community.

8.3.1 Key factors underlying citizenship education provision in schools

From the evidence base provided by the survey and case study schools, combined with understanding how the factors relating to citizenship education and those concerning school context play out in practice, it is possible to begin to identify and summarise the key factors that appear to underlie the most successful provision of citizenship education. These can be grouped at two levels, *school level factors* and *learning context level factors*, though there is clearly overlap between the two. Schools appear to be most successful in developing citizenship education where there is:

School level factors

- ♦ A clear, coherent and broad understanding of what is meant by citizenship education and a recognition of the need to develop it through three interrelated components, citizenship in the curriculum, active citizenship in the school as a community, and the wider community
- ♦ Supportive school ethos and values systems that dovetail with the goals of citizenship education
- ♦ Strong senior management support, with senior managers promoting citizenship education through active involvement in planning and delivery approaches in partnership with a strong, well respected coordinator
- ♦ Positive relations at different levels including among staff, between teachers and students, among students and with the wider community
- ♦ Equal status and value accorded to citizenship education alongside other curriculum subjects and areas of school experience
- ♦ Evidence of on-going processes of reflection, planning, action and review in relation to citizenship education
- ♦ Recognition of the need for staff training and development in order to build confidence and improve teaching and learning strategies and identification of training priorities
- ♦ Sufficient time and resources allocated to citizenship education in terms of curriculum space, teaching staff, teaching and learning resources and staff training and development opportunities.

Learning context level factors

- ♦ Dedicated and enthusiastic coordinator who is well respected and has the skills to champion citizenship education with teachers and students as well as teach it
- ♦ Range of delivery approaches, including a regular dedicated, curriculum time slot for citizenship whether as a discrete element or as modules within a PSHE programme. These approaches need to be coherent and well organised and ensure that effective links are made between the curriculum, school and wider community components of citizenship education

- ♦ Growing staff confidence about what citizenship education entails, including adequate subject knowledge and expertise in a range of active forms of learning. The more confident and enthusiastic staff are about citizenship education the more likely they are to develop effective practice and transmit that enthusiasm to students, teachers and community representatives
- ♦ Recognition of gaps in teacher knowledge, understanding and skills in relation to citizenship education and plans for staff training and development to address these issues
- ♦ Emerging assessment strategies for recognising student achievement that are effective, realistic and manageable
- ♦ Active involvement of students in the school as a community, through a range of structures and initiatives, such as school or class councils, peer mediation schemes, house style pastoral systems and extra-curricular activities, which are based on trust, respect and dialogue
- ♦ Opportunities to learn about and experience citizenship education in a range of contexts including not just the classroom but also through whole-school processes and activities and experiences involving the wider community.

8.4 What have we learned about the Potential Impact of these Various Factors on the Future Development of Citizenship Education?

A number of points emerge from consideration of the potential impact of the various factors outlined above on the future development of citizenship education in schools. The first point is that the impact of these factors is likely to remain considerable and complex. The survey and case study schools demonstrate that the development of citizenship education is not the result of one particular factor but rather is the outcome of a complex, multi-layered mix of factors, influences and individuals. This explains why, particularly as shown in the case study schools, the process of development is often messy, turbulent and uneven, but always on-going. Though no one factor is dominant development depends on the influence of key individuals in schools, notably school leaders and the citizenship coordinator. The attitudes and actions of these individuals will remain at the heart of the future development of citizenship education.

The second point is that the potential impact of these factors cannot be gauged with any degree of certainty. This is because of the current state of the citizenship education initiative. These are still early days in the implementation and development of citizenship education in schools. The survey and case studies reported on approaches in the first year (2002-3) of statutory citizenship education in schools in England. Much will change in the coming years within and across these schools. The picture of the uneven, patchy and inconsistent approach of schools to citizenship education,

evidenced in this report, demonstrates that there is considerable room for development and improvement.

However, this picture can be interpreted in two ways. The first is based on a narrow, 'judgemental' view. This concludes that in three-quarters of the schools surveyed (i.e. with the exception of the *Progressing* schools) there are considerable weaknesses in the approach taken to citizenship education, particularly when compared to the aims set out in the citizenship education policy documents. This view places the emphasis on uncertainty, confusion and lack of confidence and understanding concerning citizenship education in schools. The second is based on a broader, 'developmental' view. This concludes that, given these are still early days for citizenship education, in three-quarters of schools surveyed (with the exception of *Minimalist* schools), a positive start has been made in approaching citizenship education with considerable potential for development and improvement. This view emphasises elements of uncertainty, confusion and a lack of confidence but within the broader contexts of experimentation, real decision-making and signs of progress. The developmental view suggests that if schools can recognise both the strengths and weaknesses of their current approaches to citizenship education they can continue to develop and improve. This is apparent in the potential of *Focusing* and *Implicit* schools to become *Progressing* schools in a short space of time, if the former widen their focus to include citizenship education in the school and wider community and the latter concentrate more on citizenship education in the curriculum. These two views present the classic dilemma as to whether the approach to citizenship education in schools is a half full or half empty bottle at present.

The third point, as to the influence of these factors on the future development of citizenship education, is that despite the difficulties outlined above it is possible to identify some schools (i.e. those in the *Progressing* cluster) who have the potential to develop more quickly than others because of the strong foundation and structures they are putting in place for citizenship education. These schools have found the development of citizenship education somewhat easier than schools without such a foundation and structures.

This leads naturally to the fourth point, which is that despite such advantages the future development of citizenship education, as with student progression, is unlikely to be linear or even in survey and case study schools. *Progressing* schools may not continue to progress at the same rate and, as a result, may be reclassified in future as *Implicit* schools, while *Implicit* schools that address the curriculum component of citizenship education may quickly be reclassified as *Progressing*. Much will depend on the continued level of support and commitment for citizenship education from senior managers, the coordinator, teachers, students and local communities and how this plays out in the coming years.

