

Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Second Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

Listening to Young People: Citizenship Education in England

Elizabeth Cleaver, Eleanor Ireland,
David Kerr and Joana Lopes

National Foundation for Educational Research

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

Contents

	page
Acknowledgements	i
Executive Summary	iii
1 Introduction and background	1
1.1 Citizenship in the National Curriculum	1
1.2 The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study	1
1.3 What do we know to date?	2
1.4 The third annual report: students' views, attitudes and experiences	3
1.5 Structure of the report	6
2 Citizenship in practice: formal and informal approaches and contexts	9
2.1 Citizenship in the curriculum	9
2.2 Active citizenship in school (classroom climate and extra-curricular activities)	10
2.3 Links with the local community	13
3 Students' understanding, knowledge and behaviour	15
3.1 What do students understand by citizenship as a concept?	15
3.2 What have students learnt in citizenship?	16
3.3 Has citizenship knowledge increased?	17
3.4 The impact and importance of citizenship education	18
4 Students' views, trust and experiences	21
4.1 Having a say: the student voice	21
4.2 Trust and belonging	25
4.3 Students' attitudes to key social issues	29
4.4 Views on citizenship in practice	32
5 Students' participation and engagement	35
5.1 Engagement with the school community	35
5.2 Engagement with the wider community	38
5.3 Political interest and engagement	41
5.4 Engagement with the media	47
6 Discussion and concluding comments	53
6.1 Supporting the existing evidence base	54
6.2 Providing new insights	56
6.3 Combining the new insights and existing evidence base	60
6.4 Key considerations for groups involved with citizenship education	61
6.5 Future directions	63
Appendix 1. Methodology	65
Appendix 2. References	69
Appendix 3. About the authors	71

Appendix 4. Key publications from the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study	73
Appendix 5. Analytical framework	75

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Executive Summary

Introduction

The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, conducted by the National Foundation for Education 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. The study began in 2001 and will end in 2009.

This summary highlights key research findings from the third annual report of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. It is based upon a sample of 237 schools and 50 colleges and reports the responses of 238 school and college leaders, 876 teachers and college tutors and 6400 students across years 8, 10 and 12. (Students age 13 to 14, 15 to 16 and 17 to 18 respectively) in the academic year 2003-2004.

The report sets out the findings of the second cross-sectional survey of year 8, 10 and 12 students and their teachers and schools, focusing on students' experiences, understandings and views of citizenship education and wider citizenship issues. Its discussion and conclusions focus on findings which support the existing evidence base for citizenship education, moving on to address the findings which add a new dimension to this evidence base. Following a brief consideration of the implications of these combined insights for our understanding of citizenship and citizenship education, it moves on to list key considerations for some of the groups currently involved in citizenship education at a range of levels.

Above all, this report confirms the importance of ensuring that student experiences of, and attitudes to, citizenship and citizenship education are at the very heart of all the elements of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. It is vital to the success of the Study that the voice and experiences of the students who are participating is heard alongside those of teachers and school leaders. After all, this is one of the cornerstones of effective citizenship education.

Key findings

In Support of the Existing Evidence Base

The analysis in this report reinforces a number of important findings with regard to the meaning and practice of citizenship education. These findings are listed in brief below:

- ♦ Teachers and school leaders remain positive about the outcomes of citizenship education, believing that it will have a number of **positive impacts** on students' participation, engagement, skills, awareness and tolerance.
- ♦ The classroom continues to be a '**traditional**' teaching and learning environment with methods such as note taking, working from textbooks and listening while the

teacher talks taking precedence over discussion and debate and the use of new information and communication technologies (ICT).

- ◆ Despite this, both teaching staff and students agree that their classrooms have a **positive climate** with students feeling free to express opinions and to bring up issues for discussion.
- ◆ Extra-curricular activities, such as school councils and opportunities to raise money for good causes, remain consistently available across school and college settings and school leaders and teachers continue to be supportive of a democratic school ethos. However, the **gap** between opportunities to participate and student levels of take up remains large, with most schools offering these activities yet only a small proportion of students taking them up.
- ◆ Certain citizenship curriculum **topic areas** are less likely to be taught than others; in particular, topics such as, voting and elections, the European Union (EU), the economy and business and parliament and governance.
- ◆ Citizenship **knowledge** continues to be closely linked to home literacy resources: the more books that students' report their homes contain, the higher their knowledge scores.
- ◆ Students' views on the **trustworthiness** of different social groups remains relatively static with family consistently rated as the group that students trust the most, and politicians and the EU continuing to score the lowest levels of trust.
- ◆ Students continue to report **low levels** of intention to participate in conventional politics in the future, beyond voting.
- ◆ The levels of trust that students place in the **media** reflects earlier findings. Students continue to place most trust in news reports on the TV, less in reports on the radio and show least trust in newspaper reports.

Providing New Insights

While it should be remembered that this is an interim report and that its findings and conclusions remain tentative, the analysis presented includes a number of potentially new and exciting insights concerning students' development of **citizenship dimensions** (knowledge, skills, understanding, attitudes and behaviour) and the influence that schools and communities can have on such development.

- ◆ Students' development of citizenship dimensions is **neither even nor consistent**. The findings reveal lower levels of citizenship knowledge; student efficacy; personal efficacy; active student participation; trust and embeddedness and belief in the benefits of participation among the Year 10 students who took part in the survey, when compared with those in Years 8 and 12.
- ◆ Students' development of citizenship dimensions may be influenced by **personal, family and community characteristics**. Findings suggest a clear relationship between home literacy resources and feelings of empowerment, levels of trust, engagement, community attachment and commitment to volunteering, participation and political engagement. Differences were also found in attitudes

and behaviours between male and female students as well as between those from different ethnic backgrounds.

- ◆ Students' **sense of belonging** and **attachment** to the different communities in their lives may **change over time**. It is noticeable in the survey that students' sense of belonging to the school community increases with age in comparison with their attachment to other communities.
- ◆ Schools are increasingly recognising the need to **assess** student experiences of citizenship, driven by the requirements to make end of key stage assessments and include a statement in the annual report to parents.
- ◆ There is a recognition by schools that they are '**moderately democratic**'. This suggests that the idealism of citizenship as involving equal democratic participation of everyone in a school is giving way to an acceptance that there are limits to participation and democracy in schools.
- ◆ Schools are **strengthening** their **community links**. This may signal a growing realisation among schools that citizenship education involves not just the school, its curriculum and culture/ethos, but also how the school relates to the wider community.
- ◆ Students in all year groups report that citizenship is **more noticeable** to them in schools than in 2002.
- ◆ Students in all year groups associate citizenship more with **rights and responsibilities** and issues of **identity** and **equality** than with formal political processes.
- ◆ Students' **citizenship knowledge** about political and legal processes and institutions appears to be lower than recorded in the first cross sectional survey in 2002; particularly for students in Year 10. However, this may reflect the nature of the questions posed to students and the subjects taught in schools. The knowledge items in the survey tested knowledge about political and legal processes and institutions, including those concerning voting, political representation and legal rights. These are precisely the citizenship topics that students report they are taught least about..
- ◆ Findings suggest a **clear relationship** between home literacy resources and feelings of empowerment, levels of trust, engagement, community attachment and commitment to volunteering, participation and political engagement.
- ◆ The **media** may play a **key role** in influencing students' citizenship-related views, particularly given low reported levels of coverage of certain topics in the school-taught citizenship.
- ◆ Findings hint at differences in attitudes between those from **different ethnic backgrounds**. For example, Asian students in the sample had the highest levels of student efficacy compared to other groups while Asian and Black students had the most positive views about volunteering compared to other groups. The influence of community and culture on students' attitudes and behaviour, alongside other influences, is something that requires further investigation.

Combining New and Existing Insights

Combining what we already know with new insights has three important outcomes:

- ♦ It confirms the **complex** nature of young peoples' citizenship experiences and attitudes and the range of factors and influences that can impact on their development. These include contextual characteristics or factors (such as age, gender, ethnicity and family characteristics), the different contexts or 'sites' of citizenship education including the school, the family, peer groups, and students' local and wider communities, and the various actors that take part in the (formal and informal) educational processes at these different 'sites'.
- ♦ The report suggests possible **changes** in this interrelationship and its impact on students' development of citizenship dimensions across a number of **age ranges** and **educational stages**. Findings suggest that there may be a considerable 'dip' in development around Year 10, when students are age 14 to 15. However, at this stage of the analysis it remains unclear whether these findings are cohort specific, will be replicated in future years, or indeed if such a 'dip' exists nationally. This requires further in-depth investigation.
- ♦ Finally, **schools** may **influence** students' development of citizenship dimensions. There are already signs in this report that school experiences can have an influence on students' conceptions of citizenship, students' civic knowledge and on their sense of efficacy and empowerment.

Key Considerations for Groups Involved in Citizenship Education

The findings raise a number of considerations for the main groups currently involved in citizenship education at a range of levels. Some considerations for policy makers, NGOs and researchers, practitioners in the area of citizenship education are listed below:

Considerations for school leaders, co-ordinators and teachers

- ♦ Consider whether your institution uses a **sufficient range** of teaching and learning approaches for citizenship education that encourage active learning approaches.
- ♦ Consider how to **involve students** more fully in the running of schools, beyond school councils, and in negotiation of their teaching and learning experiences.
- ♦ Ask whether the citizenship education programme offered to students is improving their **citizenship knowledge**, as well as understanding and skills.
- ♦ Look to address any salient differences which exist between school leader, teacher and student expectations and experiences of citizenship education.
- ♦ Consider how the school as a '**site**' for citizenship impacts on, and is impacted on by, student experiences of other citizenship contexts and sites, such as the local community, family and peers.

Considerations for policy-makers

- ♦ Take note of the **low levels of trust** that young people place in politicians and political institutions, such as the EU and of their lack of interest in engaging in conventional political participation in the future, beyond voting.
- ♦ Support the development of students' **citizenship knowledge** by focusing on the topics that schools are teaching under the umbrella of citizenship education and the teachers involved in teaching citizenship topics. Take action to ensure that the core knowledge at the heart of citizenship education is being taught in schools.
- ♦ Consider the implications for current and future policy in citizenship education of the **uneven development** of students' citizenship dimensions over time.
- ♦ Recognise that schools cannot develop citizenship education **in isolation** from the social contexts in which they are situated and with which students interact on a daily basis. Schools are but one of a number of interrelated 'sites' for the development of citizenship dimensions.
- ♦ Develop a more interdisciplinary, '**joined up**' approach to citizenship education policy development that recognises the role of education and schools alongside policies and influences from other areas of government and policy.

Considerations for NGOs and voluntary organisations

- ♦ Recognise the influence that schools and other 'sites' of citizenship education can have on students' development of citizenship dimensions and look to work with and support young people, not only in schools, but in these other sites in the community.
- ♦ Understand that young people are **sophisticated users** of the media. Look to use the media and other outlets, at local and national level, to address the interests and sensibilities of young people in ways that actively engage and motivate them.

Considerations for researchers

- ♦ Follow-up the findings in this report through more in-depth investigation in a range of settings, with a range of young people.
- ♦ Look to investigate the impact of community and culture on young people's understanding of, and attitudes to, citizenship education and wider citizenship issues; in particular, examining similarities and differences between male and female students and different ethnic groups.
- ♦ Use in-depth biographical interview methods to explore further young people's experiences of, and attitudes to, citizenship education and wider citizenship issues in order to extend our understanding of the complex processes behind their development of citizenship knowledge, skills, understanding, attitudes and behaviour over time.

Future directions

The findings from the third annual report indicate the power of longitudinal methodology for answering the overall aims of the study. Not only are we able to take stock of the findings to-date to provide interim recommendations and messages for key groups involved in citizenship education. In addition, the findings provide vital information with which to inform the future elements of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

1 Introduction and background

1.1 Citizenship in the National Curriculum

Citizenship was introduced as a new statutory National Curriculum subject for all students between the ages of 11 and 16 in schools in England, in September 2002. The Curriculum Order for the new subject stated that the importance of citizenship is that it:

'...gives pupils the knowledge, skills and understanding to play an effective role in society at local, national and international levels. It helps them to become informed, thoughtful and responsible citizens who are aware of their duties and rights...It encourages pupils to play a helpful part in the life of their schools, neighbourhoods, communities and the wider world.'
Citizenship Key Stages 3-4 p.12

The introduction of the new statutory subject, in 2002, marked the beginning rather than the end of the policy process and citizenship has continued to attract considerable interest and activity from policy-makers, practitioners, researchers and commentators in the two and a half years since. This is understandable as the evidence base concerning citizenship education prior to 2002 was weak. Although the evidence base remains sparse, it has been strengthened considerably since 2002 (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004).

1.2 The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) funded *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study* has played a central role in strengthening the evidence base. This, alongside the monitoring activities of OFSTED (2003:2005) and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) (2003; 2004) and other smaller scale surveys and studies (CSV, 2003; 2004; Watchorn, 2003) has provided more comprehensive insights and a clearer picture of the state of citizenship education in schools post 2002.

The *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study* (hereafter, **the Study**) is tracking a cohort of young people (from age 11 to 18) who entered secondary school in September 2002 and are the first students to have a continuous statutory entitlement to

citizenship education. The overarching aim of the Study is to *assess the short-term and long-term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills and attitudes and behaviour of students.*

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

- Four cross-sectional surveys of Year 8¹, 10 and 12 students, their schools and their teachers.
- A longitudinal survey of a cohort of Year 7 students tracking the whole Year 7 group through Years 9 and 11 and 13 (or equivalent when they are aged 18), their schools and their teachers.
- Twenty longitudinal school case studies
- An annual literature review

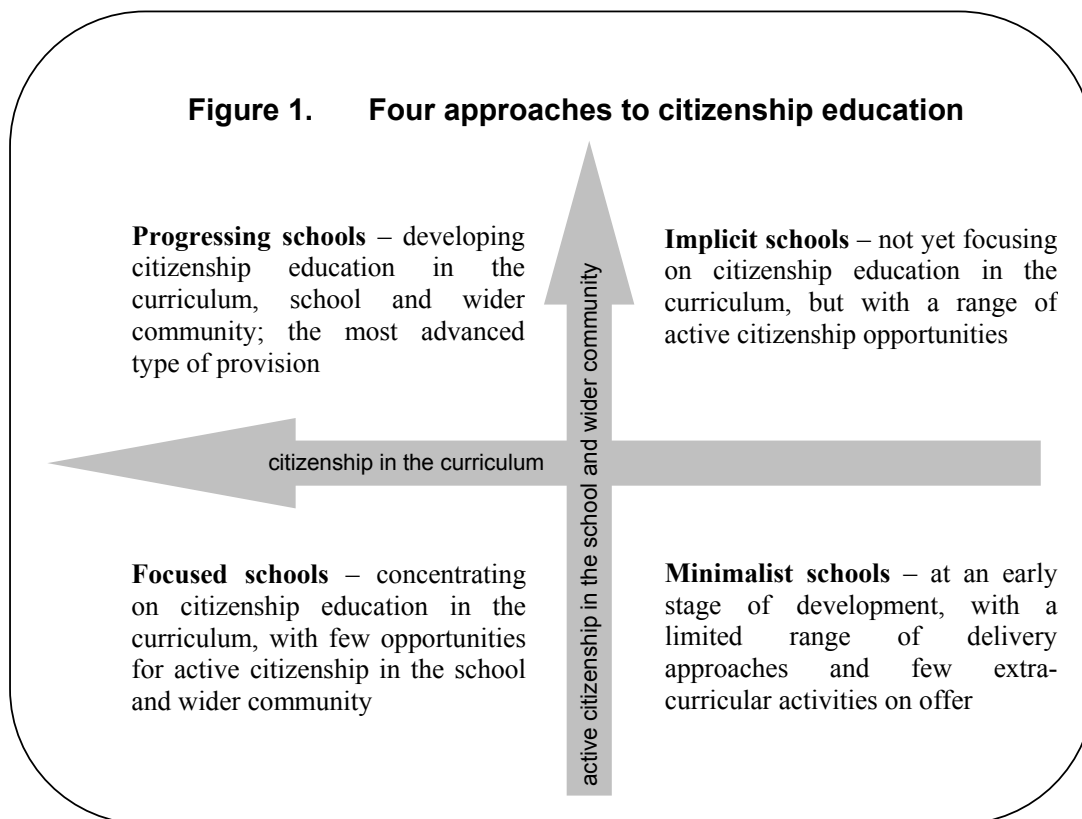
This report focuses on the **second cross-sectional survey** which took place during the spring term of the academic year 2003-2004. More detailed information on the survey methodology can be found in Appendix 1 of this report.

1.3 What do we know to date?

There is a consensus emerging from this evidence base that provides answers to questions about definition, approaches and challenges to citizenship. This consensus includes:

- *Definition* – a growing conceptualisation of citizenship in schools as comprising three interrelated aspects – the three citizenship ‘Cs’: Citizenship in the **curriculum**; Active citizenship in the school **culture**; and active citizenship through links with the wider **community**.
- *Approaches* – acceptance that provision is uneven, patchy and evolving but that types of school approach to citizenship education appear to have emerged. Figure 1 outlines these types (for further information see Kerr *et al.* 2004).
- *Factors* – the identification of and agreement about key **school level** and **learning-context level** factors that work together to support, promote and champion citizenship education (see Kerr *et al.*, 2004, for discussion of these factors).
- *Challenges* – recognition of a number of key issues and challenges that need to be tackled in order for citizenship education provision to become more visible, coherent and effective (see Kerr *et al.*, 2004, for a comprehensive list of these challenges).

¹ In terms of age of students and year groups the following classification applies in schools in England. Year 7 students age 11-12, Year 8 age 12-13, Year 9 age 13-14, Year 10 age 14-15, Year 11 age 15-16, Year 12 age 16-17, Year 13 age 17-18.



The emerging findings from this evidence base are being scrutinised and acted upon, particularly by policy-makers and support agencies. In particular: *DfES* has launched a major initiative to promote greater continuing professional development (CPD) activity in citizenship education; the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) is funding a major project, entitled *Citized*, to develop and share expertise among all those involved with citizenship in initial teacher education; the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) is focusing on improving understanding of what pupil and teacher assessment in citizenship means in practice through a series of pilot projects as well as monitoring the progress of the new GCSE Citizenship Studies short courses; and the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) is looking to tighten its inspection criteria and to strengthen the consistency of its judgements about citizenship education practice in schools.

1.4 The third annual report: students' views, attitudes and experiences

Drawing on data from the second cross-sectional survey of year 8, 10, and 12 students and their teachers and schools, this report (the third annual report of the Study)

focuses on students' experiences, understandings and views of citizenship education and wider citizenship issues. The reason for this focus is threefold:

1.4.1 The missing dimension

A preoccupation with emerging definitions and approaches to citizenship education in schools has meant a necessary concentration on the attitudes and actions of school leaders and teachers rather than on those of students. As was noted in the Study's first annual literature review, '*This is ironic given that ...[students form one of] the key groups who will ultimately decide on the success or otherwise of the citizenship education initiative*' (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004: 55). Indeed, a closer reading of the Curriculum Order for citizenship highlights that its whole emphasis is on the help, encouragement and benefits that the new curriculum subject will bring for students through the development of increased knowledge, understanding and skills. Yet little is known about what students' think about citizenship education, and the influences on their thinking, two and a half years after its statutory introduction into the school curriculum. Support for this focus can be found in the growing literature on *pupil voice*, which claims that increased pupil participation and the promotion of pupil voice in schools can make a positive contribution to raising school standards and pupil attainment (Hannam, 2003, Trafford, 2003; Flecknoe, 2002). There are considerable efforts to encourage schools to increase opportunities for pupils to become involved in decision-making processes (MacBeath *et al.* 2003).