Hopefully, the findings of this report will be a stimulus for the development of citizenship education in all schools and will serve as a sharp wake up call for some schools, particularly those currently classified as *Minimalist*. While it is

hoped that all schools continue to develop it is the *Minimalist* schools who present the real cause for concern at this stage. They have yet to fully grasp the statutory nature and scope of citizenship education and are acting as though it is a low priority that will soon disappear from schools. It is in some of these schools where potentially deep-seated obstacles and issues lie concerning the future development of effective citizenship education. There is an urgent need to find out what these obstacles are and to encourage these schools to take immediate action to overcome them.

It will be fascinating, as the Longitudinal Study progresses, to track the development of the schools involved in the survey and case studies, not only to see how they develop but also to establish with increased certainty what the key factors are for sustained success in developing effective citizenship education provision.

8.5 How far do our Conclusions Match those of other Citizenship Education Studies and Research?

The findings and conclusions in this report support those of other research and evaluation into the development of citizenship education in schools. However, it should be remembered, as underlined in the Longitudinal Study's first annual literature review (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004) and in the recent BERA review (Gearon, 2003), that the research base for citizenship education is sparse but growing. As a result, the report findings not only support other evidence but also add considerably to the existing research and knowledge base. This is because of the scale and scope of the first longitudinal survey (112 schools, 387 teachers and 18,583 Year 7 students) and the in-depth nature of the case studies (9 schools), in comparison to other citizenship education studies. The findings add value particularly in terms of the answers they provide to the two key questions which are the focus of this report and chapter:

- ◆ What 'types' of citizenship education are being provided nationally?
- ◆ What factors have influenced the development of these 'types'?

The identification and grouping of key factors, which influence the development of citizenship education in schools and communities at differing levels, and of 'types' of citizenship education are important findings which break new ground and require further exploration. Likewise, the report also sheds considerably more light not just on citizenship education in the curriculum, which is the focus of recent reports by OFSTED (2003) and QCA (2003), but also crucially on the components of citizenship education in the school community and in the wider community. These latter two components have been under-researched to date (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004). Above all, the report and its findings are unique in attempting to research and draw links between the way schools approach the three components of citizenship education – curriculum, school community and wider community. How far the findings match existing studies on each of these components is considered below.

8.5.1 Citizenship education in the curriculum

The findings both support and add to what is known about how schools are approaching citizenship education in the curriculum. They support the general conclusion in the literature that the situation in schools, concerning plans for and delivery of citizenship education, remains fluid, flexible and uncertain (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004; QCA, 2003). They also confirm the growing evidence that a small number of schools appear to understand what is meant by citizenship education and are forging ahead with confidence in their planning and delivery, while the majority are beset by a degree of confusion, ambiguity and uncertainty (QCA, 2003; OFSTED, 2003). However, whereas citizenship education was found to be developed well in only one fifth of the OFSTED sample of 25 schools (OFSTED, 2003) it was categorised as being well developed in one quarter of the first longitudinal survey schools.

The report also confirms the overall conclusion in the literature that many schools remain unclear about definitions of citizenship education, in terms of what the core citizenship curriculum is and how their existing practice can contribute to it, and that this leads to a variety of approaches to citizenship education in different schools (QCA, 2003). The typology of schools underlines this diversity of approach and highlights a continued confusion in schools between what Gearon (2003) terms '*explicit citizenship education*', as set out in the National Curriculum Order, and its relationship to '*implicit citizenship*', the contribution of PSHE, values and school ethos. This nature of this confusion is described in more detail in the OFSTED report: '*The majority [of schools] either confuse National Curriculum citizenship with the 'cross-curricular themes and dimensions' approach of the early 1990s, or, more generally, with the use of the word 'citizenship' as a catch-all term that summarises their expectations and ethos*' (p.9). There are echoes of this confusion, particularly in the approach of **Implicit** schools and in some of the school leader and teacher attitudes in the case study schools.

The findings also dovetail with the challenges identified to the successful implementation of citizenship education. These include providing adequate teacher training, given that much of the current training has been taken up by citizenship coordinators and not been widely disseminated to other staff (QCA, 2003; OFSTED, 2003). Teacher training and professional development is an identified need in many survey and case study schools, though there is a concern about the current quality allied to a lack of awareness as to what is available, through organisations such as the new Association for Citizenship Teaching (ACT). The findings also underline that assessment and reporting remains a major point of contention and concern with no real consistency across schools and a lack of teacher confidence in this area. The case study evidence, in particular, supports OFSTED's conclusion that '*assessment is currently a weak aspect of citizenship and few schools have progressed very far with it*'.

Finally, the survey and case study findings appear to support the conclusion in the first annual literature review (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004) that '*the wider debates about definitions of citizenship and citizenship education are mirrored*

in the deliberations in schools about how best to approach citizenship in the curriculum. However, what is not clear is the extent to which the deliberations in schools are directly influenced by these wider debates' (p.27). Certainly on-going questions remain, in the majority of survey and case study schools, as to what is meant by citizenship education, among not just school leaders and teachers, but also students.

8.5.2 Citizenship education in the school as a community

The findings support a number of general conclusions and specific observations in the literature about this component of citizenship education. The first conclusion supported is that there are clear generic benefits for students and institutions, as well as particular benefits for certain groups of students, which arise from taking part in active citizenship activities both within the school and in the wider community (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004; Potter, 2002; Hannam, 2003; Ruddock, 2003; UNICEF, 2002). This comes through strongly in the survey responses of school leaders and teachers, and in interviews with groups of students in the case study schools.

The second is the acknowledgement that active citizenship is one of the hardest aspects of citizenship education to develop and implement within schools, and more especially, in the wider community (CSV, 2003; Alexander, 2002; Flecknoe, 2002). Accordingly, fears are raised in the literature that participative activities will play second fiddle to the curricular aspects of citizenship (Hannam, 2003; OFSTED, 2002 and 2003). This comes through in the typology of schools, particularly in the characteristics of *Focusing* schools.

The third general conclusion in the literature supported by the findings is the question of whether schools and other institutions in society are ready to provide 'real' active citizenship opportunities for all young people, given prevailing cultures and structures that are largely hierarchical and undemocratic (Parker, 2002; Dillabough and Arnot, 2002). Certainly some of the survey attitudes of school leaders and comments in the case studies from teachers and students suggest that prevailing cultures and structures still have a considerable way to go before they promote such opportunities. Interestingly, the case studies reveal that teachers and students are acutely aware of how school cultures and structures operate and of their negative and positive outcomes.

In terms of specific observations in the literature, the findings reaffirm those in the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002; Kerr, 2003) concerning the importance for young people of schools developing the notion of '*school efficacy*' - the belief of students that working together with other young people on 'real issues' that matter to them they can improve things in school. Young people in the survey as well as those interviewed in the case study schools welcome opportunities to work with other students, often across ages, to tackle issues in school.

The findings also throw more light on the challenges or obstacles to the promotion of active citizenship in schools identified in the literature particularly those concerning dominant school culture (Flecknoe, 2002; OFSTED, 2003; Alexander, 2002); the importance of fostering democratic institutions and processes such as school councils (Taylor and Johnson, 2002; Inman and Burke, 2002), and the need for trust, transparency, consultation and regular evaluation (Trafford, 2003). There is considerable evidence, particularly in the case study schools, of the differences between effective and less effective practice in this area and the factors behind such differences.

8.5.3 Citizenship education and the wider community

Much of the literature concerning this component is an extension of that concerning citizenship education in the school as a community, given that the emphasis in both components is on developing active citizenship. Therefore, many of the findings that relate to the school community are also relevant to citizenship education in the wider community. The findings are of most relevance in supporting existing research and studies on both the benefits of and challenges to the development of active citizenship in the wider community (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004).

The survey responses and case study experiences affirm many of the benefits of involving staff and students in the wider community outlined by Potter (2002) in an influential text on active citizenship. They also support the results of small-scale pilot projects and schemes which attest to the value for certain groups of students, such as the less academic, in participating in community related and volunteering activities (Institute for Volunteering Research, 2003; Attwood *et al.*, 2003). The case study school experiences also shed more light on the challenges facing schools who wish to develop this aspect of their citizenship curriculum. There are many similarities between the leadership, curricular, cultural and contextual challenges identified by Potter (2002) from his dealings with schools, the added challenges of time constraints, curriculum pressures and bureaucracy listed by CSV (2003) in its school survey, and the challenges facing the development of this component of citizenship education that are identified in the case study schools.

Finally, though the identification of factors which influence how schools approach citizenship education breaks new ground in terms of studies of citizenship education in schools, there is some overlap between these factors and those identified and summarised in the latest evaluation report on the Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects (Nelson *et al.*, 2004). The evaluation of the Post-16 citizenship projects summarises those factors that appear to underlie the most successful provision in developing a range of innovative approaches to active citizenship in education and training contexts. The overlap between the findings of this report on citizenship education pre-16 and those on post-16 developments suggests the need for further investigation in the coming years of the similarities and differences in the development of citizenship education within and across these two contexts. This will be particularly helpful to the Longitudinal Study as it follows the progress of these Year 7 students through their education to age 18.

Perhaps, above all, the findings in this report add to a growing sense of realism in the research base about the state of citizenship education in schools. They confirm the recognition that schools are not starting national curriculum citizenship with a blank piece of paper and support the conclusion of Slote Morris (2003) and her colleagues that *‘few, if any, schools are starting from the zero – base, and many young people are already busy ‘joining’*” (p.197).

8.6 What are the Key Messages and Action Points in the Findings for Different Audiences Involved in Developing Citizenship Education?

The findings are important for the development of citizenship education in schools and communities and will be of interest to all those concerned with developing effective citizenship education practice, from parents and community representatives to teachers and young people. However, the findings contain key messages and action points for the main audiences involved in the development of citizenship education. These main audiences are:

- ♦ Policy-makers
- ♦ School leaders
- ♦ Citizenship co-ordinators and teachers
- ♦ Young people
- ♦ Researchers

The key messages and action points for each of these audiences is examined, in turn, below

Key messages and action points for policy-makers

- ♦ Take note of the main findings concerning the unevenness of school approaches to citizenship education and build them into policy approaches that support the development and sharing of good practices. This building should go from initial teacher training courses to training for new and existing school leaders and cover not only secondary schools but also the primary and post-16 sectors. It should seek to strengthen the current DfES policy impetus on supporting continuous professional development (CPD) for citizenship education.
- ♦ Consider actions to identify and target those schools that are *Minimalist* in their approach to developing citizenship education, despite the statutory nature of the subject, in order to identify the reasons for this and to bring about rapid improvement.
- ♦ Use the findings to move from a narrow, ‘judgemental’ view of citizenship education, based on evidence from a small sample of schools, that focuses on deficiencies in practice (when compared to the aims of policy documents), to a broader, ‘developmental’ view, based on evidence from a larger school sample, that highlights deficiencies alongside growing signs

of progress. This shift provides a much stronger and more realistic evidence base upon which to frame and implement policy.

- ◆ Focus investigation on the policies and practices that enable those schools identified as “*Progressing*” to be further advanced in their approaches to citizenship education. Encourage these schools to work in partnership with emerging citizenship education networks for teacher training and CPD, in order to share more widely their practices and experiences.
- ◆ Look to disseminate the main findings and factors to key audiences in ways that are effective in making those audiences review and adjust their current attitudes and approaches to citizenship education. The primary key audience should be school leaders, as well as citizenship coordinators, teachers and young people. This could be achieved through a range of methods including the production of broadsheets, articles in teacher and subject magazines, school leader and teacher conferences and web-based advice and guidance.
- ◆ Continue to monitor the effectiveness of existing training for citizenship education and look to address the particular training gaps identified by teachers in relation to assessment and reporting procedures, subject knowledge in political literacy topic areas and active teaching and learning approaches.
- ◆ Raise the profile of citizenship education as a curriculum subject and promote increased awareness of the networks that are being developed to support schools, teachers and communities, particularly the new Association for Citizenship Teaching (ACT). Awareness of ACT among those involved in developing citizenship education in schools is not high.
- ◆ Develop and disseminate improved advice and guidance to schools on how to approach and develop citizenship education, particularly in relation to establishing a clear and coherent definition, and developing assessment and reporting procedures. There is an urgent need for this among citizenship co-ordinators and teachers in order to build confidence and sustain enthusiasm.