1.4.2 The New Policy Agenda – promoting personalisation, choice and stronger communities

Since 2002, the policy process has been marked by a new emphasis on influencing and informing the actions of individuals, including those of children and young people, in the institutions (such as schools) and communities in which they live. There has been a particular push to strengthen and link communities, including schools to the wider community, through increased consultation and the promotion of partnerships.

One example of this trend can be found in the Home Office policy initiative around the concept of civil renewal (Blunkett, 2003a and b). Civil renewal is at the heart of the Home Office's vision of life in 21st century communities. It takes place where people become actively engaged in the well-being of their communities and are able

to define the problems they face and tackle them together with help from the government and public bodies.

Further key examples of this new policy emphasis on individuals, strengthening and linking communities, consultation and partnerships, can be found in general education policy. These include:

- The launch of the Children Bill (GB Parliament HOC., 2004) aims to put children and families at the heart of policy, with services built around those who use them (such as children) rather than those who deliver them. The Children Bill has been followed by a flurry of policy initiatives and statements to bring service providers, including government departments, into line with the new agenda.
- The issue of *Working Together* (DfES, 2004a) guidelines to all schools. These outline the ways in which children and young people can be involved in and consulted on many school issues.
- The launch of a *Five Year Strategy for Teaching and Learning* by DfES, including the key principles of 'greater personalisation and choice' and 'building partnerships'.
- The placing of young people, and the choices that they make between the ages of 14 and 19 at the forefront of the policy agenda by the *Working Group on 14-19 Reform*, chaired by Sir Mike Tomlinson. The Final Report of the group (Working Group On 14-19 Reform, 2004) seeks to address the challenge of how to 'equip all young people with the basic skills and attributes they need to succeed in life, and which our economy and society need for the future'.

Though the term 'citizenship education' is not mentioned specifically in the text of these policy statements and reforms, being superseded by terms such as 'active citizenship', 'personalised learning' and 'community capacity', it is writ large in the processes by which the intended outcomes of these policy initiatives are to be achieved in practice. The new policy agenda suggests that there will be increased consultation with children and young people in the coming years and greater encouragement and incentives for them to become actively involved in the processes of change at all levels of the education system.

1.4.3 The aims of the study

This new focus is particularly pertinent to the Study's overarching aim:

- to assess the short term and long term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour of young people.

Young people are a vital source of information and insights about citizenship education, to be put alongside those provided by school leaders and teachers, in order to build a comprehensive picture of the short and long-term impact of the introduction of statutory citizenship into the school curriculum in England.

Moreover, the report also contributes towards two of the subsidiary aims of the Study:

- to assess of the impact of citizenship education on students' knowledge, skills and attitudes over time.
- to gauge student, teacher and school-leader views on citizenship education and citizenship related issues and the degree of congruence, or lack of it, between these views

Two and a half years after the introduction of statutory citizenship into the school curriculum, the time is right to examine students' experiences and attitudes. Students are likely to have a range of experiences of, and attitudes to, citizenship education and wider citizenship issues on which they can comment.

1.5 Structure of the report

The structure of the report has been determined by the efforts of the research team to address the three study aims outlined above by focusing on a number of key aspects of the student experience. In each section of the report, we have endeavoured to present our findings as concisely as possible; where useful, we have presented findings pictorially.

Section 2 spends some time providing updated information about the way in which schools are organising and executing the citizenship curriculum. This provides vital background information about the **contexts** in which students are learning about citizenship and gaining opportunities to take part in citizenship related activities. The analysis moves on in **Section 3** to address students' citizenship-related understanding, knowledge and behaviour, asking the following questions:

- What do students understand by citizenship as a concept?
- Has students' citizenship knowledge increased?
- Will citizenship impact on students' behaviour?

Section 4 takes as its focus students' views, trust and experiences, thus addressing the following questions:

- Do students feel they have a say in the running of their communities (both school and local)?
- Do they feel a sense of belonging to their schools and communities?
- Who do students trust?
- What are students' views on key social issues?
- What are students' views on citizenship in practice?

Section 5, the final analysis section of the report, considers the actual participation and engagement of students, focusing on the questions:

- Are students engaging with, and participating in, their communities (school and local) and in what capacity?
- Are students interested and engaged with politics and the political process and do they intend to engage in the future?
- Do students use the media and which aspects of the media do they trust?

Finally, **Section 6** pulls together the key findings of the analysis in order to return to the aims and objectives highlighted in Section 1.4.3 and to provide some key considerations for those most closely involved in citizenship education: headteachers, citizenship coordinators, teachers, Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the voluntary sector, researchers and policy makers.

2 Citizenship in practice: formal and informal approaches and contexts

This section of the report explores citizenship education in schools through the curriculum, school culture and links with the community. To do this it draws on data from questionnaires completed by teachers, college tutors and senior managers in schools and colleges. Its purpose is twofold. First, it provides new and updated information about the way in which schools are organising and executing the citizenship curriculum during the second year of statutory implementation. However, perhaps most importantly, it provides vital background information about the **contexts or sites** in which students are learning about citizenship and gaining opportunities to take part in citizenship related activities. The following section divides into three. First, an overview of citizenship in the curriculum outlines the ways in which the sample of 238 cross-sectional schools and colleges have begun to implement citizenship over its first two years as a statutory subject. Section 2.2 focuses on students' opportunities to take part in the school community. Finally, Section 2.3 moves on to discuss the ways in which schools are encouraging student participation in, and links with members of, the community beyond the classroom.

2.1 Citizenship in the curriculum

2.1.1 Delivery Approach

Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) and assemblies were the top delivery methods prioritised by schools (71 per cent of schools). In just over one third of schools (37 per cent for key stage 3 (students age 11 to 14) and 39 per cent for key stage 4 (students age 14-16)) citizenship was delivered through a dedicated timeslot; forty-five to seventy-five minutes was the most common timetable slot at both key stage 3 and key stage 4.

The approach taken by schools was said to build on current practice, ensuring a whole school approach in order to meet statutory requirements. The key subject areas used to deliver citizenship within schools were PSHE (84 per cent), Religious Education (RE) (79 per cent), history (66 per cent), geography (64 per cent) and English (58 per cent).

2.1.2 Staff involved

School leaders stated staff who delivered citizenship education were largely located within particular subject areas such as RE and PSHE (66 per cent) and/or were form tutors (59 per cent).

Most schools (90 per cent) had appointed a coordinator for citizenship, and 87 per cent of school leaders said it was an internal appointment drawing on existing expertise. Only 24 per cent of coordinators in schools were members of the senior management team. Most colleges (73 per cent) had also appointed a citizenship coordinator in post-16 settings. This despite the fact that 71 per cent of college leaders stated that they did not have an agreed strategy for teaching citizenship; a reflection of the fact that citizenship is not a statutory subject for this age range.

2.1.3 Recognising achievement

A high proportion of schools (89 per cent) revealed that some form of formal recognition of achievement was either in place, or planned for key stage 3 and for key stage 4 students.

The most common forms of assessment used at both key stages 3 and 4 were the assessment of student responses in class (59 and 54 per cent, respectively), the observation of students (60 and 51 per cent, respectively) and student self-assessment (55 and 46 per cent, respectively). Only 25 schools (13 per cent) were using the GCSE short course in Citizenship at key stage 4 at the time of survey. However, a further 24 schools (12 per cent) were planning to use the GCSE short course in the future.

2.2 Active citizenship in school (classroom climate and extra-curricular activities)

2.2.1 Taking part in the classroom

Teachers' reports of their use of a range of teaching and learning methods, the extent to which they feel students are given opportunities to participate actively in the classroom and are exposed to a positive climate in class were analysed using factor analysis. This revealed that their views clustered into the following categories:

Traditional teaching and learning

High scores mean that students reported the use of traditional methods to be frequent (e.g. taking notes, listening while the teacher talks, work from textbooks).

Active student participation in class

High scores reflect active involvement of students in lessons (e.g. role play and debates; giving presentations).

Positive classroom climate

High scores indicate that students discuss and debate, bring up issues for discussion, receive unbiased information from teachers, express their views, even if they disagree with teachers, and are encouraged to make up their own minds.

On average, teaching staff showed a high tendency to use *traditional teaching and learning*² methods in the classroom (mean = 76), but only a moderate tendency to promote *active student participation* in classroom activities (mean = 58). There appeared to be little differentiation between teachers' use of active involvement of students in classroom activities across Years 8, 10 and 12.

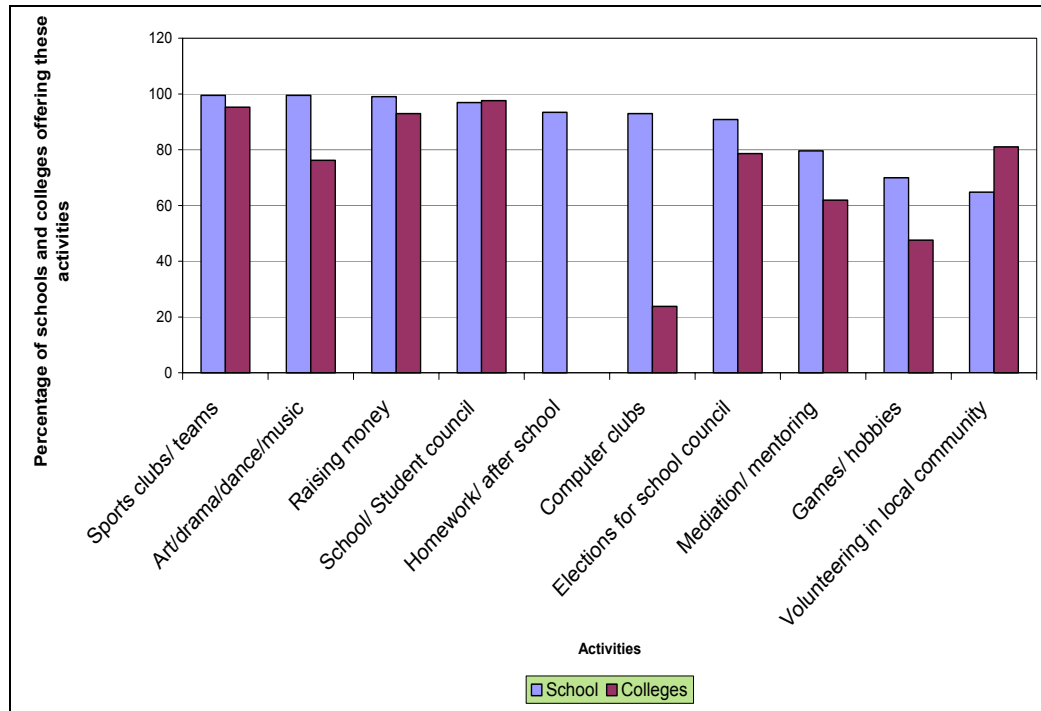
Despite this, teaching staff tended to perceive their classrooms as having a *positive climate* (mean = 75). Yet students' involvement in the actual planning of teaching and learning strategies in schools was not reported to be a common occurrence, with only 33 per cent of teachers reporting this to be the case. In contrast, 53 per cent of college tutors stated that opportunities for such involvement existed in post-16 settings.

2.2.2 Taking part in school-life

School leaders indicated that they offered a variety of opportunities for students to become involved in extra-curricular activities; most frequently sports clubs and teams, art, music and drama groups, school and student councils and raising money for charity (see Figure 2.3). Around nine tenths of school and college leaders (91 and 89 per cent, respectively) stated that students were encouraged to participate in extra-curricular activities.

² Factor means refer to average scores on a scale of 0-100.

Figure 2.3 – Most common extra-curricular activities on offer



Please note: No data available for homework/after school clubs in colleges.

N = 196 Schools, 42 Colleges

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

A greater percentage of members of the senior management teams than members of teaching staff (67 and 41 per cent, respectively), in both schools and colleges, agreed that the whole school or college, including students, was involved in discussion and decision making.

In terms of opportunities for student involvement in the school, most senior managers (88 per cent) and members of teaching staff (83 per cent) across the schools and colleges in the sample agreed that if students worked together, rather than individually, they had more influence in the school or college.

However, a greater percentage of senior managers than teaching staff, perceived that students were, at least sometimes, consulted about the development of school rules and policies (82 per cent and 64 per cent respectively) and that students had at least some say in how their school/college is run and organised (88 per cent), particularly though their involvement in student councils (73 per cent).

The responses of school leaders and teaching staff to items on how much the whole school, and students in particular, were involved in decision making in the school were analysed using factor analysis. Their views grouped into the following factor:

Democracy in school/college

High scores indicate that the whole school, and students in particular, are involved in the running of the school, and students have a say in how they work in lessons.

On average, school leaders and teaching staff indicated that their institutions were moderately democratic, stating that there were some opportunities for students to play an active part in the running of their schools and colleges. However, members of the senior management team viewed their institutions as more democratic than did members of teaching staff (means = 57 and 48, respectively). In schools, there was only a weak association between school leaders average *democracy in school* scores and those of teachers ($r = .27$). A stronger association existed between college tutors and college leaders ($r = .44$).

2.3 Links with the local community

Three quarters of senior managers agreed that their institutions had good active relationships with the wider community. Internet links to the local community were offered on the school/college website by around a quarter of institutions, while just over one fifth offered links to other schools.

Most senior managers said that they offered students the opportunity to volunteer in the local community (65 per cent) and to take part in a student exchange programme (51 per cent). Moreover, 59 per cent of school teachers reported that they used external participants in the teaching of citizenship in school.

3 Students' understanding, knowledge and behaviour

This section of the report begins to address students' views, attitudes and experiences. In particular it asks the questions:

- What do students understand by citizenship as a concept?
- Has students' citizenship knowledge increased?
- What is the likely impact and importance of citizenship education for students and their schools?

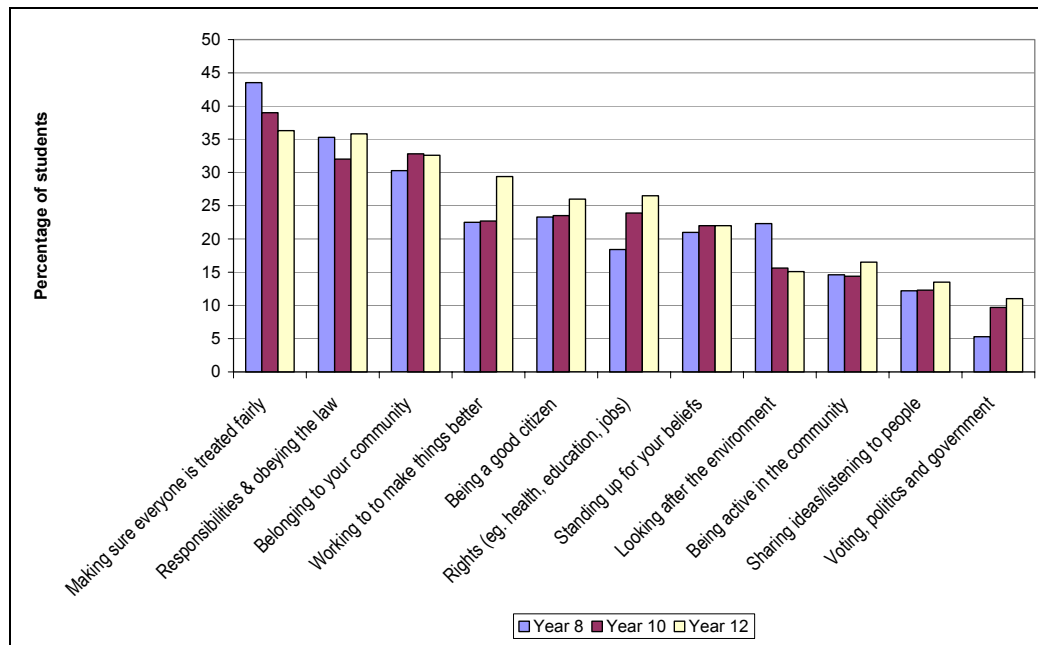
The analysis that follows focuses on data from the second cross-sectional survey, but reference is made to data from Year 7 students in the first longitudinal survey undertaken in autumn 2002 (Kerr *et al.* 2003) and Year 10 and Year 12 students in the first cross-sectional survey undertaken in spring 2002 (Kerr *et al.* 2002) where appropriate.

3.1 What do students understand by citizenship as a concept?

Students who took part in the second cross-sectional survey were presented with eleven common definitions of citizenship (provided by Year 7 students in answer to an open-ended question in the first longitudinal survey in 2002). When asked to tick up to three boxes to indicate which descriptions best fitted their own definition of citizenship, students prioritised six items (see Figure 3.1):

- Belonging to your local, national or international community
- People's responsibilities and obeying the law
- Making sure everyone is treated fairly
- Working together to make things better
- People's rights (e.g. health, education, jobs, housing)
- Being a good citizen.

Interestingly, voting, politics and government was the least often selected definition across the age range.

Figure 3.1 – Most common student definitions of citizenship

N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

3.2 What have students learnt in citizenship?

A greater percentage of students (68 per cent of all students) said they were taught citizenship at least a little in school in the current survey than in the 2002 Longitudinal survey of Year 7 students (48 per cent) and the 2002 Cross-sectional survey (48 per cent of Year 8, 10 and 12 students).

Year 10 and year 12 students were asked to list the citizenship-related topics they had learnt about in school. Topics that students reported learning about most often were rights and responsibilities (69 per cent), different cultures and ethnic groups (67 per cent), crime and punishment (62 per cent), environment (56 per cent) and the media (52 per cent). The topics students most often said they had not been taught included the voluntary sector (40 per cent), resolving conflict (37 per cent), voting and elections (40 per cent), the European Union (39 per cent), the economy and business (36 per cent), and parliament and government (34 per cent).

In schools, there tended to be weak or no association between how many students reported being taught about the topics and how confident, on average, teachers in their schools felt about teaching the same topic area. However, in colleges there was a moderate association for some areas: crime and punishment ($r = .43$), the media ($r =$

.44), the European Union ($r = .45$). This raises the possibility that, at least for some topics, where citizenship education is non-statutory, institutions may be concentrating on the areas in which teaching staff are most confident.