Key messages and action points for school leaders

- ◆ Consider the findings in relation to your own attitudes to citizenship education and the school level factors that impact on citizenship education policy and practices in your school. Recognise that your attitudes and actions have a major impact, potentially both negative and positive, on how citizenship education is developed.
- ◆ Examine the typology of schools and the key factors underlying citizenship education provision identified in this report and consider how your school measures up against this typology and these factors. Review your existing definition and approach to citizenship education and identify what needs to happen in order to become or remain a *Progressing* school that is advanced in its approach to citizenship education.
- ◆ Adopt a more holistic and coherent approach to citizenship education based around the three components of citizenship in the curriculum, in the

school community and in partnership with the wider community. Ensure such an approach encompasses not only moral and social dimensions but also political literacy and concern with public policy issues.

- ◆ Take the lead in promoting interest in and enthusiasm for citizenship education among teachers, students and community representatives. Be a **champion** for citizenship education.
- ◆ Consider how best to increase levels of student consultation and participation in your school to ensure the development of ‘**real**’ student voice. As part of this process review the provision for and effectiveness of democratic practices, particularly those in relation to school or student councils.
- ◆ Recognise the impact of the previous experiences of citizenship education that students have had in their primary schools, their homes and their communities on their understanding of and attitude to citizenship education in your school. Look to develop closer links with primary schools and consider the relationship between pre-16 and post-16 citizenship education provision.
- ◆ Ensure that citizenship education is adequately resourced in terms of staff time, teaching and learning resources and training and development needs and has parity of esteem with other curriculum subjects in the eyes of teachers and students.

Key messages and action points for citizenship co-ordinators and teachers

- ◆ Examine the typology of school approaches and the learning context factors that underlie citizenship education provision identified in this report and consider how your current approach to citizenship education compares. You should consider how you compare, particularly in relation to **Progressing** schools, in terms of delivery methods, involvement of teachers and students and developed sense of school democracy. Consider your range of delivery methods in the curriculum and the extent to which there is a regular, dedicated timeslot for citizenship education.
- ◆ Consider whether you have a clear, coherent holistic understanding of citizenship education based on the three components of citizenship in the curriculum, in the school community and in the wider community, and whether that understanding is shared by staff and reflected in current approaches. Identify and act upon gaps and weaknesses so as to ensure that there are meaningful links between the curriculum, school and community components of citizenship education.
- ◆ Continue to develop strategies for assessment and recording student achievement that are effective and manageable and reflect on how well strategies at key stage 3 dovetail with those at key stage 4. Consider ways in which students can become more involved through student-led assessment and recording practices.
- ◆ Survey the training and development needs of teachers in relation to their subject knowledge, particularly their ability to address political literacy

topics and issues, proficiency in a range of active teaching and learning approaches and confidence in assessing and reporting on student achievement. Draw up a plan of action to address these training and development needs.

- ◆ Do not underestimate the impact of your attitudes and actions in building interest and enthusiasm for citizenship education among teachers, students and community representatives and in giving this new curriculum subject status and saliency.
- ◆ Ensure that citizenship education practice is founded on a broad range of active forms of teaching and learning not only in the curriculum but also in the democratic processes associated with the school as a community and links with the wider community. There is considerable scope for students not only to learn about citizenship education but also to experience it in a range of contexts in and beyond the school.
- ◆ Recognise the importance of the citizenship experiences that students have in their daily lives, both in and out of school, on their attitude to citizenship education. Tap into these experiences to help develop a stronger and deeper citizenship education culture in schools and in classrooms that encourages the increased involvement and participation of young people.

Key messages and action points for young people

- ◆ Take up the opportunities provided by schools to participate, through the curriculum, the school community and extra-curricular activities. These opportunities will help you to develop the knowledge, understanding, skills and confidence to be able work in partnership with other young people, teachers and community representatives to bring about improvements to your school and local community.
- ◆ What does citizenship education mean to you? Look to develop a clearer understanding of what the term citizenship means which is more than just about helping others but also includes the broader dimension of political and public policy processes and issues.
- ◆ Recognise that citizenship education is much more than what you learn in lessons in school, but is also part of your daily lives and experiences in school, at home and in your local communities. What are your daily experiences of citizenship education and how do they affect your understanding and attitudes to getting involved?
- ◆ Work in partnership with other young people to discuss changes you would like to see in your school and community and consider how you can bring these changes to the attention of other young people, headteachers, teachers and people in your community. What knowledge, understanding and skills will you need and how and where will you develop these?

Key messages and action points for researchers

- ◆ Review the findings in relation to your own research interests and the findings from other citizenship education research and evaluation, in order

to add to the sparse but rapidly growing research base for citizenship education.

- ◆ Undertake more small-scale studies that focus on the contexts and factors that influence approaches to citizenship education both in and beyond schools. Focus, in particular, on understandings of the term citizenship education, influences on such understanding, and the degree of coherence between citizenship education in the curriculum, school community and wider community.
- ◆ Participate in the process of debating, reviewing and refining the typology of school approaches to citizenship education put forward in this report. In what ways will citizenship education continue to develop in the next few years? Will there be continued diversity of approach or the appearance of more consistent features within and across schools? Will certain schools continue to develop more quickly than others and why? These are the sorts of issues that require further investigation.
- ◆ Investigate the attitudes, practices and experiences not only of school leaders and teachers but also, most crucially, of students and young people in relation to citizenship education. Focus not just on secondary schools but on the nature of the relationship between experiences in primary schools and secondary schools and also between pre-16 and post-16 education and training contexts.
- ◆ Build more interdisciplinary approaches that involve researchers from different academic disciplines working in partnership to investigate not only education based approaches to citizenship education but also community-based and the nature of the relationships between the two. The partnership in this Study between researchers from education and political sciences remains a powerful one that promises much in terms of the future outcomes and outputs.

8.7 Concluding Comment

It is important to remember the context of this report. These are early days for the development of citizenship education in schools and many schools are still feeling their way in terms of understanding, policy and approach. We do not claim that the factors and school types highlighted in this report are the sole ones affecting the approach to citizenship delivery which develops within schools and/or students' understandings of, or attitudes towards, active citizenship. However, these factors and school types do point towards the need for future analysis to explore in greater detail, the processes by which decision making and resource allocation for citizenship education are driven within schools and the approaches to citizenship education which result from these processes.

In addition, they indicate the need to address both the in school and out of school factors which may affect student participation in, and sense of belonging to, the school community and the wider community beyond. Developing an understanding of the various factors and processes that appear

to impact on the development of citizenship education in schools is necessary before helpful recommendations for the future conduct, implementation and development of citizenship education in schools can be made as a consequence of the conduct of the Longitudinal Study. However, a useful start has been made in this report in building this understanding. Future surveys and school case study visits will therefore add to this evidence base in order to point the way forwards for citizenship education and to suggest potential changes both in the short and long term, to improve the effectiveness of its delivery.

REFERENCES

- ALEXANDER, T. (2002). 'Citizenship schools' *Teaching Citizenship*, **4**, 32-37.
- ATTWOOD, C., SINGH, G., PRIME, D., CREASEY, R., CHOUDHRY, S., O'BEIRNE, M., TRIKHA, S., ZIMMECK M., ZURAWAN, A., ASHWORTH, J., SMITH, P., TURTLE, J., WANDS, S., WEBB, B., HEATH, O. and LANDEMAN, T. (2003). *2001 Home Office Citizenship Survey: People, Families and Communities* (Home Office Research Study 270). London: Home Office.
- BEATON, A.E., MULLIS, I.V.S., MARTIN, M.O., GONZALEZ, E.J., KELLY, D.L. and SMITH, T.A. (1996). *Mathematics Achievement in the Middle School Years: IEA's Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)*. Chestnut Hill, MA: Boston College, Center for the Study of Testing, Evaluation, and Educational Policy.
- COMMUNITY SERVICE VOLUNTEERS (2003). *Citizenship in the Curriculum: One Year On* (CSV Reports On No.12). London: CSV.
- CRICK REPORT. DEPARTMENT FOR EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT. ADVISORY GROUP ON EDUCATION AND CITIZENSHIP AND THE TEACHING OF DEMOCRACY IN SCHOOLS (1998). *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools*. London: QCA.
- CURRIE, C., HURRELMANN, K., SETTEROBUTTE, W., SMITH, R. and TODD, J. (2000). *Health Behaviour of School-Aged Children. A WHO Cross-National Study (HSBC) International Report*. Copenhagen, Denmark: World Health Organization Regional Office for Europe.
- DALTON, R.J. (2002). *Citizen Politics: Public Opinion and Political Parties in Advanced Industrial Democracies*. Third edn. New York, NY: Seven Bridges Press.
- DOWNS, A. (1957). *An Economic Theory of Democracy*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- FLECKNOE, M (2002) Democracy, citizenship and school improvement: what can one school tell us? *School Leadership and Management* **22**, 4, 421-37.
- GEARON, L. (2003). *How Do We Learn to Become Good Citizens? A Professional User Review of UK Research Undertaken for the British Educational Research Association*. Nottingham: BERA
- GURR, T.R. (1970). *Why Men Rebel*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- HAHN, C. (1998). *Becoming Political: Comparative Perspectives on Citizenship Education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

HANNAM, D. (2003) ‘“Participation and responsible action” for all students: the crucial ingredient for success’, *Teaching Citizenship*, **5**, 24–33.

INMAN, S. and BURKE, H. (2002). *School Councils: An Apprenticeship in Democracy*. London: ATL.

INSTITUTE FOR VOLUNTEERING RESEARCH (2003). Active Citizens in School. Draft Interim Report Number Two. Unpublished report.

KERR, D. (2003c). ‘A clear agenda’, *Teaching Citizenship*, **6**, 14-23.

KERR, D., LINES, A., BLENKINSOP, S. and SCHAGEN, I. (2001). *Citizenship and Education at Age 14: a Summary of the International Findings and Preliminary Results for England*. Slough: NFER.

KERR, D., LINES, A., BLENKINSOP, S. and SCHAGEN, I. (2002). *What Citizenship and Education Mean to 14-Year-Olds. England’s Results from the IEA Citizenship Education Study: the Views of Students, Teachers and Schools* (DfES Research Report 375). London: DfES.

KERR, D., CLEAVER, E. and IRELAND, E. (2002). Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Initial Exploratory Literature Review. Slough: NFER. Available at: <http://www.nfer.ac.uk/research/citizenship.asp>

KERR, D., CLEAVER, E., IRELAND, E., BLENKINSOP, S. (2003a). *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: First Cross-Sectional Survey 2001-2002* (DfES Research Report 416). London: DfES.

KERR, D., CLEAVER, E. and IRELAND, E. (2003b). ‘Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: First year findings-establishing a baseline for developing citizenship education’. *Paper presented at BERA 2004*, Heriott Watt University, Edinburgh.

KERR, D. and CLEAVER, E. (2004). *Citizenship Education One Year On – What Does it Mean?: Emerging Definitions and Approaches in the First Year of National Curriculum Citizenship in England*. London: DfES.

MULLER, E.N. (1979). *Aggressive Political Participation*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

NELSON, J., WADE, P., KERR, D. and TAYLOR, G. (2004). *National Evaluation of Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects: Key Recommendations and Findings from the Second Year of Development* (DfES Research Report 507). London: DfES.

NORRIS, P. (1995). ‘Does television erode social capital? A reply to Putnam’, *PS: Political Science and Politics*, **29**, 474–80.

OFFICE FOR STANDARDS IN EDUCATION (2002). ‘*Citizenship Survey Report. Preparation for the Introduction of Citizenship in Secondary Schools 2001-2002* (HM7730) [online] London: OFSTED Available at: www.ofsted.gov.uk/public/publist1.htm [1 November, 2002)].