3.3 Has citizenship knowledge increased?

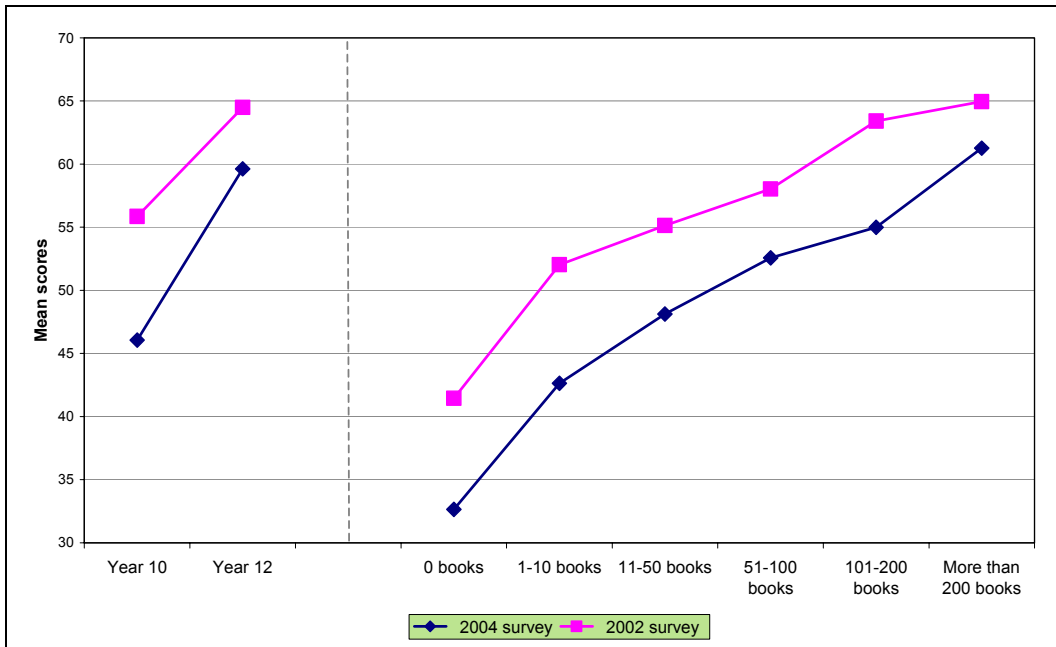
3.3.1 Has students' knowledge increased?

Despite the increasing percentage of students who are being taught citizenship, students' scores for knowledge of citizenship issues were lower in 2004 than in 2002, before the introduction of statutory citizenship education. For seven 'knowledge' questions posed to Year 10 and Year 12 students, the mean score for the percentage answered correctly fell from 60 per cent in 2002 to 52 per cent in 2004. The mean score fell most dramatically amongst Year 10 students (ten points) and amongst those students who reported low levels of home literacy resources³ (a drop of nine per cent for both those students who reported that their homes contained no books or 1-10 books). However, it should be noted that this may reflect the nature of the questions posed to students, and the subjects taught in schools, rather than any clear reduction in students' knowledge *per se*. The relevant items in the survey tested knowledge about political and legal processes and institutions, including those concerning voting, political representation and legal rights. These are precisely the citizenship topics that students report they are taught least about.

3.3.2 Who knows most?

On average boys gained similar mean knowledge scores to girls (mean = 48 and 46, respectively), while mean knowledge scores, somewhat predictably, rose with age (see Figure 3.2). Mean knowledge scores also rose in relation to home literacy resources. In short, as the number of books in students' homes rose, so too did mean knowledge scores.

³ The number of books that a students' home contains has been shown to be one of the most important predictors of students' political and civic knowledge scores (Kerr *et al.* 2003). Previous studies additionally show that there is a strong relationship between this variable and various educational outcomes both in terms of student attitudes and their academic attainment (see Elley, 1994; Mullis *et al.*, 2003).

Figure 3.2 – Knowledge scores by age and books in the home

N = 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students in 2004; 2282 Year 10 and 2138 Year 12 students in 2002

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

3.4 The impact and importance of citizenship education

To date, evidence as to the impact of citizenship education on students' key skills, attitudes and behaviour cannot be addressed directly. However, teaching staff and senior managers views on the potential benefits and relevance of citizenship education to students are reported below.

3.4.1 Impact on students

The views of school and college leaders, as well as those of teachers and tutors, on the impact and importance of citizenship education were analysed using factor analysis. This revealed that questionnaire items in these areas grouped to form the following factors:

Irrelevance of citizenship education

High scores reflect the belief that citizenship can best be learned outside school

Positive impact of citizenship education

High scores reflect the belief that citizenship education will have a positive impact on students, as well as on the school's relationship with the wider community. For teachers, this also includes the belief that it will encourage students to participate in future elections and entail more student consultation on issues that affect them.

Senior managers felt that citizenship education, as provided by the school and college, was significant in developing the attitudes and views of students. They tended not to endorse the view that citizenship education was irrelevant to schools and students (mean = 36 for *irrelevance of citizenship education*). Teaching staff were also supportive of citizenship education believing that it will have a *positive impact* on students (mean = 64).

In particular, both senior managers and teaching staff agreed or strongly agreed that teaching students citizenship was important for students' political and civic development (64 and 69 per cent, respectively) and to equip them with social and personal skills for adult life (around 80 per cent).

Senior managers and teaching staff both reported that they believed that citizenship education would have at least some impact on the following:

- Students' participation in schools activities (e.g. councils and clubs) (81 per cent and 76 per cent respectively)
- Students' participation in community activity (e.g. voluntary work) (81 per cent and 70 per cent respectively) and
- Students engaging with issues affecting the local community (80 per cent and 71 per cent respectively).

Senior managers additionally highlighted a potential impact on the likelihood that they would consult students when developing policies affecting them (83 per cent).

Finally, senior managers and teaching staff believed that citizenship education would have relatively least impact on student behaviour (63 per cent and 49 per cent respectively).

3.4.2 Impact on school and college

When asked about the potential benefits of citizenship education for their school or college, both senior managers and teaching staff highlighted the following:

- Students would gain an increased awareness of community and current affairs (87 and 86 per cent, respectively)
- students would become able to make informed and critical decisions. (85 and 80 per cent, respectively)
- There would be greater tolerance and respect and improved relationships within the school/college (84 and 80 per cent, respectively).

4 Students' views, trust and experiences

Section 4 takes as its focus students' views, trust and experiences. It addresses, in particular, the following questions:

- Do students feel they can participate, and have a say, in their communities (both school and local)?
- Do they feel a sense of belonging to their schools and communities?
- Who do students trust?
- What are students' views on key social issues?
- What are students' views on the practice of citizenship?

In this section, the analysis concentrates mainly on data from the second cross-sectional survey, but reference is made to data from Year 7 students in the first longitudinal survey undertaken in Autumn 2002 (Kerr *et al.* 2004) where appropriate.

4.1 Having a say: the student voice

4.1.1 Having a say in school

Students' views on how much of a voice they have in school were analysed using factor analysis. Their views grouped into a factor called *student efficacy*:

Student efficacy

High scores indicate that students thought that they had a say in the running of their school and how they work in their classes.

Student councils were in place in almost all of the schools surveyed (97 per cent of schools and 98 per cent of colleges). However, on average, students reported only moderate levels of *student efficacy*⁴ (mean = 42).

In schools and colleges where students had, on average, a greater sense of *student efficacy*, staff also tended to perceive their school or college to be more democratic.

⁴ Factor means refer to average scores on a scale of 0-100.

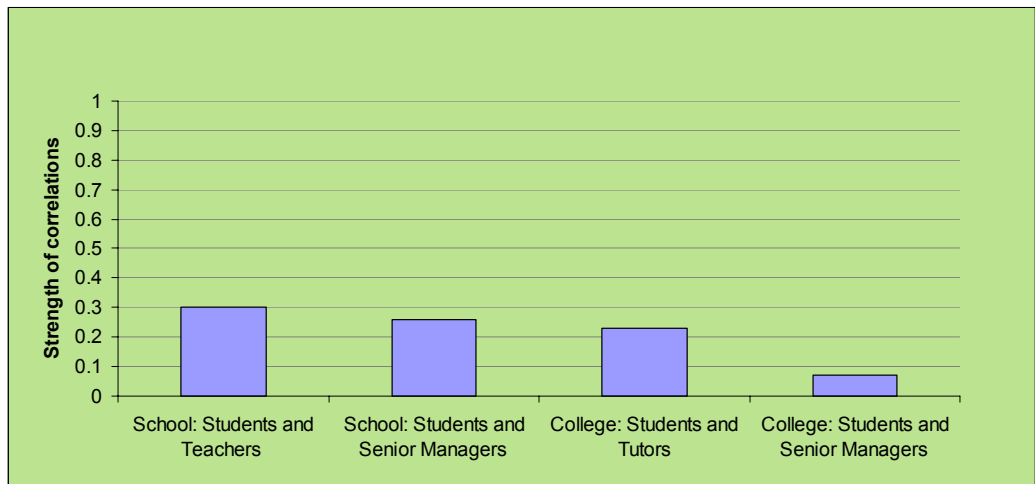
Staff views on democracy in their school or college were additionally analysed using factor analysis, and views were grouped into the following factor:

Democracy in school/college

High scores indicate that the whole school, and students in particular, are involved in the running of the school, and students have a say in how they work in lessons.

Compared to the views of senior managers, those of teaching staff on *school/college democracy* tended to be closer to those of students on *student efficacy* (Figure 4.1). Nevertheless, this association was weak.

Figure 4.1 – Degree of congruence between staff views on school/college democracy and student perceptions of student efficacy



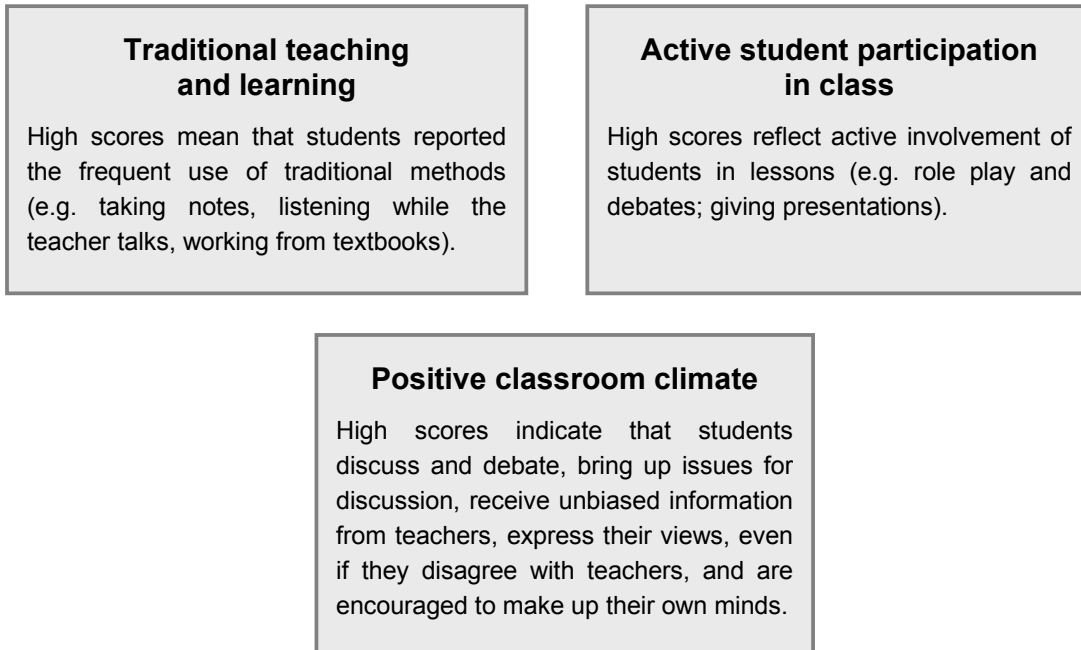
N = 196 Schools, 42 Colleges, 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students
 Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

Levels of *student efficacy* declined between the beginning of key stage 3 and the beginning of key stage 4, but they then rose again, particularly for Year 12 students attending colleges (see Figure 4.2). This was despite the levels of *school/college democracy* reported by school teachers and college tutors being similar (mean = 48 and 51, respectively).

Finally, Asian students reported considerably higher levels of *student efficacy* than other groups (except for black students), whereas such efficacy levels were identical for males and females.

4.1.2 Participating in the classroom

Students' reports of the teaching and learning methods to which they are exposed, the extent to which they have an opportunity to be active in the classroom and how positive the climate in their classrooms is were analysed using factor analysis. This yielded the following factors:



Students reported being exposed to high levels of *traditional teaching and learning* methods (mean = 76) and only being given a moderate level of opportunities for *active participation* in class (mean = 55). This reflects findings from the teacher survey where, on average, teachers showed a high tendency to use *traditional teaching and learning* in the classroom and a moderate tendency to promote *active student participation* (see section 2.2.1).

Despite this, and also consistent with the teacher survey, students were moderately positive about their ability to express their views and develop their own opinions in class (*positive classroom climate*, mean = 57). However, many students felt that they were not very involved in planning teaching methods (80 per cent) and just under half felt they did not have a say in their own pattern of working during lessons (45 per cent).

Consistent with teacher survey findings, older students reported greater exposure to *traditional teaching and learning methods*. Students' views on *classroom climate*,

however, became more and more positive as they progressed through their education (Figure 4.2).

Males and females reported similar levels of *positive classroom climate*, *active student participation* and *traditional teaching and learning methods*.

4.1.3 Do students feel generally empowered?

Questionnaire items on students' views on their opportunities to have a say, both in school and beyond, were analysed using factor analysis. Their views grouped into the following factor:

Personal efficacy
High scores reflect students' confidence that they have a voice that is heard across the different spheres of their lives.

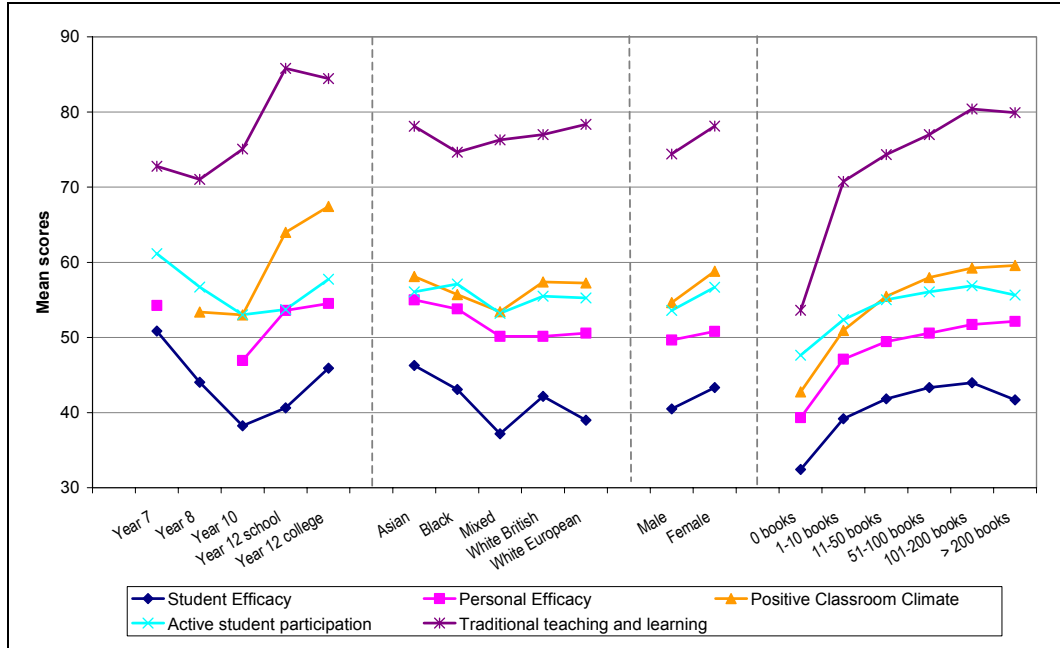
Students had moderate levels of *personal efficacy*⁵ (mean = 50). Many felt that their opinions were taken seriously by their family (48 per cent), although only about one-fifth (19 per cent) felt they could have a real influence on the Government if they got involved.

The pattern for *personal efficacy* across the year groups was identical to that of *student efficacy*, i.e. it appears to dip in Year 10. Furthermore, males and females reported similar levels of *personal efficacy* whereas, amongst the ethnic groups examined, Asian students reported the highest levels of *personal efficacy*.

One variable which was inspected in relation to feelings of empowerment was students' home literacy resources. It was found that students who reported low levels of home literacy resources tended to report considerably lower levels of *personal efficacy* (and, for that matter, lower levels of *student efficacy*, *classroom climate*, *active student participation* and exposure to *traditional teaching and learning methods*) (Figure 4.2).

⁵ Mean for Year 10 and Year 12, as data for Year 8 is not available.

Figure 4.2 – Student efficacy and participation in school by Year group, ethnicity, gender, and home literacy resources



Please note: No Year 8 data available for personal efficacy.

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

4.2 Trust and belonging

4.2.1 Trust and belonging in the school, the community and beyond

Students' attitudes towards the communities in which they live and key members of those communities were analysed using factor analysis. Their attitudes were clustered around the following themes:

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 via their local community, to national society and European society).

Feeling embedded in a closely-knit neighbourhood

High scores reflect students' perceptions 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, the police, the European Union (EU) and at the school level, teachers.)

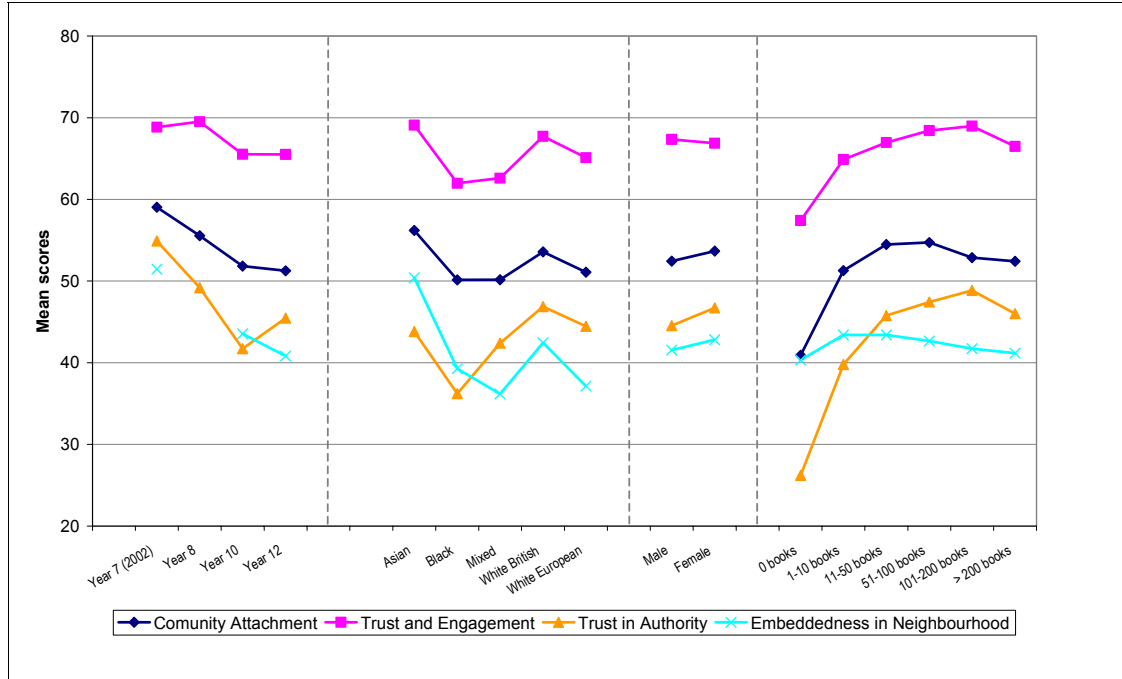
Students reported moderate levels of *community attachment* (mean = 52), *trust in authority* (mean = 43) and *embeddedness in their neighbourhood*⁶ (mean = 42), but high levels of *trust and engagement*⁷ in their immediate social environments (mean = 67).