- OFFICE FOR STANDARDS IN EDUCATION (2003). *National Curriculum Citizenship: Planning and Implementation 2002/03* (HMI 1606) [online] London: OFSTED. Available: www.ofsted.gov.uk [31 October, 2003].
- OLSON, M. (1965). *The Logic of Collective Action: Public Goods and the Theory of Groups*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- PARKER, W.C. (2002). 'The deliberative approach to education for democracy: problems and possibilities', *The School Field*, **XIII**, 3/4, 25–42.
- PARRY, G., MOYSER, G. and DAY, N. (1992). *Political Participation and Democracy in Britain*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- PATTIE, C., SEYD, P. and WHITELEY, P. (2002). 'Citizenship and civic engagement: attitudes and behaviour.' Paper presented at the Political Studies Association Annual Conference, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, 5-7 April.
- POTTER, J. (2002). *Active Citizenship in Schools: a Good Practice Guide to Developing a Whole-School Policy*. London: Kogan Page.
- PUTNAM, R.D. (1996). 'The strange disappearance of civic America', *The American Prospect*, **24**, 35–48.
- PUTNAM, R.D., LEONARDI, R. and NANETTI, R.Y. (1994). *Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- QUALIFICATIONS AND CURRICULUM AUTHORITY (2003). *Citizenship: 2002-2003 Annual Report by QCA's Diversity and Inclusion Team*. London: QCA.
- RUDDUCK, J. (2003). *Pupil Voice and Citizenship Education*. Unpublished report for QCA.
- RUNCIMAN, W.G. (1966). *Relative Deprivation and Social Justice: a Study of Attitudes to Social Inequality in Twentieth Century England*. London: Routledge.
- SLOTE MORRIS, Z., JOHN, P. and HALPERN, D. (2003). 'Compulsory citizenship for the disenfranchised: benchmarking students, schools and social and political attitudes before the Citizenship Order', *Curriculum Journal*, **14**, 2, 181–99.
- TAYLOR, M. and JOHNSON, R., (2002). *School Councils: Their role in Citizenship and Personal and Social Education*. Slough.: NFER
- TORNEY, J., OPPENHEIM, A.N. and FARNEN, R.F. (1975). *Civic Education in Ten Countries: an Empirical Study* (International Studies in Evaluation). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

TORNEY-PURTA, J., LEHMANN, R., OSWALD, H. and SCHULZ, W. (2001). *Citizenship and Education in Twenty-eight Countries: Civic Knowledge and Engagement at Age Fourteen*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.

TRAFFORD, B. (2003). *School Councils, School Democracy, School Improvement: Why, What, How*. Leicester: SHA.

UNICEF (2002) *Work in Progress II: Education for Citizenship in Four Nations*. UNICEF UK Citizenship Education Monitoring Project. London: UNICEF.

UNIVERSITY OF ESSEX (2001). *2001 British Election Study Questionnaires: 2001 Pre-Election Questionnaire (Wave 1)* [online]. Available: <http://www.essex.ac.uk/bes/questionnaire.html> [14 November, 2002].

VERBA, S., SCHLOZMAN, K.L. and BRADY, H.E. (1996). *Voice and Equality: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Appendix 1 Analytical Framework

During the course of the first year of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, the NFER research team drew up an overarching framework to guide the Study. This analytical framework seeks to bind together the aims and design of the Study. In particular, it provides a means of organising and linking the data and information collected in the four components of the Study – longitudinal surveys, cross-sectional surveys, school case studies and annual literature reviews.

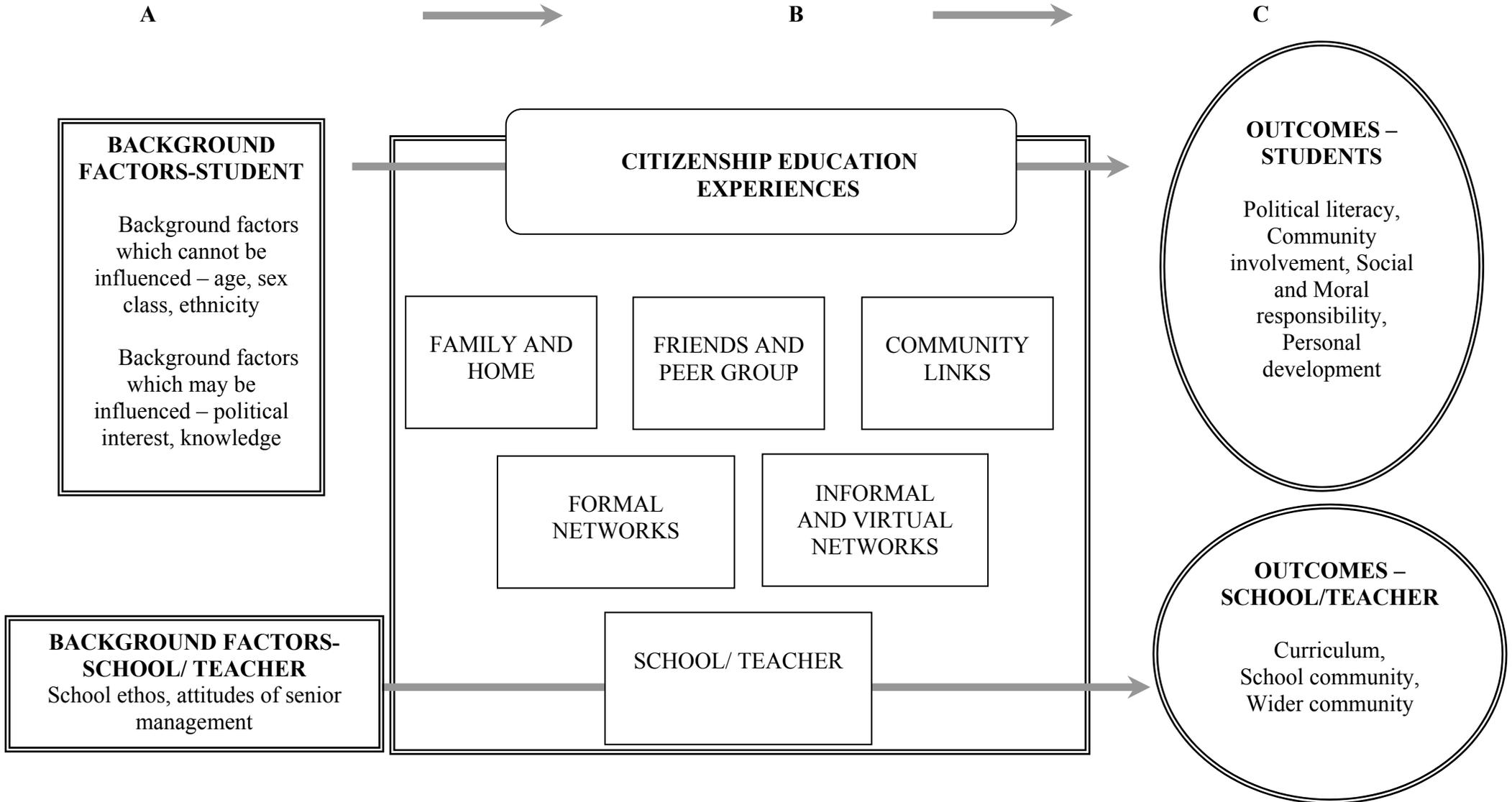
The framework provides a way of understanding the implementation of citizenship education. It not only takes into account the school, teacher and student level contexts which may influence the delivery and impact of citizenship education, but recognises the broader societal processes and contexts which may combine to influence young peoples' experience and development of citizenship dimensions (knowledge, skills, understanding, concepts, attitudes, engagement and participation). The analysis of the longitudinal survey data and the school case studies has provided a wealth of information about the ways in which citizenship education takes place and the contexts in which this happens. These insights have been incorporated in the framework.

The analytical framework is shown as a diagram on the next page. At the heart of the framework is the individual student and individual school. The framework reflects the recognition that both student and school are influenced by a range of background factors. For students these include a mixture of factors that cannot necessarily be influenced by citizenship education (such as age, sex and ethnicity),²⁵ and those factors that may be influenced by citizenship education (such as appreciation of the school's values, political interest and knowledge, political efficacy and civic engagement). At the school level the influence of school ethos, the attitudes of the senior management and teachers, and the way in which citizenship education is coordinated maybe significant. This is explored in section A.

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

²⁵ While age, sex, and ethnicity cannot themselves be affected by citizenship education some of the socially influenced norms and values reflected in age related, gender specific and ethnic cultures which can influence young people's attitudes and actions may be affected.

Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study Analytical Framework



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

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

Student level models

- ♦ ***The democratic processes model*** This model suggests that schools that model democratic practices by encouraging students to discuss issues in the classroom and take an active role in the life of the school, are most effective in promoting civic knowledge and engagement. This model results from the IEA Citizenship Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002).
- ♦ ***The school efficacy model*** Again drawing on the findings of the IEA Study, this model suggests that the extent to which students believe that they can improve their school and have an impact on their school (school efficacy) may be an important influence on students' sense of political efficacy and as such future political participation. (Torney-Purta *et al.*; 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2002)
- ♦ ***Civic knowledge-civic participation*** This model, based on the findings of the IEA Citizenship Education Study, suggests that students' educational background (parental education, expected further years of education, and number of books in the home) has an influence on their levels of civic knowledge. In turn, students' civic knowledge, use of the media (whether they watch television news) and political education (whether they have learned about voting in school), have an influence on how likely they are to participate in civic life. (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2001, 2002)

Adult level theories

- ♦ **Theories of cognitive engagement** Research has found that the higher the levels of political information that individuals are exposed to, the more likely they are to take an interest in politics (Dalton, 2002). Moreover, the better-educated people are, the more likely they are to be able to read, understand and have access to this information. Those who have access to such cognitive resources are more likely to have an opinion on the political process and to participate in political life.
- ♦ **Theories of civic voluntarism** This set of theories (see for example Parry *et al.*, 1992; Verba *et al.*, 1996) argues that individuals who are well-educated, middle-class, affluent and feel as though they have plenty of free time are more likely to participate *if* they are interested in politics, support a particular political party (partisanship) and think that what they do will make a difference (political efficacy). A further factor which can influence participation is *mobilisation* – the active request for participation by others.
- ♦ **Rational actor theories** This set of theories, drawing on the work of Downs (1957), Olson (1965) and Pattie *et al.*, (2002), argues that an individual's choice to participate will result from a weighing up of the benefits of an action or activity in relation to the costs. If the costs are too great, or the benefits too few, they are less likely to participate.
- ♦ **Theories of social capital** The theory of social capital (see Putnam *et al.*, 1994) argues that individuals who participate in many organisations within their communities and who are generally trusting of other people and institutions, are more likely to take an active role in political life.
- ♦ **Theories of equity-fairness** This group of theories (see for example Runciman, 1966; Gurr, 1970; Muller, 1979) argues that members of traditionally disadvantaged groups, who feel that they are treated unfairly in comparison to other groups (relative deprivation) and that they cannot make their voice heard through conventional participation (marginalisation), are more likely to turn to protest and revolution.

The development and refinement of the analytical framework is an on-going process. The current version has been developed using knowledge gathered in the first cross-sectional and first longitudinal surveys and first round of school case studies, and will be adapted in the light of further analysis and the on-going literature review. Aspects of the theories and hypotheses outlined in the analytical framework are explored only briefly in the light of data presented in the current report, but will be returned to in more depth in future analysis.

Appendix 2 Additional Tables

This Appendix includes a number of supplementary tables to which reference is made in the main body of the report.