Trust and engagement in students' immediate social environments was relatively stable across different education stages. However, as age increased, students felt less *embedded in their neighbourhoods*, reported decreasing levels of *community attachment* and *trust in authority*.

⁶ Mean for Year 10 and Year 12, as data for Year 8 is not available.

⁷ Results should be interpreted with care as the internal consistency of this factor was relatively low for Year 7 and Year 8 pupils.

Figure 4.3 – Student trust and belonging by Year group, ethnicity, gender, and books in the home



Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

Asian students displayed the highest average levels of trust in, engagement in, and attachment to, their communities. *Trust in authority* was particularly low amongst black students, whereas it was highest amongst white British students. Mixed, white-European and black students had the lowest levels of *embeddedness in their neighbourhood*.

Overall, the more home literacy resources students reported having access to, the more they tended to feel trust and engagement in, and attachment to, their communities. The single most marked finding was that those who reported having no books at all in their home felt considerably less *community attachment* and less *trust and engagement* than any other students.

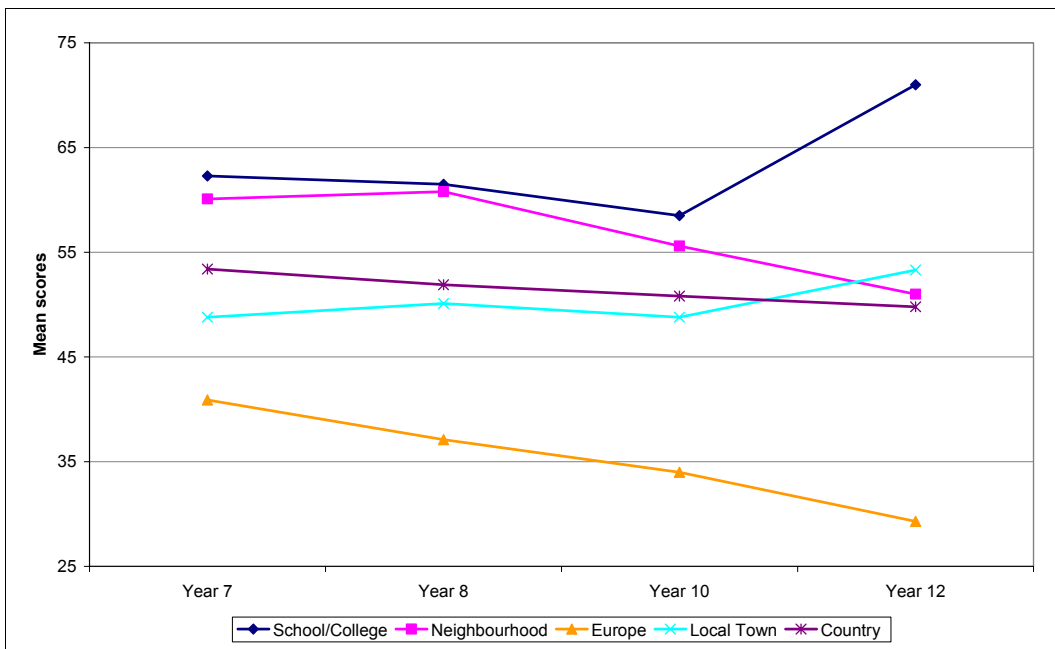
Most students did not feel lonely at school or college (62 per cent) and felt part of their school or college community (63 per cent). Fewer felt a sense of belonging to their neighbourhood (56 per cent), their country (51 per cent) and their local town (49 per cent). Around one third (34 per cent) felt part of Europe to the same extent.

The proportion of students who felt a sense of belonging to their local town and their country was relatively stable across age groups. However, as students become older, more felt sense of belonging to their schools or colleges and fewer felt a sense of belonging to their neighbourhood and to Europe (Figure 4.4).

Finally, the group that students showed highest levels of trust in was the family (90 per cent). This was followed by trust of the police (61 per cent) and people of their own age (60 per cent). Just over half of the student sample (52 per cent) trusted their teachers and less than half their neighbours (43 per cent). The lowest levels of trust were placed in the European Union (EU) (24 per cent) and politicians (18 per cent).

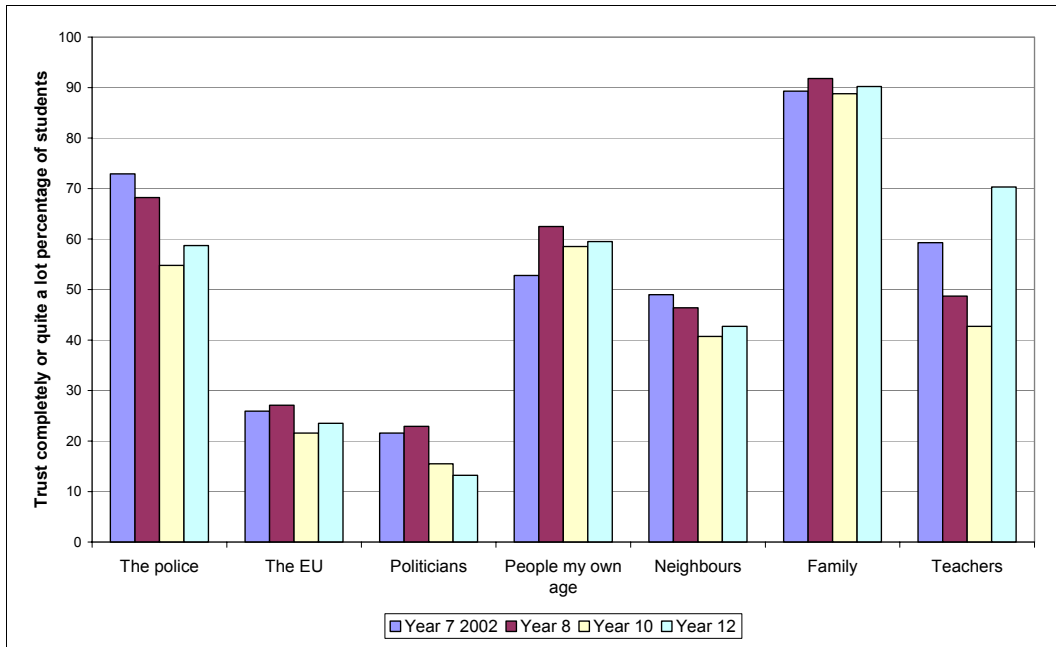
Trust in the police, politicians and neighbours tended to decrease over age groups, whereas trust in teachers diminished between Year 7 and Year 10 students and then rose again in Year 12 (Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.4 – Students’ feelings of belonging to different communities



N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

Figure 4.5 – Students feelings of trust in individuals and institutions

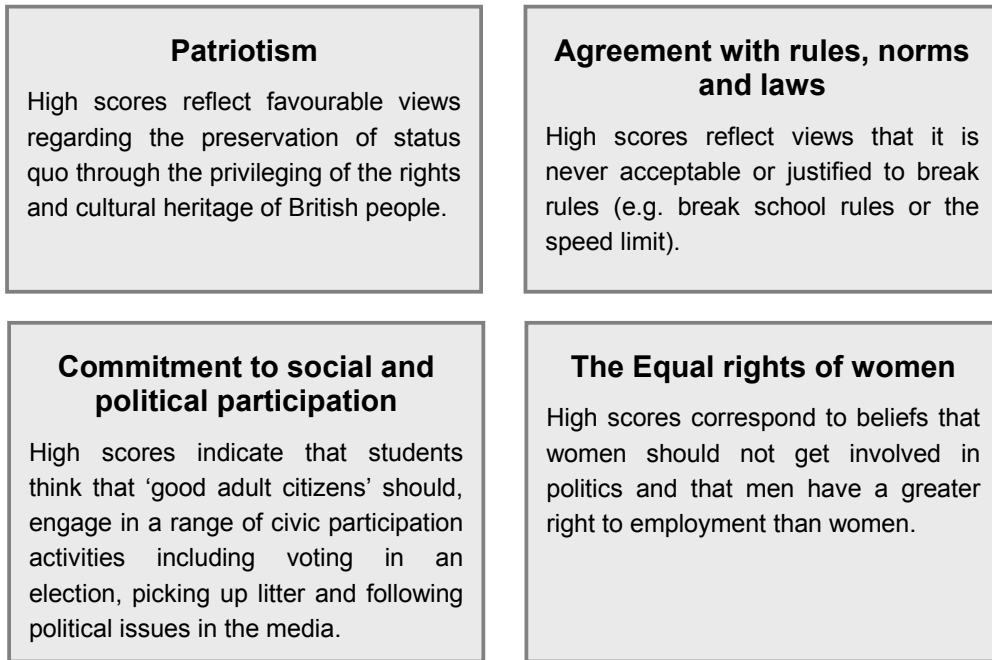
N = 18, 583 Year 7 (2002) 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students (2004)
 Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

4.3 Students' attitudes to key social issues

4.3.1 Attitudes to government policy, laws, participation and social groups

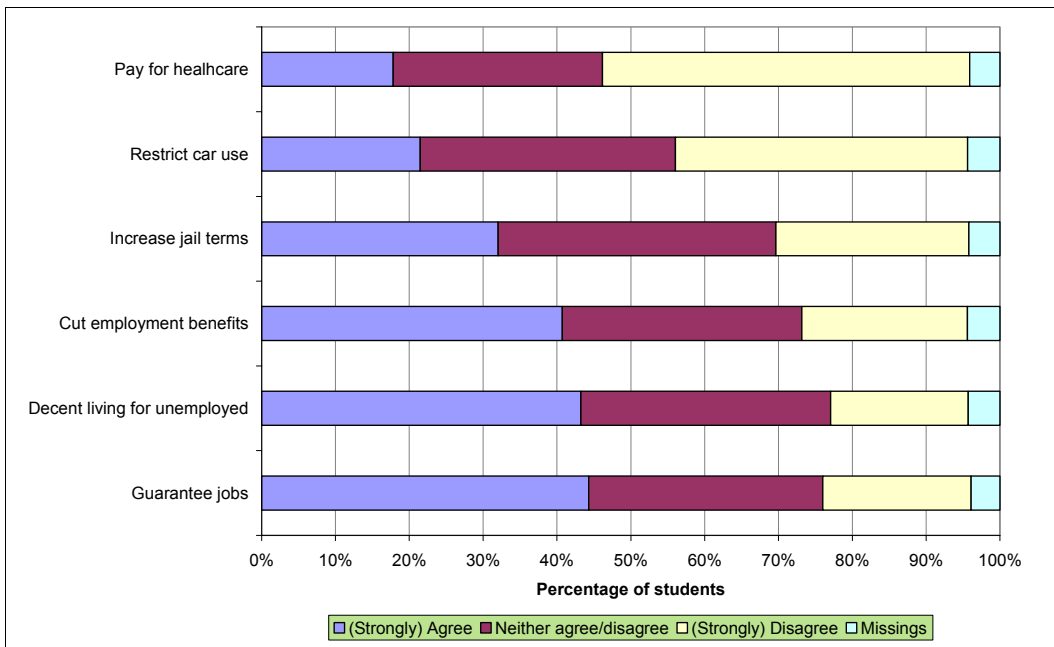
Many students had no strong views as to whether the government should intervene in different aspects of social and economic life (i.e. they neither agreed nor disagreed with a series of statements – shown in Figure 4.6). The measures which were most popular were guaranteeing employment and good standards of living for the unemployed. However, many students were also supportive of cutting unemployment benefits as a way of encouraging individuals to become gainfully employed. The least popular measures were the restriction of car driving to control pollution and making those who can afford it pay for their own health care.

Factor analysis revealed that students' attitudes towards laws, participation and social groups could be summarised by the following factors:



On average, students of all education levels supported *equal opportunities for women* in society and showed moderate levels of *patriotism*.⁸

Figure 4.6 – Students’ opinions on what the government should do



N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

⁸ Results for this factor should be interpreted with care as the internal consistency of this factor was relatively low for Year 7 and Year 8 pupils.

Views which questioned the *equal rights of women* were low across ethnic groups, tended to decrease with age (see Figure 4.7), were much lower for females than for males and were highest amongst those with no home literacy resources.

Levels of *patriotism*, on the other hand, increased between Year 7 and Year 12, were highest amongst white British students and those with no home literacy resources. On average, males tended to endorse patriotic views to a greater extent.

Figure 4.7 – Students’ attitudes to laws, participation and social groups

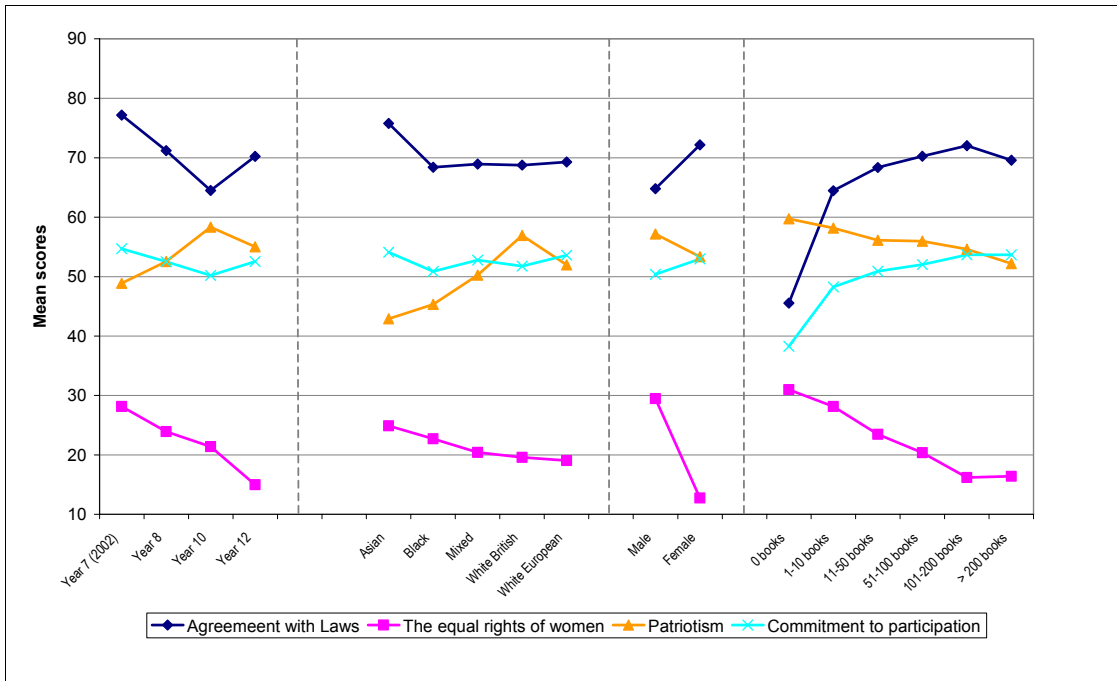


Table note: Where Year groups are combined, means for embeddedness in neighbourhood are for Year 10 and Year 12 combined, only. No data available for Year 8
 Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.
 N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students
 Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

Agreement with rules and laws was moderate to high amongst students (mean = 69), whereas commitment to social and political participation was moderate (mean = 52).

Agreement with rules and laws was highest amongst Year 7 students and lowest amongst Year 10 students, compared to other year groups. It was highest for Asian students compared to other ethnic groups, higher for females than for males and considerably lower for those with no home literacy resources relative to all other groups of students.

Perceptions of how much people should engage in a range of civic participation activities (*commitment to participation*) were relatively stable across age groups and it was similar for the different ethnic groups, and for males and females. Of all groups, those with no home literacy resources scored lowest on *commitment to participation*.

4.4 Views on citizenship in practice

4.4.1 What makes a good adult citizen?

Most students (77 per cent) felt that a good adult citizen is someone who obeys the law. This is consistent with the fact that many students considered that citizenship was about responsibilities and obeying the law (see section 3.1).

Other factors highlighted as characterising a good adult citizen were *taking an interest in local and community issues* (50 per cent), *participating in activities to the benefit of the community* (47 per cent), *picking up litter in a public place* (43 per cent) and *writing to an MP about an issue of concern* (41 per cent). Only one-fifth felt that a good adult citizen follows political issues in the media.

Many students, however, did not have strong views about whether a number of citizenship-related behaviours characterised a good adult citizen. For instance, many neither agreed nor disagreed that *following political issues in the media* (46 per cent), *joining a political party* (45 per cent) and *participating in activities to benefit the community* (36 per cent) were characteristics of good adult citizens (36 per cent).

Year 12 students were the most likely to agree that a good citizen takes an interest in local issues, participates in the community, picks up litter and writes to his/her MP (see Figure 4.8). As will be seen in section 5.3, older students are also more inclined to vote and are more likely to show an interest in politics.

Conversely, Year 12 students were the most likely to *disagree* that being part of a football club and joining political party characterised good citizenship (Figure 4.9). Thus, organisation-linked types of participation seemed to be less emphasised by the oldest students.

4.4.2 Rights and responsibilities of citizens

Students were clear that one person's rights and responsibilities should not always take precedence over another's. For example, 45 per cent of students disagreed with

the idea that people should be able to express racist views (45 per cent). Moreover, despite over three-quarters of students believing that a good citizen obeys the law, almost half disagreed that people should obey a law even if it violates human rights (47 per cent).

The majority also opposed the view that people should look out for themselves rather than for others (56 per cent) and that papers should be able to print whatever they like (51 per cent). Most students further agreed that people should protest peacefully against an unjust law (51 per cent) and that terrorism is never justified (57 per cent).

Finally, although 30 per cent agreed that it is every person's duty to help out in their neighbourhood, almost half (46 per cent) had no strong opinion on this matter, i.e. neither agreed nor disagreed.

The older the students, the more they tended to value peaceful civic participation and freedom of expression, whilst valuing ethical principles such as the respect for human rights above obedience to laws.

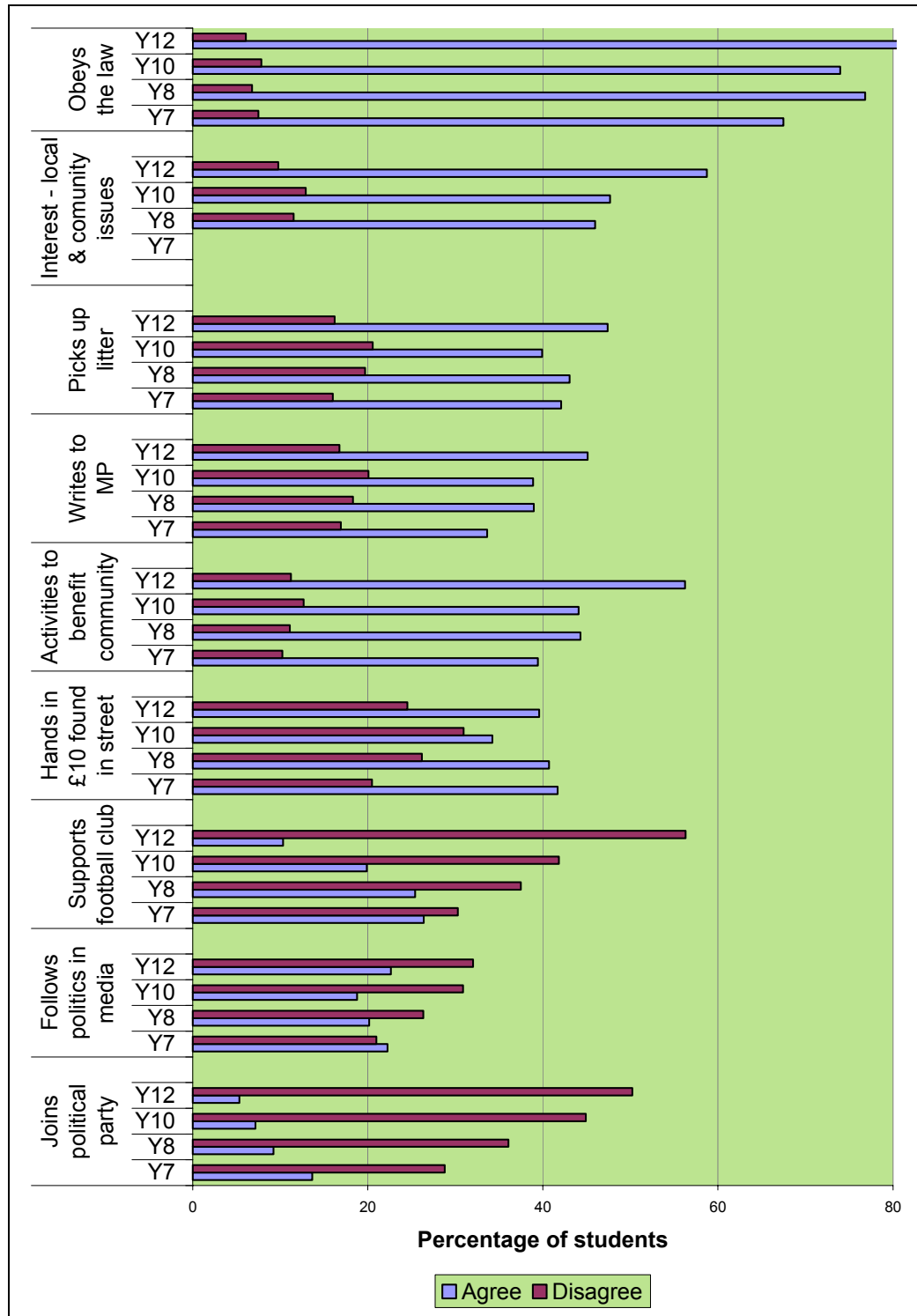
Indeed, between the Year 7 survey in 2002 and the Year 10 and Year 12 surveys in 2004, there was an increase in the proportion of students agreeing that (percentages for Years 7 (2002), 10 and 12 (2004), respectively):

- terrorism is never justified (32, 52, 64 per cent)
- people should protest peacefully against unjust laws (32, 45 and 60 per cent)
- voting is a duty in adulthood (21, 25 and 34 per cent)
- papers should be able to print whatever they like (15, 26 and 28 per cent).

On the other hand, Year 7 and Year 12 there was an increase the proportion of students opposing the view that people (percentages for Years 7, 10 and 12, respectively):

- should obey a law even it if violates human rights (22, 42 and 53 per cent)
- should have the right to express racist views (31, 41 and 52 per cent)
- have a duty to help out in their neighbourhood (15, 21 and 20 per cent).

Figure 4.8 – Students’ views on what characterises a good adult citizen



N = 18, 583 Year 7 (2002) 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students (2004)
 Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

5 Students' participation and engagement

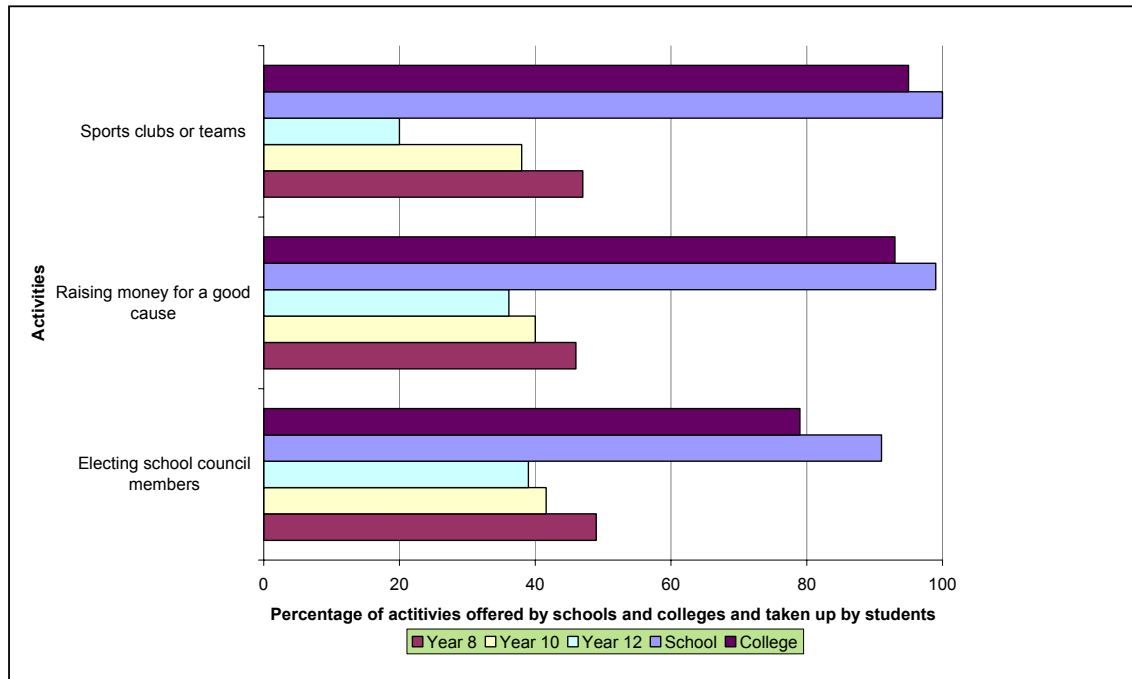
This section of the report takes as its focus students' actual (and expected future) engagement and participation. It focuses, in particular, on:

- Are students engaging with, and participating in, their communities (school and local) and in what capacity?
- Are students interested in, and engaged with, politics and the political process and do they intend to engage in the future?
- How do students use the media and which aspects of the media do they trust?

The analysis focuses in the main on data from the second cross-sectional survey. However, where appropriate, reference is made to data from the 2002 longitudinal survey (Kerr *et al.*, 2003).

5.1 Engagement with the school community

As discussed in Section 3, school leaders offered a variety of opportunities for students to take part in activities in school. The graph below (Figure 5.1) reveals the top three activities that students participated in most frequently and the proportion of schools that offered these activities. As the graph shows there is some discrepancy between the proportion of schools that offer activities and the proportion of students that participate in them. Electing school or class council members was the activity in which students most frequently participated (44 per cent of students) and for all types of activity the take-up was greater amongst younger students, compared to older students.

Figure 5.1 – Opportunities for participation in school: Offered and taken-up

N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10, 1842 Year 12 students, 196 Schools, 42 Colleges
Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

A much smaller proportion of students said that they had participated in a school council, and Year 10 students had the lowest participation rates (11 per cent of Year 8, 9 per cent of Year 10 and 12 per cent of Year 12). These were in line with the Year 7 students' participation rates in 2002-3, where 12 per cent indicated that they had taken part in a school council.

Students were also asked about the help that they had given to clubs, groups or organisations over the 12 months prior to the survey. Although the largest proportion of students said that they had not given help to any clubs, groups or organisations (42 per cent), 30 per cent had taken part in a sponsored activity, whilst 26 per cent had helped to run or organise an event. Nineteen per cent had helped a club, group or organisation in another way, whilst, 14 per cent said that they had been part of a committee.

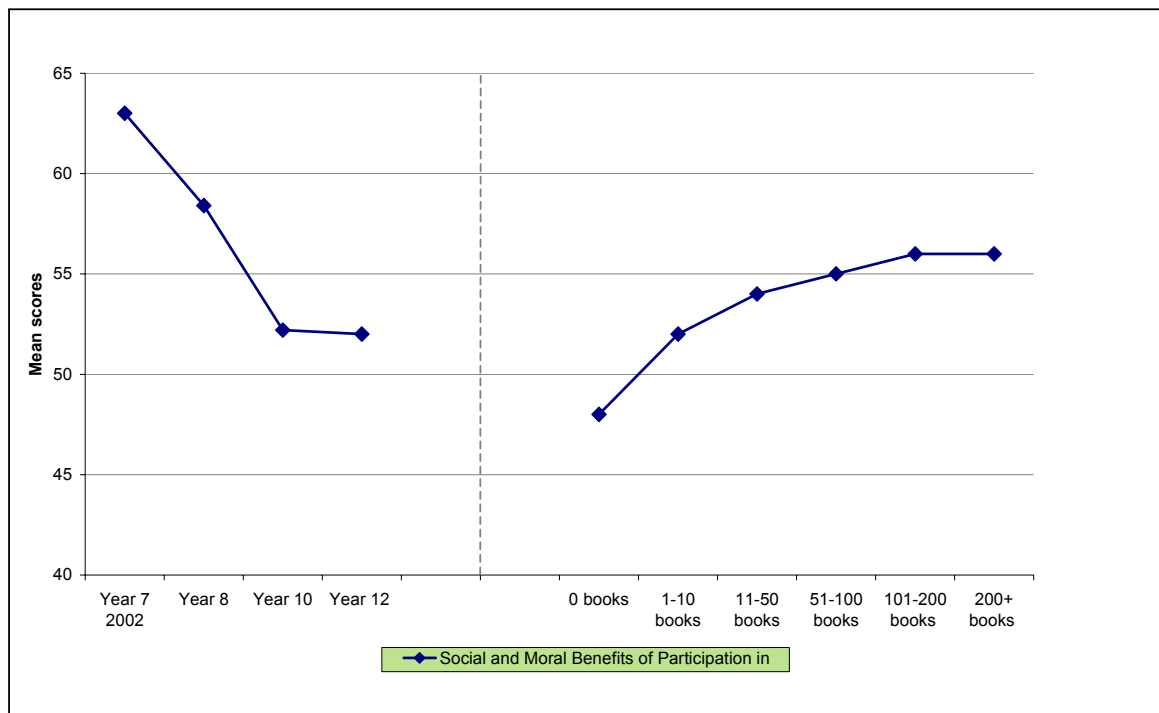
Students' attitudes towards participation in the school community were analysed using factor analysis and then different groups of students were compared. The analysis revealed the factor: *Social and moral benefits of participation in clubs*.

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.

Overall, students perceived to a moderate level (mean = 54) that there were social and moral benefits to participation in clubs and 42 per cent of all students said that they really enjoyed taking part in clubs and groups. Whilst there were few differences between different ethnic groups and male and female students in relation to their perception of the benefits of participation, there were some differences relating to age and also to home literacy resources. Students' perceptions of the benefits of participation in clubs fell as they got older, but increased as the home literacy resources increased, as Figure 5.2 shows.

Figure 5.2 – Social and Moral Benefits of Participation in Clubs



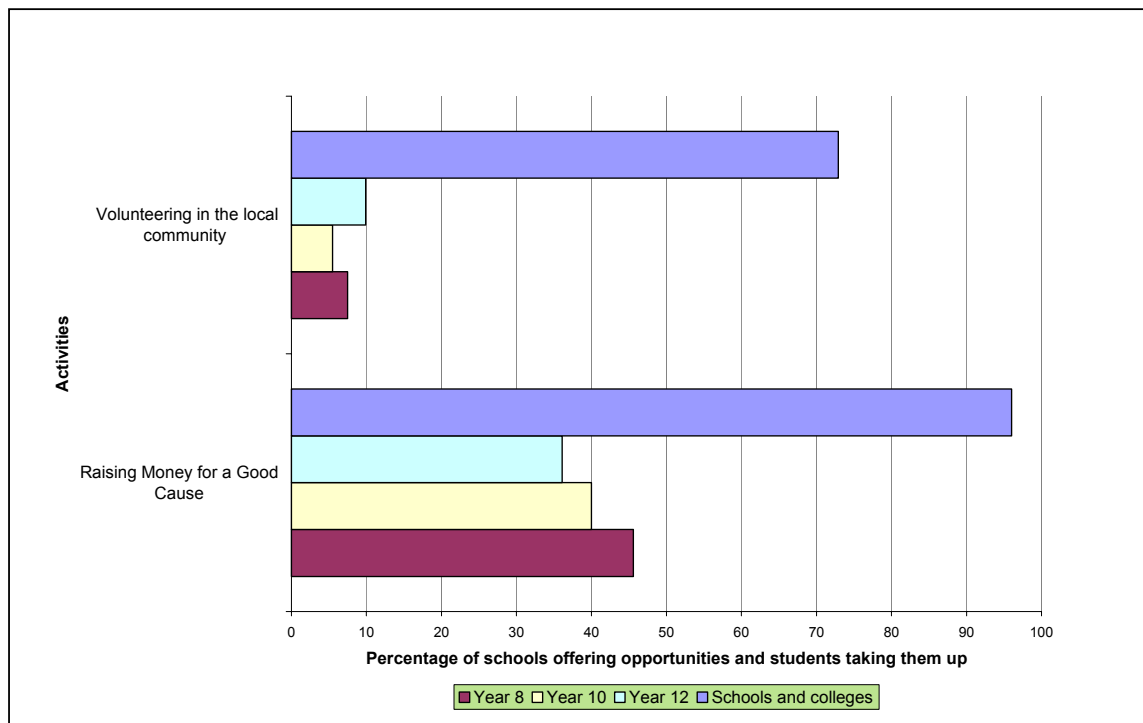
N = 18, 583 Year 7 (2002) 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students (2004)
Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.
 Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

5.2 Engagement with the wider community

5.2.1 Opportunities to participate in the wider community

As Figure 5.3 illustrates, opportunities to raise money for a good cause were more frequently offered by schools than opportunities to volunteer in the local community. Whilst only a small proportion of students indicated that they had volunteered in the local community, a larger proportion had been involved in raising money for a good cause.

Figure 5.3 – Opportunities for participation in the community – offered and taken up



N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students, 196 Schools, 42 Colleges
 Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

5.2.2 Students' attitudes to participation

Compared to current participation, overall students planned to participate in their communities more in the future; a total of 59 per cent of students said that they intended to collect money for a good cause in the future, whilst 48 per cent said that they would volunteer to help other people.

Costs and benefits of participation in voluntary work

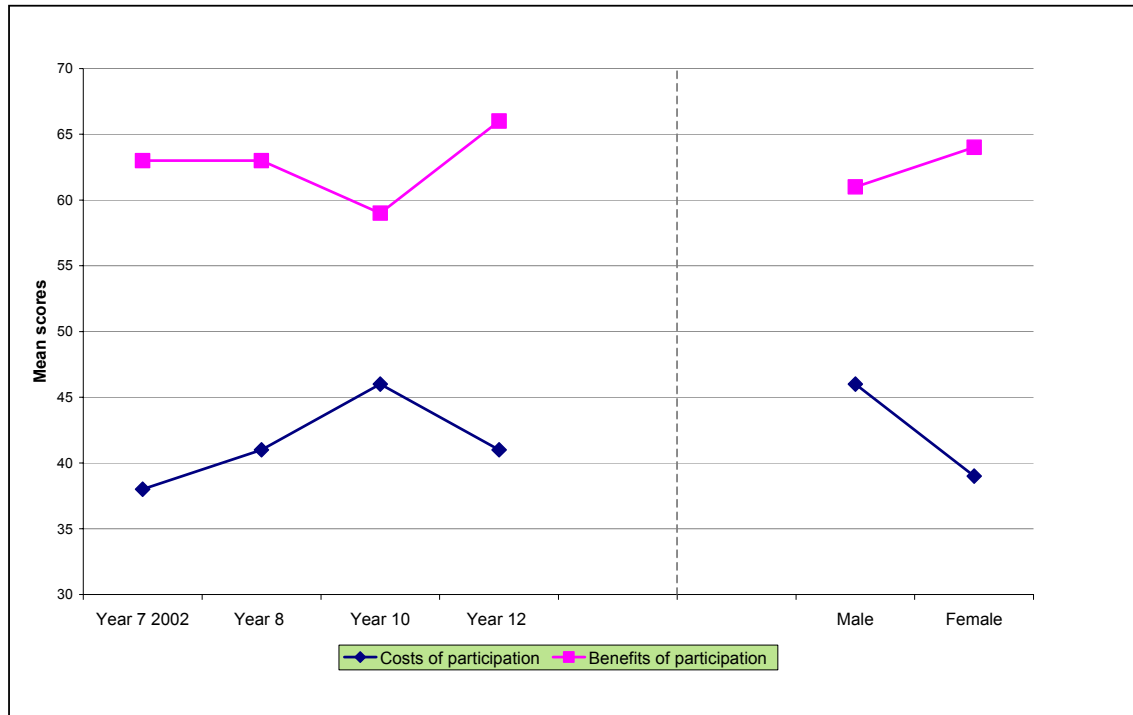
Students' attitudes to volunteering in their communities were analysed using factor analysis and different groups of students were compared. Their attitudes towards volunteering grouped into two factors:

<p style="text-align: center;">Costs of participation in voluntary work</p> <p>High scores on this factor indicate that voluntary work is perceived to be too time-consuming and not to be valued by peers</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Instrumental benefits of voluntary work</p> <p>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</p>
---	--

On average students perceived there to be moderate levels of costs of participation in voluntary work (mean = 42). Overall, 28 per cent of students felt that they were too busy to volunteer for activities in school or out of school and 15 per cent said that their friends laugh at people who do voluntary work. Students perceived that there were moderate to high levels of instrumental benefits to participation in voluntary work (mean = 62). Nearly two-thirds (62 per cent) of all students thought that taking part in optional activities was a good way to meet people, whilst 54 per cent thought that doing voluntary work may help them to get a better job in the future.

Figure 5.4 illustrates that there were some age and gender differences in relation to perceptions of the costs and benefits of participation. Year 10 students, who stood out amongst year groups, perceived to the greatest degree that there were costs to participation, and to the least degree that there were benefits. In addition, female students perceived there to be fewer costs to volunteering and greater benefits than their male peers.