Table 1 Duties of adult citizens: proportions agreeing

A good adult citizen...	School leaders	Teachers	Students
	%	%	%
Obeys the law	94	94	68
Participates in activities to benefit people in the community	85	76	39
Follows political issues in newspapers, on the radio or on TV	73	67	22
Hands in a £10 note found in the street	68	64	42
Picks up litter in a public place	68	73	42
Writes to a Member of Parliament if they feel strongly about something	61	68	34
Joins a political party	4	9	14
Supports a football club	1	4	26
	N=84	N=387	N=18,583

Base: All Respondents

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 2 Potential protest activity: proportion who would definitely/probably take action

If I was confronted by something I thought was wrong I would definitely/ probably...	School leaders	Teachers	Students
	%	%	%
Contact my Member of Parliament	65	60	18
Contact a newspaper	48	47	21
Take part in a non-violent protest march or rally	34	41	22
Take part in a radio phone-in programme	17	21	22
Block traffic as a form of protest	6	6	12
Take part in a violent demonstration	2	2	13
	N=84	N=387	N=18,583

Base: All Respondents

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 3 Students' attitudes to social issues

	Disagree %	Neither %	Agree %	Non response %
Social conservatism				
People who were not born in Britain, but live here now, should have the same rights as everyone else	13	17	61	9
The government should provide a decent standard of living for the unemployed	9	28	44	18
If there are not enough jobs for everybody, they should go to men rather than women	55	25	10	10
Women should stay out of politics	59	22	9	10
Approval of government control				
The government should cut benefits for the unemployed to encourage them to find work	18	35	28	19
The government should increase jail sentences for young offenders	27	31	23	18
The government should restrict car driving to control pollution	26	35	20	19
The government should make those who can afford it pay for their own health care	35	28	19	18
Nationalism				
People who were not born in Britain, but live here now, should be required to learn English	15	26	48	10
The government should guarantee a job for anyone who wants one	14	29	40	17
Britain does not have room to accept any more refugees	25	35	31	10
N = 18,583				

Base: All Students

A series of single response items

These items were included in two questions; non response to the first question was at 9-10%, and non response to the second question, somewhat later in the questionnaire, was 17-19%.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 4 Impact of citizenship education on teaching other subjects

Type of impact	School Leaders %
Making CE more explicit in other subjects	23
Content and objectives (e.g. additional learning objectives)	19
Little or no impact	18
Teaching and learning (delivery/style)	13
Other positive impact (e.g. staff inset)	13
More cross-curricular work	10
N=84	

Base: All School Leaders

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 5 Policies for recognising achievement in citizenship education

	School Leaders %
Key stage 3	
Have policy	24
Leave to individual teacher	68
No policy yet	7
Key stage 4	
Have policy	25
Leave to individual teacher	67
No policy yet	7
N=84	

Base: All School Leaders

Two single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 6 Availability of computers and the internet for educational purposes

Availability in school	School Leaders		
	Never or almost never	Sometimes	All or most of the time
	%	%	%
In teacher work area	5	5	86
In the classroom	8	49	41
In other instructional areas (e.g. library)	0	16	85
For use by teachers	0	11	89
For use by students	0	19	81

N = 84

Base: All School Leaders

A series of single response items; due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 7 Reasons why citizenship coordinator was appointed

Reasons	School Leaders %
Previous experience teaching relevant subjects	74
Knowledge of the requirements for citizenship education	73
Previous experience teaching citizenship education	32
S/he volunteered for the post	28
Relevant experience outside teaching	20
S/he was the only person suitable	15
Relevant qualifications e.g. PGCE in citizenship	7
S/he was the only person available	7

N = 74

Base: School Leaders who had appointed a citizenship coordinator

Respondents were able to give more than one answer so percentages do not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 8 Allocation of additional spine points for work in citizenship education

Roles	Have been given %	Will be given %	Won't be given %	Missing %
Teacher(s) delivering citizenship education	7	0	62	31
Teacher(s) developing the curriculum for citizenship education	14	2	57	26
The citizenship education coordinator	44	5	35	17

N=84

Base: All School Leaders

A series of single response items; due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 9 Teacher confidence in teaching citizenship-related topics

Citizenship-related topics	Not at all confident %	Somewhat confident %	Very confident %
The environment	7	45	45
Resolving conflict	12	47	39
The media	12	48	38
Different cultures and ethnic groups	13	47	38
Crime and punishment	12	49	36
Human rights	11	51	36
Rights and responsibilities at work	17	53	29
Voting and elections	21	49	28
Laws and responsibilities	16	54	28
The global community/ international organisations	27	47	24
Voluntary groups	17	58	23
Consumer rights	23	55	21
Parliament, government and the courts	32	45	21
The European Union	34	44	20
The economy and business	43	40	15

N=387

Base: All Teachers

A series of single response items; due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100. There was around 2% no response to these items.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 10 Perception of participation in school life and relationships in the school

Perceptions		School Leaders	Teachers
		%	%
The whole school is involved in discussions and decision-making	Agree	79	50
	Neither	18	20
	Disagree	4	29
There are poor relationships in school between staff and students	Agree	2	4
	Neither	1	10
	Disagree	97	85
Students are encouraged to participate in extra-curricular activities	Agree	99	88
	Neither	0	9
	Disagree	1	3
There are poor relationships with the wider community (School leaders)/ There are good relationships with the wider community (Teachers)	Agree	7	72
	Neither	7	23
	Disagree	86	5
N =		84	387

Base: All School Leaders; All Teachers

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Table 11 The expected impact of citizenship education: the proportion who expect some or a large impact

Proportion who expect some/ a large impact on:	School leaders	Teachers
	%	%
The school as a community		
Consulting with students when developing policies on issues which affect them	89	83
Behaviour of students in school	80	61
Students' confidence / self esteem	79	80
Students' participation in school activities (e.g. school council/ clubs and teams)	66	80
The wider community		
The likelihood that students will vote in elections in the future	84	83
Students' future participation in community activities e.g. voluntary work	83	78
The school's relationship with the wider community, including parents	81	82
N =	84	387

Base: All School Leaders; All Teachers

A series of single response items

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, First Longitudinal Survey 2002

Copies of this publication can be obtained from:

DfES Publications
P.O. Box 5050
Sherwood Park
Annesley
Nottingham
NG15 0DJ

Tel: 0845 60 222 60
Fax: 0845 60 333 60
Minicom: 0845 60 555 60
Online: www.dfespublications.gov.uk

© National Foundation for Educational Research 2004
Produced by the Department for Education and Skills

ISBN 1 84478 222 0
Ref No: RR531

www.dfes.go.uk/research