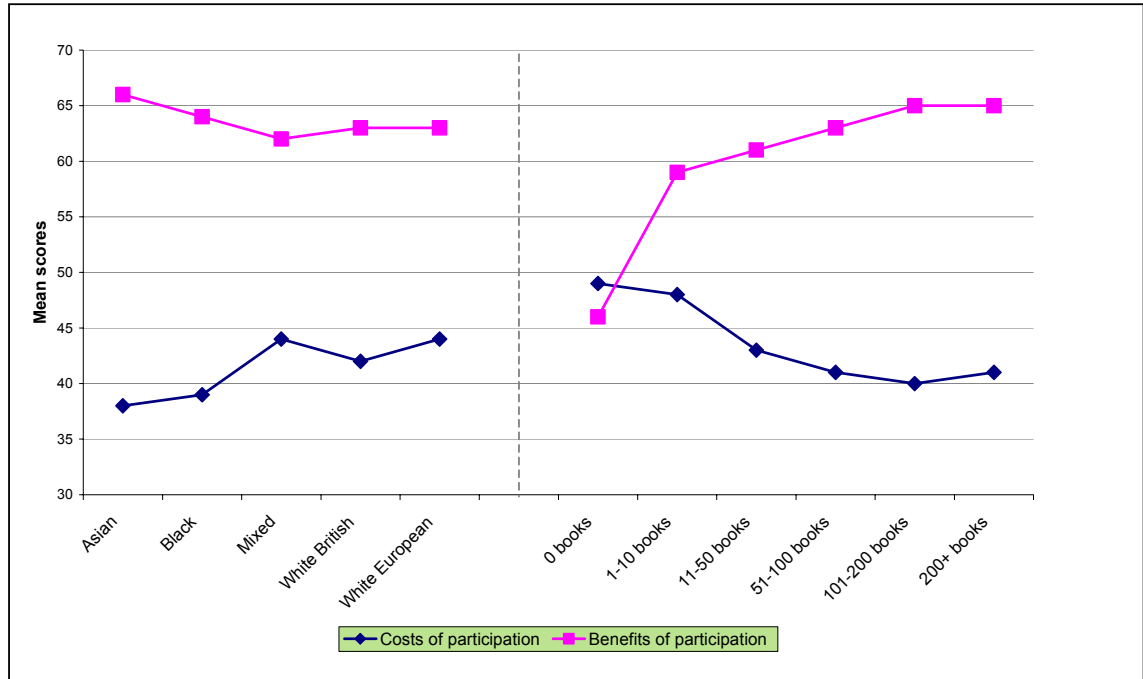
Figure 5.4 – Costs and benefits of participation – age and gender



N = 18, 583 Year 7 (2002) 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students (2004)
Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.
Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

There were also differences in perceptions of the costs and benefits of participation in relation to ethnicity and home literacy resources. Figure 5.5 shows that Asian and Black students had the most positive view towards volunteering and generally thought that there were fewer costs and greater benefits than other groups of students. As students’ home literacy resources increased, their perceptions of the benefits of volunteering also rose, whilst their perception of the costs fell.

Figure 5.5 – Costs and benefits of participation – ethnicity and home literacy resources



N = 6400 students

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

5.3 Political interest and engagement

5.3.1 Political interest

Students' level of interest in politics was analysed using factor analysis. The analysis revealed two distinct factors: *Low Political Interest* and *High Political Interest*.

Low Political Interest

High scores indicate lack of interest in and understanding and knowledge of politics.

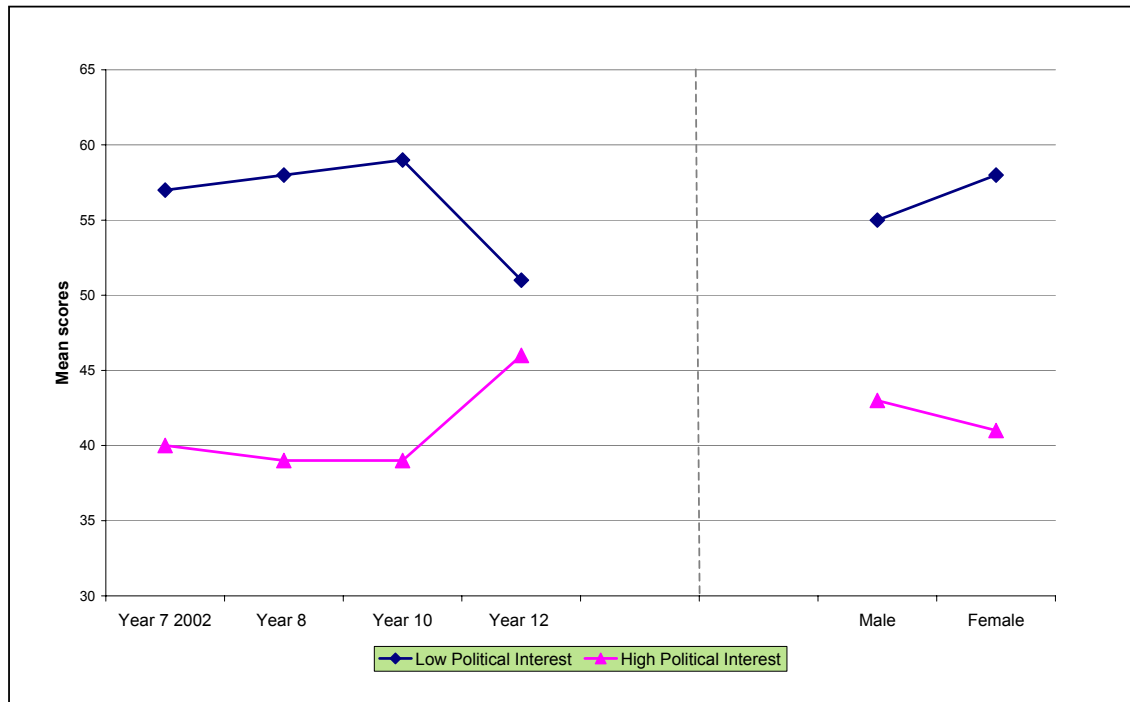
High Political Interest

High scores reflect an interest in politics and a belief that it impacts on the lives of individuals.

Students had moderate levels of both *Low* and *High Political Interest* (means = 57 and 42 per cent respectively) 67 per cent of students said that they were not very interested in politics however over one third felt that politics has an impact on everything that they do (36 per cent).

Analysis of different groups of students revealed that there were distinct differences in levels of interest in politics. As Figure 5.6 illustrates, students' political interest whether High or Low, was fairly consistent until Year 12 when students appeared to become more interested in politics as the levels of *Low Political Interest* fell, and levels of *High Political Interest* rose. There were also differences between female students' and male students' levels of interest in politics, with males showing slightly more interest than females.

Figure 5.6 – Political interest – age and gender

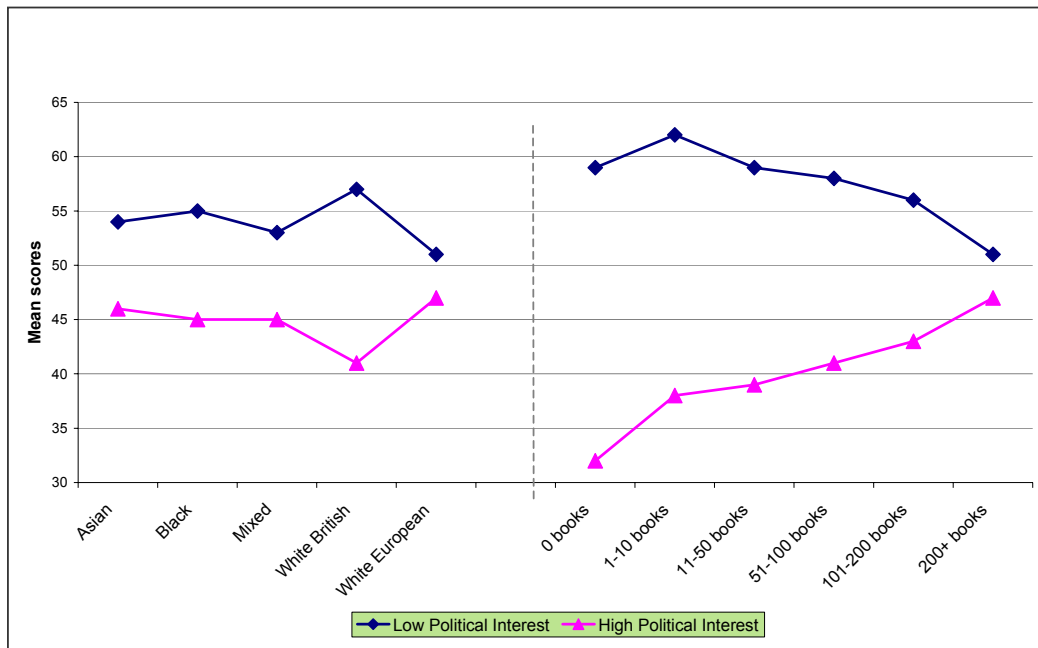


N = 18, 583 Year 7 (2002) 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students (2004)

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

Figure 5.7 shows that there were also differences in political interest in relation to ethnicity and home literacy resources. Overall, White British students appeared to be less interested than other groups of students: they had higher levels of *Low Political Interest* and lower levels of *High Political Interest*. There was a positive correlation between levels of interest and home literacy resources, with those who had the greatest number of books in the home having the lowest levels of *Low Political Interest*, and the highest levels of *High Political Interest*.

Figure 5.7 – Political interest by ethnicity and home literacy resources

N = 6400 students

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

5.3.2 Political participation

Over three quarters of students said that they had experience of voting in some type of election (69 per cent), and over half indicated that they had taken part in a range of other political activities (53 per cent). These included:

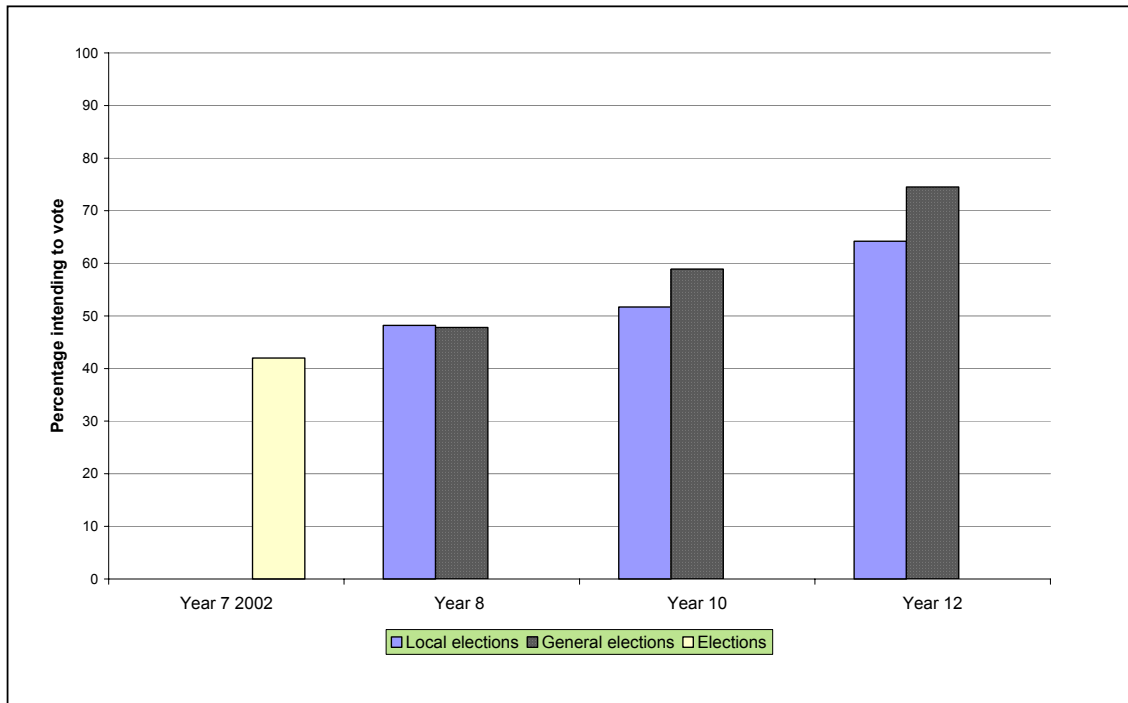
- Signing a petition, or an email or on-line petition (38 per cent)
- Attending a public meeting or a rally (14 per cent)
- Taking part in a public demonstration or protest (11 per cent)
- Contacting a local council about something affecting your neighbourhood (nine per cent)
- Contacting a local councillor or MP (eight per cent)
- Stopped buying a product because of an email chain letter (four per cent).

5.3.3 Intentions to vote

In the second cross-sectional survey, students were asked whether or not they intended to vote in general elections and local elections, and the results show that a higher proportion of Year 8 students (48 per cent), than Year 7 students in 2002 (42 per cent), indicated that they would vote in both types of elections. The proportion of

students that indicated that they would vote in the future increased as their age increased with only 48 per cent of Year 8 indicating that they would vote in general elections, compared to 75 per cent of Year 12, as shown in Figure 5.8. A slightly smaller proportion of students intended to vote in local elections, compared to general elections, thought this propensity also increased with age.

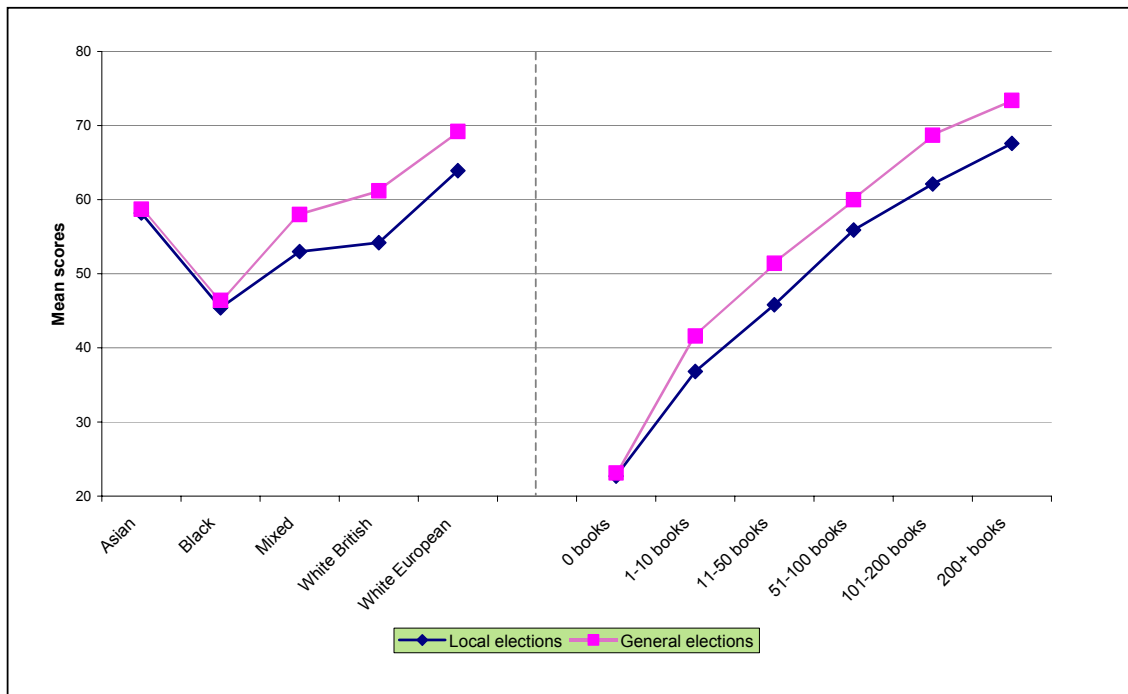
Figure 5.8 – Voting in local and general elections



N = 18, 583 Year 7 (2002) 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students (2004)
Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

A slightly higher proportion of female students compared to male students intended to vote in general elections (61 per cent compared to 58 per cent) and also local elections (56 per cent compared to 52 per cent). Female students, however, were more cautious about their intentions to vote, and were more likely to say that they would probably, rather than definitely, would or would not vote, compared to male students.

There were also some differences in relation to ethnicity with a smaller proportion of Black students saying that they would vote in elections in the future compared to other ethnic groups. White European students made up the highest proportion of those indicating that they would vote in the future. In addition, in line with political interest and attitudes to participation, the propensity to vote also increased as home literacy resources increased (see Figure 5.9):

Figure 5.9 – Intentions to vote – ethnicity and home literacy resources

N = 6400 students

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

5.3.4 Support for a political party

Students were also asked if they supported any political party. The majority of students in all year groups said that they did not support any party (72 per cent in total). Students in Year 12 had highest degree of party loyalty with 28 per cent saying that they had some degree of support for a political party, whilst Year 10 students were the least supportive of a party, with only 18 per cent indicating that they had any party support.

5.3.5 Future participation

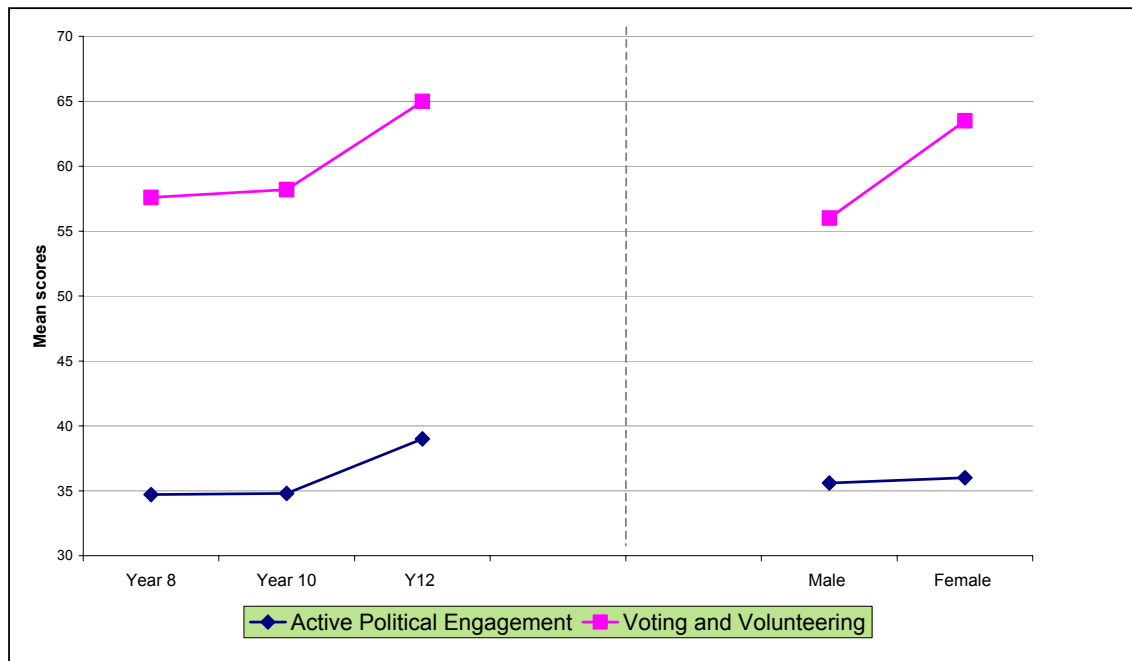
When asked about other political activities that they might take part in, in the future, only a small proportion of students said that they would participate in conventional forms of participation other than voting, such as getting involved in local politics (14 per cent) and joining a political party (12 per cent). Less conventional forms of participation were more popular with 33 per cent of students indicating that they would take part in a non-violent protest march or rally and 31 per cent saying that they would contact a newspaper in order to voice their opinion about an issue that they felt strongly about.

Students' intentions to get involved in other forms of political participation were analysed using factor analysis. This revealed that there were two distinct factors regarding future political participation: *Active Political Involvement*; and *Voting and Volunteering*⁹:

<p style="text-align: center;">Active Political Involvement</p> <p>High scores indicate intention of future participation in politically-related activities such as joining a political party and demonstrating peacefully.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Voting and Volunteering</p> <p>High scores denote an intention to participate indirectly in political life (e.g. through collecting money for good causes or voting in elections).</p>
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Overall, students reported fairly low levels of Active Political Involvement (mean = 39) and quite high levels of Voting and Volunteering (mean = 65). As Figure 5.10 reveals, there was a slight increase in students' intentions to participate in politics, as they got older, in terms of both intended *Active Political Involvement* and *Voting and Volunteering*. Although there were no real gender differences, female students stated they were more likely to be involved in *Voting and Volunteering*.

Figure 5.10 – Future political participation – age and gender

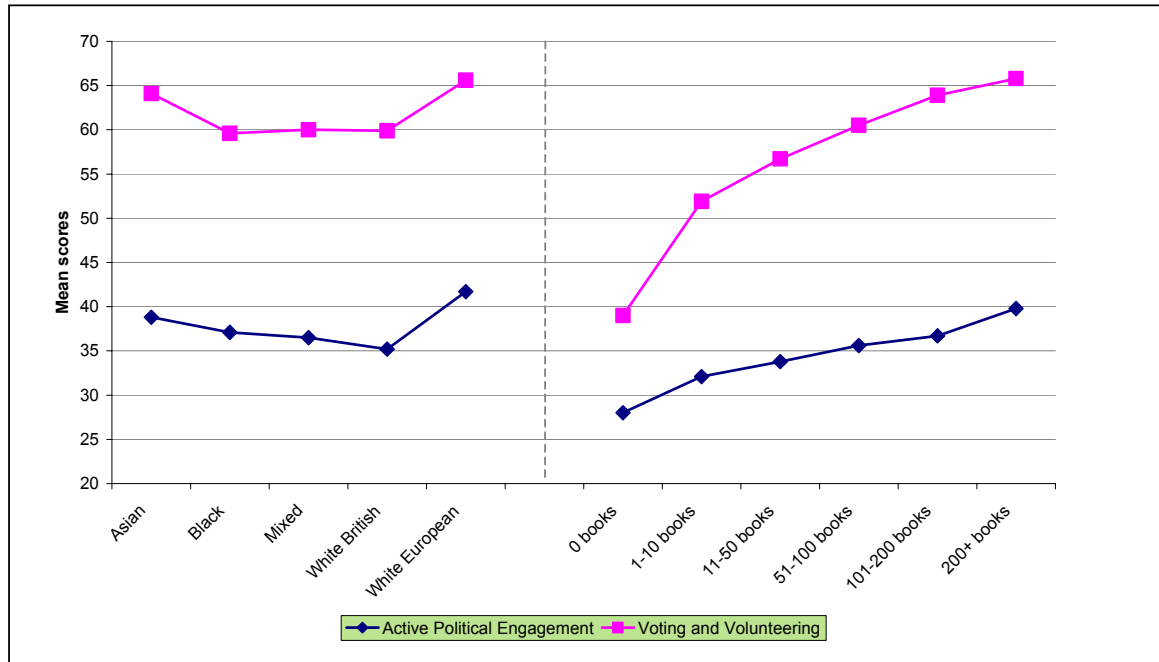


N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students
 Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.
 Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

⁹ In the second annual report of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study, Kerr *et al.* (2004), these two factors were called: *Future Engagement in Political and Current Affairs*, and *Distant Future Political Participation*

Figure 5.11 illustrates that there appear to be similar patterns compared with political interest (Figure 5.7) across both factors in relation to ethnicity and home literacy resources.

Figure 5.11 – Future political participation – ethnicity and home literacy resources



N = 6400 students

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

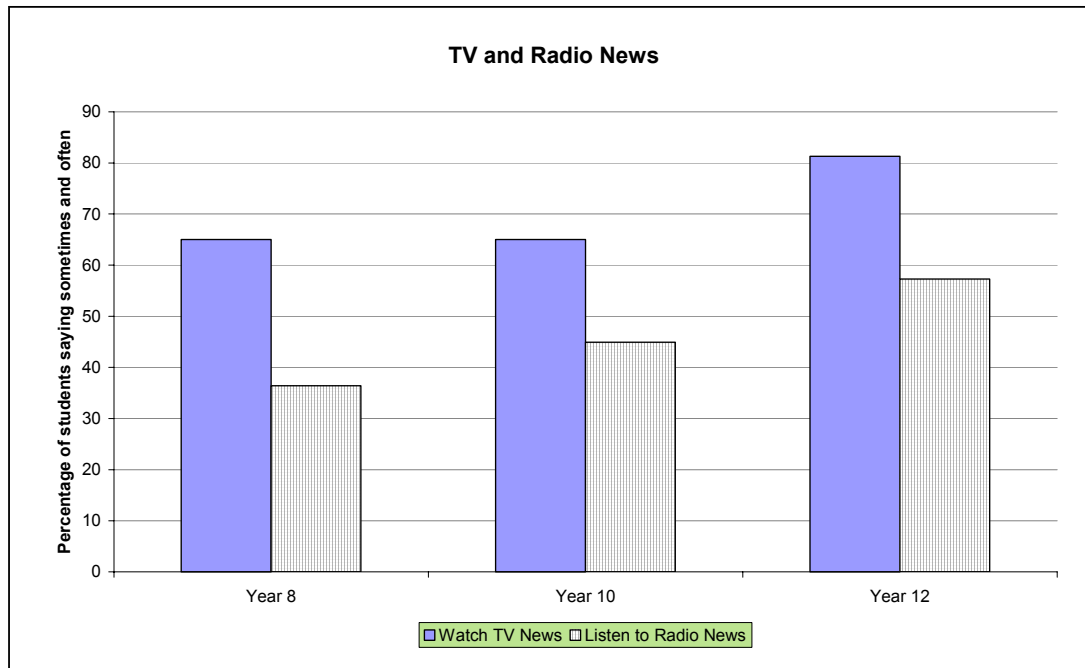
5.4 Engagement with the media

5.4.1 Exposure to the media

Most students spent one to two hours a day watching television, videos and DVDs (44 per cent) and less than one hour listening to the radio (42 per cent). Whilst Year 8 students watched the most television (36 per cent of Year 8, 34 per cent of Year 10 and 26 per cent of Year 12 watched over three hours per day), they spent the least time listening to the radio (73 per cent of Year 8, 60 per cent of Year 10 and 57 per cent of Year 12 watched listened to the radio for less than one hour).

As Figure 5.12 shows, Year 12 students listened to or watched the news most out of the year groups, whilst for all students a higher proportion watched the news on television, rather than listening to it on the radio.

Figure 5.12 – Watching the news on television and listening to it on the radio



N = 2467 Year 8, 2091 Year 10 and 1842 Year 12 students
Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

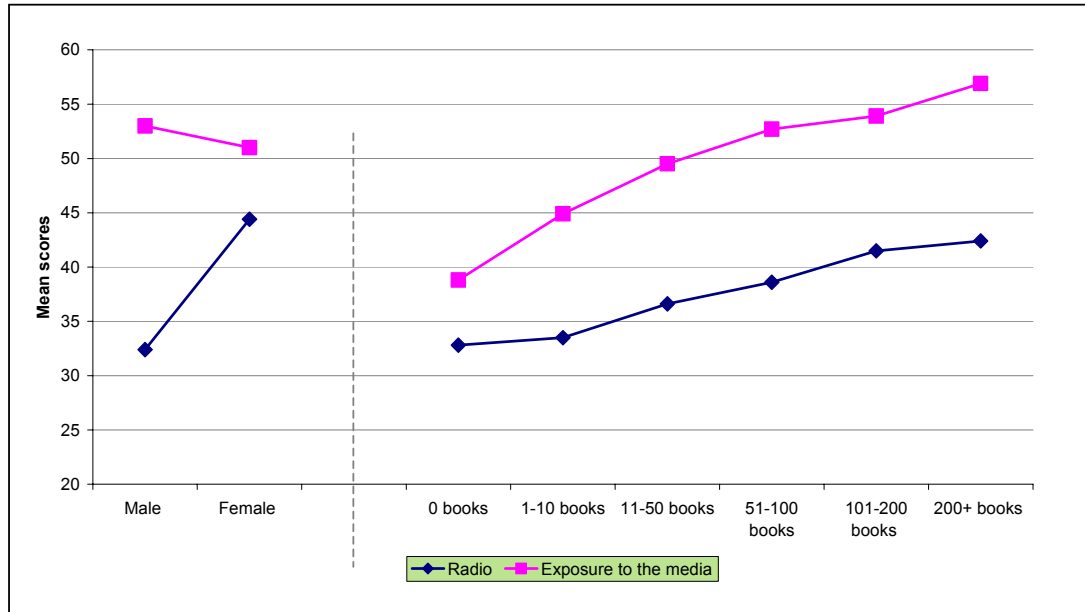
Students’ newspaper reading increased with age: 35 per cent of Year 8 students read national newspapers sometimes or often compared to 48 per cent of Year 10 students and 69 per cent of Year 12 students. A higher proportion of Year 8 students read local rather than national newspapers (45 per cent read local newspapers sometimes or often), whilst Year 12 students preferred to read national newspapers (68 per cent read local newspapers sometimes or often). A higher proportion of older students also read both national and international newspaper articles (65 per cent of Year 12 read stories about Britain, and 56 per read stories about other countries sometimes or often), compared to younger students (38 per cent of Year 8 read stories about Britain, and 27 per read stories about other countries sometimes or often). Students of all ages said they read national stories more frequently than international stories.

Students exposure to the news and radio were analysed using factor analysis and then different groups of students were compared. Two factors were used in this analysis.

<p>Exposure to news</p> <p>High scores denote frequent watching of news or reading of newspapers</p>	<p>Radio use</p> <p>High scores denote frequent listening to the radio including listening to the news</p>
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Whilst there were few differences in relation to gender and ethnicity, there were some differences in relation to gender and home literacy resources. A higher proportion of female than male students listened to the radio and levels of both radio use and exposure to the news rose as home literacy resources rose (Figure 5.12).

Figure 5.12 – Exposure to the news and radio use



N = 6400 students

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

5.4.2 New media use

Year 12 students use the internet more than other students (91 per cent used it sometimes or often compared to 87 per cent of Year 10 and 78 per cent of Year 8). Students stated that they used the internet most frequently for:

- homework (77 per cent)
- instant messaging (52 per cent)
- looking for goods or services to buy (36 per cent)
- using chatrooms (29 per cent)
- look up news/current affairs (18 per cent)
- adult – only websites (12 per cent)
- discussion forums (9 per cent).

Mobile phone use followed similar patterns to internet use with Year 12 students using mobile phone most frequently (87 per cent of Year 12 said they used them often or sometimes compared to 78 per cent of Year 10 and 67 per cent of Year 8). Only six per cent of students said that they never used a mobile phone.

5.4.3 Trust in the media

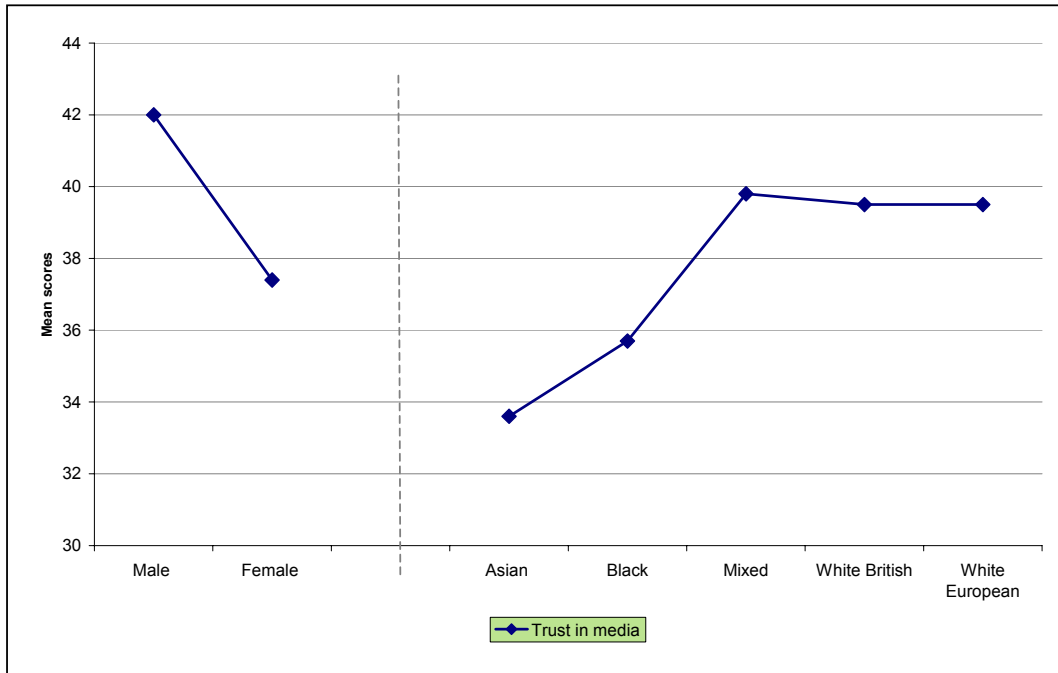
Television was seen as a more trustworthy form of communication than the radio, internet or newspapers, with newspapers being seen as the least trustworthy by all students: 48 per cent of students trusted the television completely or quite a lot compared to only 13 per cent who trusted newspapers completely or quite a lot. Students appeared to become more cynical with age, with older students showing least trust in any form of the media. There were particularly salient differences in age in relation to trust in television with on 39 per cent of Year 12 students trusting the television completely or a lot compared to 55 per cent of Year 8.

Students trust in the media was additionally analysed using factor analysis, and a general measure of trust for all types of the media was found:

Trust in the media
High scores indicate trust in the media
(newspapers, radio, television and the
internet)

Overall students had quite low levels of trust in the media (mean = 37). Using this factor, different groups of students' levels of trust were compared. As shown in Figure 5.13, female students were less trusting of all forms of media than male students, and Asian and Black students trusted the media the least, whereas White European students trusted the media the most.

Figure 5.13 – Trust in the media



N= 6400

Lines linking data points are provided to make the relative position of points more evident. They should not be taken to mean that X-axis variables are continuous.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Survey Cross-Sectional Survey 2004

6 Discussion and concluding comments

This report has focused on students' experiences, understandings and views of citizenship education and wider citizenship issues. As stated in the introduction, the reason for this focus is threefold:

- The student perspective is **missing** from the current evidence base and the ongoing activity by policy makers, practitioners, researchers and commentators in the area of citizenship education.
- The current policy climate is providing a **new emphasis** on the importance of placing young people at the centre of the policy process with regard to issues that directly affect them.
- Gaining the student perspective is central to the **aims of the Study** as young people are a vital source of information and insight about citizenship education.

Each section of the report has centred its analysis around a number of key questions. In addressing these questions, the analysis provides evidence which both reflects and supports the existing evidence base for citizenship education and the earlier findings of the Study (Kerr *et al*, 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004). However, the report also adds significantly to our understanding of citizenship education, wider citizenship issues, and how these are being approached in schools and in other contexts or 'sites' of citizenship. In particular, it underlines the power of the student perspective and confirms the complexity of young people's understandings and experiences of citizenship, the range of factors which can influence this complexity and how this complexity impacts on students' development of citizenship dimensions (knowledge, skills, understanding, attitudes and behaviour).

This final section of the report first focuses on findings which support the existing evidence base for citizenship education. It then moves on to address the findings which add a new dimension to this evidence base. Next it briefly considers the implications of the combined new insights and the existing evidence base for our understanding of citizenship and citizenship education. In conclusion, it lists key considerations for some of the groups currently involved in citizenship education at a range of levels: school leaders, co-ordinators and teachers, policy makers, NGOs and the voluntary sector and researchers, and points forwards to the future direction of the Study.

6.1 Supporting the existing evidence base

In line with the earlier findings of this Study (Kerr *et al.* 2003 and 2004) and the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Citizenship Education Study in England (Kerr *et al.* 2001 and 2002) the analysis in this report reinforces a number of important findings with regard to the meaning and practice of citizenship education. Each of these findings is discussed in brief below.

6.1.1 Citizenship in practice: formal and informal approaches and contexts

Two years into the delivery of citizenship education schools have maintained a consistency in terms of the delivery approach, the staff involved in its delivery and the key subjects that they deliver it through. While the proportion of schools that teach citizenship through a dedicated timeslot has increased, the majority continue to ‘build on current practice’, delivering citizenship education through existing subjects (most predominantly PSHE) and using non-citizenship subject specialists (largely RE and PSHE teachers).

The classroom continues to be a ‘traditional’ teaching and learning environment with methods such as note taking, working from textbooks and listening while the teacher talks taking precedence over discussion and debate and the use of new information and communication technologies (ICT), in a variety of settings. However, despite this, both teaching staff and students agreed that their classrooms had a positive climate with students feeling free to express opinions and to bring up issues for discussion.

Extra-curricular activities remained consistently available across school and college settings and school leaders and teachers continued to be supportive of a democratic school ethos. School leaders were consistently more positive about opportunities for participation and discussion across the whole school than teachers and students.

6.1.2 Students’ knowledge, understanding and behaviour

Consistent with previous survey findings, students were less likely to be taught topics such as the voting and elections, the European Union (EU), the economy and business and parliament and governance than other citizenship-related topics. This may reflect the fact that the majority of schools in the sample were delivering citizenship through

existing subject areas – particularly PSHE. As such, opportunities to focus on politics and the economy may be limited by the existing curriculum and staff expertise.

Citizenship knowledge continues to be closely linked to home literacy resources: the more books that students' report their homes contain, the higher their knowledge scores.

Teachers and school leaders remain positive about the outcomes of citizenship education, believing that it will have a number of positive impacts on students' participation and engagement with their school and local communities and will improve students' skills, awareness and tolerance. They support the school as a key 'site' for citizenship learning and development for young people; a notion that the IEA study (Kerr *et al.* 2001; 2002) labelled **school efficacy** (developing a sense for young people that they have a voice and can bring about meaningful change in schools in collaboration with other students).

6.1.3 Students' views, trust and experiences

In line with school leaders and teaching staff supporting a democratic school ethos, student councils were viewed as an important way of providing students with a voice in the school and were in place in the majority of schools and colleges surveyed

However, the level of actual student involvement in the running of their schools continues to be limited. Traditional teaching and learning methods remain dominant, and school students, in particular, are not effectively involved in the planning and execution of their learning.

Students' views on the trustworthiness of different social groups remains relatively static with family consistently rated as the group that students trust the most, and politicians and the EU continuing to score the lowest levels of trust.

6.1.4 Students' participation and engagement

Over the first two years of the implementation of citizenship education the gap between opportunities to participate in activities in school and student levels of take up has remained large. Moreover, the take up of opportunities continued to drop in relation to age: evidence continues to grow which shows that as student's progress through school, their involvement in extra-curricular activities decreases.

While school councils exist in almost all of the schools surveyed, the levels of actual student participation in school councils and their elections remain relatively low. Thus, the potential of one of the key forums for student participation remains underdeveloped.

Students continued to report low levels of intention to participate in conventional politics in the future. While the number of students who state that they will vote is relatively high, and continues to rise with age as students get ever closer to the age of majority, their commitment to other forms of conventional political engagement remains consistently low. However, it should be pointed out that intention to vote among young people may not necessarily translate into actual voting at election time.

Finally, the levels of trust that students place in the media continues to match those found in the IEA study (Kerr *et al.*, 2001 and 2002). Students place most trust in news reports on the TV, less in reports on the radio and show least trust in newspaper reports.

6.2 Providing new insights

This report not only reinforces considerably what is already known about citizenship education and wider citizenship issues but it also adds a number of new insights to the current evidence base in this area. While it should be remembered that this is an interim report and that its findings and conclusions remain tentative, the analysis presented includes a number of potentially new and exciting insights concerning students' development of citizenship dimensions (knowledge, skills, understanding, attitudes and behaviour) and the influence that schools and communities can have on such development.

These new insights can be grouped around four areas of investigation: students' development of citizenship dimensions; school approaches to citizenship education; school influences on students' development of citizenship dimensions and the influence of other 'sites' of citizenship (particularly the wider community) on such development. Each of these areas is examined in turn.

6.2.1 Students' development of citizenship dimensions

The findings reveal some potential new insights into students' development of citizenship dimensions across different **age ranges** and **educational stages**, which have not been found in existing surveys and studies. They suggest:

- A **maturing** of knowledge, understanding, attitudes and behaviours concerning citizenship between students in Year 8, Year 10 and Year 12. Year 12 students involved in the survey report more interest in politics and political matters and more sophisticated use of both old and new media to access news and information than students from the other age groups.
- Students' development of citizenship dimensions is neither even nor consistent. Indeed, there may be a considerable '**dip**' in this development in the later years of adolescence among both male and female students. The findings reveal lower levels of citizenship knowledge; student efficacy; personal efficacy; active student participation; trust and embeddedness and belief in the benefits of participation among the Year 10 students who took part in the survey, compared to those in Years 8 and 12.
- Students' development of citizenship dimensions is also influenced by their personal, family and community characteristics, among other factors. For example, the findings suggest a clear relationship between **home literacy resources** and feelings of empowerment, levels of trust, engagement, community attachment and commitment to volunteering, participation and political engagement. In short, higher levels of home literacy resources relate to higher levels of empowerment, trust and so on. There may also be differences in attitudes and behaviours between male and female students as well as between those from different ethnic backgrounds. For example, female students trusted all forms of media much less than their male peers and Asian and Black students in the sample had the most positive views about volunteering compared to other groups.
- Students' sense of belonging and attachment to the different communities in their lives may **change over time**. It is noticeable in the survey that students' sense of belonging to the school community increases with age in comparison with their attachment to other communities. They are much more attached to the school community in the later years of their schooling than to other communities. This may be the result of their increased seniority and status in the school community and the associated privileges and responsibilities that go with such seniority, or may conversely reflect their increasing detachment from their families and local communities as they reach adulthood.

6.2.2 School approaches to citizenship education

The report also provides fresh insights as to how schools are approaching citizenship as a national curriculum subject one year on from the last annual report. Though analysis draws on a different sample of schools from those in the first longitudinal

survey, the findings add considerably to an understanding of how schools are embedding citizenship education into their daily practices. New and useful insights include:

- There little **overlap** between citizenship co-ordination and senior management roles in schools, given that just under a quarter of co-ordinators (24 per cent) said they were members of senior management teams. This raises questions about the position of citizenship co-ordinators to effect an holistic approach to citizenship which links curriculum delivery with school culture and wider links with the community.
- Schools are increasingly recognising the need to **assess** student experiences of citizenship, driven by the requirements to make end of key stage assessments and include a statement in the annual report to parents.
- There is a recognition by schools that they are '**moderately democratic**'. This suggests that the idealism of citizenship as involving equal democratic participation of everyone in a school is giving way to an acceptance that there are limits to participation and democracy in schools. Schools may be exploring and negotiating the boundaries of democracy, particularly in relation to student participation.
- Schools are strengthening their **community links** with almost two-thirds of schools in the sample (59 per cent) reporting such an approach. This may signal a growing realisation among schools that citizenship education involves not just the school, its curriculum and culture/ethos, but also how the school relates to the wider community. Perhaps as schools become more secure with curriculum provision for citizenship they will focus more on the nature of their links with the wider community around the school.

6.2.3 School influences on students' development of citizenship dimensions

The findings also suggest that what goes on in schools, in classrooms, corridors and grounds, can have an influence on what students *think*, *know* and *do* in relation to citizenship education and wider citizenship issues. In particular:

- Students in all year groups **associate citizenship** more with rights and responsibilities and issues of identity and equality than with formal political processes. This may be influenced by the nature of the teaching of citizenship they receive in schools and the topics that are and are not covered. It is perhaps no coincidence that the topics least taught – voting, elections, government and the EU – are those that students least associate with the concept of citizenship and the groups and institutions that students trust the least.
- Students in all year groups also report that citizenship is **more noticeable** to them in schools than in 2002, with just over two-thirds (68 per cent) saying that had experienced it. This is perhaps a recognition of the growing use and acceptance of

the term in the curriculum and by teachers, co-ordinators and school leaders in their interactions with students.

- Students' **citizenship knowledge** scores appear to be lower than those recorded in the first cross sectional survey in 2002; particularly for students in Year 10. However, this may reflect the nature of the questions posed to students and the subjects taught in schools. The knowledge items in the survey tested knowledge about political and legal processes and institutions, including those concerning voting, political representation and legal rights. These are precisely the citizenship topics that students report they are taught least about.
- The apparent reduction in students' knowledge scores may suggest that schools and teachers lack the **expertise and confidence** to teach the core knowledge component of citizenship (focusing on the legal and political system, government, political parties and voting processes) and/or that they do not recognise that this core component is distinctive from anything else in the curriculum, therefore needing to be focused on directly. Thus, the fact that citizenship is currently taught by a range of teachers from different subject backgrounds, and through a number of different subjects and areas, most notably PSHE, rather than through discrete citizenship lessons may exacerbate this situation in schools.

6.2.4 Influences of other contexts and 'sites' on students' development of citizenship dimensions

The report also makes clear that school is only one of the contexts or 'sites' that have an influence on students' development of citizenship dimensions. It underlines:

- The potential **influence** of personal, family and community characteristics on students' development of citizenship dimensions. For example, the findings suggest a clear relationship between home literacy resources and feelings of empowerment, levels of trust, engagement, community attachment and commitment to volunteering, participation and political engagement.
- The possible **impact of the media** on students' citizenship knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes. Students clearly get their knowledge and understanding of civic and political society from somewhere. The media may therefore play a key role in influencing students' views, particularly given low reported levels of coverage of certain topics in the school-taught citizenship. Students report more and increasingly sophisticated use of old and new media as they get older. This may, in turn, explain the increased interest in politics among Year 12 students and the fact that students show a lack of support for political parties.
- The potential **impact of cultural and community influences** on students' development of citizenship dimensions. The findings hint at differences in attitudes between those from different ethnic backgrounds. For example, Asian students in the sample had the highest levels of student efficacy compared to other groups while Asian and Black students had the most positive views about volunteering compared to other groups. The influence of community and culture

on students' attitudes and behaviour, alongside other influences, is something that requires further investigation.

6.3 Combining the new insights and existing evidence base

We have concluded that the findings from this report both strengthen the existing evidence base for citizenship and citizenship education and also add new insights to that evidence base. Now we must ask ourselves about the combined effect of the existing and new insights on our understanding of citizenship and citizenship education. Combining what we already know with new insights has three important outcomes:

First, it confirms the **complex** nature of young peoples' citizenship experiences and attitudes and the range of factors and influences that can impact on their development. Following this report we have a much deeper understanding of the impact of the interrelationship between a number of contextual characteristics¹⁰ or factors, the different contexts or 'sites' of citizenship education including the school, the family, peer groups, and students' local and wider communities, and the various actors that take part in the (formal and informal) educational processes at these different 'sites'. These characteristics, contexts or 'sites' and actors all impact on students' understanding and attitudes to citizenship education and wider citizenship issues.

Secondly, the report is able to address possible changes in this interrelationship and its impact on students' development of citizenship dimensions across a number of **age ranges** and **educational stages**. As was emphasised in section 6.2.1 this report speculates that students' development of citizenship dimensions is neither even nor consistent. Indeed, the findings suggest that there may be a considerable 'dip' in development around Year 10, when students are age 14 to 15. However, while it is acknowledged that cohort of students who participated in the second cross-sectional survey is a representative sample, our conclusions must remain tentative at this stage. It is unclear whether these findings are cohort specific, will be replicated in future years, or indeed if such a 'dip' exists nationally, whether this stretches beyond Year 10 into Year 11 when students are age 15 to 16. These findings require further in-depth investigation in other elements of the Study in the coming years.

¹⁰ Contextual characteristics include *personal characteristics* such as age, sex, religion, ethnicity, *family characteristics* such as relationship, standard of accommodation, *area characteristics* such as safety of local area, index of deprivation and index of diversity and *resources* such as education, income, home ownership and employment.

Third, the findings suggest that **schools** may **influence** students' development of citizenship dimensions. There are already signs in this report, from students' experiences of the first two years of statutory citizenship education in the curriculum, that these school experiences are having an influence on students' conceptions of citizenship, students' civic knowledge and on their sense of efficacy and empowerment.

The report also suggests that schools have the potential to have an even greater influence in the future, particularly if the trajectory of students' development of citizenship dimensions over time proves to be correct. If students feel a greater sense of belonging to the school community with age, and at the same time they show a maturing sophistication of views, greater interest in politics and increased use of the media, then the school has the potential to take this understanding and provide increased opportunities for students' to participate and engage actively in the school community and to develop *student voice*.

6.4 Key considerations for groups involved with citizenship education

The findings raise a number of considerations for the main groups currently involved in citizenship education at a range of levels. There is not space to list all of these here. It is hoped that interested parties will read the report in full and draw their own conclusions as to their continued and future actions in support of citizenship education. However, some key considerations are listed below to encourage further discussion, deliberation and action.

Considerations for school leaders, co-ordinators and teachers

- Consider whether your institution uses a sufficient range of teaching and learning approaches for citizenship education that encourage active learning approaches, including discussion and debate, rather than emphasising more 'traditional' approaches such as note taking, working from textbooks and listening to the teacher
- Consider how to involve students more fully in the running of schools, beyond school councils, and in negotiation of their teaching and learning experiences particularly as they progress through the school.
- Ask whether the citizenship education programme offered to students is improving their citizenship knowledge, as well as understanding and skills.

Consider reviewing the ability of the current approach your school takes to teach students topics such as voting, elections, government, the EU and parliament which are at the heart of the core knowledge component of citizenship.

- Review issues of continuity and progression in students' experiences of citizenship education as they move through the school and look to address any salient differences which exist between school leader, teacher and student expectations and experiences of citizenship education.
- Reflect on the citizenship education experiences offered by the school and consider how the school as a 'site' for citizenship impacts on, and is impacted on by, student experiences of other citizenship contexts and sites, such as the local community, family and peers.

Considerations for policy-makers

- Take note of the low levels of trust that young people place in politicians and political institutions, such as the EU and of their lack of interest in engaging in conventional political participation in the future, beyond voting.
- Support the development of students' citizenship knowledge by focusing on the topics that schools are teaching under the umbrella of citizenship education and the teachers involved in teaching citizenship topics. Take action to ensure that the core knowledge at the heart of citizenship education is being taught in schools.
- Consider the implications for current and future policy in citizenship education of the uneven development of students' citizenship dimensions over time.
- Recognise in forming policy that schools cannot develop citizenship education in isolation from the social contexts in which they are situated and with which students interact on a daily basis. This includes not only family, friends and the local community but also the wider community which students engage with through old and new media. Schools are but one of a number of interrelated 'sites' for the development of citizenship dimensions.
- Develop a more interdisciplinary, 'joined up' approach to citizenship education policy development that recognises the role of education and schools alongside policies and influences from other areas of government and policy.

Considerations for NGOs and voluntary organisations

- Recognise the influence that schools and other 'sites' of citizenship education can have on students' development of citizenship dimensions and look to work with and support young people, not only in schools, but in these other sites in the community.
- Understand that young people are sophisticated users of the media, both new and old, and that their interest in the media and in civic and political life increases with age. Look to use the media and other outlets, at local and national level, to address the interests and sensibilities of young people in ways that actively engage and motivate them.

Considerations for researchers

- Follow-up the findings in this report through more in-depth investigation in a range of settings, with a range of young people.
- Look to investigate the impact of community and culture on young people's understanding of, and attitudes to, citizenship education and wider citizenship issues; in particular, examining similarities and differences between male and female students and different ethnic groups.
- Use in-depth biographical interview methods to explore further young people's experiences of, and attitudes to, citizenship education and wider citizenship issues in order to extend our understanding of the complex processes behind their development of citizenship knowledge, skills, understanding, attitudes and behaviour over time.

6.5 Future directions

The findings outlined above indicate the power of longitudinal methodology for answering the overall aims of the Study. Not only are we able to take stock of the findings to-date to provide interim recommendations and messages for key groups involved in citizenship education and to inform other current work in the area of citizenship education; in addition, the findings provide vital information with which to inform the future elements of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. In particular, our knowledge and understanding of the student experience of citizenship education will prove crucial in informing the following elements of the Study due to be undertaken in 2005:

- the **second longitudinal survey** of Year 9 students and their schools
- return visits to schools who took part as **case studies** in 2003
- the **third annual literature review** which takes as its focus *young people's understanding of, experience of and participation in neighbourhood, community and home*.

The findings have also proved useful in reviewing the overarching **analytical framework** of the Study (see Appendix 5 for brief explanation and schematic diagram of this framework). In particular, they draw our focus towards the apparent importance of a number of 'unchangeable'¹¹ factors or characteristics which clearly

¹¹ By 'unchangeable' we mean that age, gender, ethnicity and socio-economic status cannot themselves be directly affected by citizenship education. It is acknowledged that some of the norms and values reflected in age-related, gender specific, ethnic and socio-economic cultures, which can influence young people's attitudes, may themselves be affected by citizenship education.

impact on the way in which students view and understand citizenship education and wider citizenship experiences and issues. Moreover, they help to clarify and illustrate the linkages between the different contexts and ‘sites’ of citizenship education, most notably schools, and the various actors that take part in the (formal and informal) educational processes.

Above all, this report has confirmed the importance of ensuring that student experiences of, and attitudes to, citizenship and citizenship education are no longer the ‘missing dimension’ but are at the very heart of all the elements of the Study. It is vital to the success of the Study that the voice and experiences of the students who are participating is heard alongside those of teachers and school leaders. After all, this is one of the cornerstones of effective citizenship education.

Appendix 1. Methodology

Survey design

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

The present report concentrates on data collected during the second cross-sectional survey, which was carried out in spring 2003. However, where appropriate, data from the first longitudinal survey of Year 7 students (autumn 2002) and the first cross-sectional survey (spring 2002) are also used.

Second Cross-sectional Survey Administration

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

Questionnaires

The questionnaires were identical to those used in the first longitudinal survey, with some adjustments made to wording to account for the fact that citizenship education implementation in schools had now been statutory for over a year. In addition, some items were added and others re-worded to improve the breadth and quality of the data collected. Nevertheless, it was possible to make comparisons between the results and those from the first cross-sectional and the first longitudinal surveys.

Sample

The sample was a nationally representative sample of 237 schools and 50 colleges¹² in England during the autumn term of 2003-4, just over one year after citizenship education became a statutory subject in secondary schools in September 2002. Questionnaires were completed by:

Schools					Colleges		
School leaders	Teachers	Year 8 students	Year 10 students	Year 12 students	College leaders	Tutors	Year 12 college students
196	441	2467	2091	855	42	167	987

¹² Of the 300 schools and colleges that agreed to take part, 287 returned questionnaires.

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

	Schools		Colleges	
	Number returning questionnaires	% of those returning any information	Number returning questionnaires	% of those returning any information
Returned any type of questionnaire	237	100%	50	100%
Returned any pupil questionnaires	233	98%	-	-
<i>Returned year 8 questionnaires</i>	97	41%	-	-
<i>Returned year 10 questionnaires</i>	92	39%	-	-
<i>Returned year 12 questionnaires</i>	44	19%	48	96%
Returned any teacher/college tutor questionnaires	227	96%	49	98%
Returned school/college leader questionnaire	196	83%	42	84%
Returned all three types of questionnaire	192	81%	41	82%

The characteristics of students were as follows:

Gender	Students %	Books in the home	Students %	Ethnic background	Students %
Male	46	None	2	Asian/ British Asian	6
Female	53	Very few (1-10)	10	Black/ Black British	3
		One shelf (11-50)	22	Mixed ethnic origin	2
		1 bookcase (51-100)	23	White British	80
		2 bookcases (101-200)	18	White European	3
		3+bookcases (201+)	23	Other ethnic group	1
				Prefer not to say	2

Base: All students in schools and colleges. There was 1-3 % non-response for these questions.

Source: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. Second Cross-sectional Survey 2003.

Survey analysis

Tables of basic frequencies were used to gauge the types of responses obtained from different groups of respondents. The data were weighted to reflect the known proportion of schools and colleges in the population. This was done for the total percentages and means for Year 12 students from colleges and schools and for all students.

In addition, the analysis built on the factor analyses performed on the data from the first longitudinal survey (for a full discussion of the factor analyses see Kerr *et al.*, 2004) to provide composite variables. These variables provided summaries of the data to create reliable measures of they key constructs underlying groups of individual items. In addition, new factor analyses were performed where required due to the addition of items. The internal consistency (reliability) of all factors was checked for all new data, and per year group, where applicable. The factors used in this report are described in the sections where they are used.

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Appendix 3. About the authors

Elizabeth Cleaver is a Senior Research Officer in the Department of Evaluation and Policy Studies, NFER and is currently leading the DfES funded 8 year Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. Before working at the NFER she spent 9 years teaching and researching in the university sector. Her work includes research on youth transitions, housing and community. Recent publications include *Young, Free and Single* (with Sue Heath), 2003, London: Palgrave.

Eleanor Ireland is a Research Officer in the Department of Evaluation and Policy Studies, NFER, and is a key member of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study team. In addition to her work on young people and citizenship, Eleanor is researching widening participation in higher education through an evaluation of the *Aimhigher* programme.

David Kerr is a Principal Research Officer in the Department of Evaluation and Policy Studies, NFER and is director of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. He was Professional Officer to the Citizenship Advisory Group, chaired by Professor (now Sir) Bernard Crick. At NFER, he led England's involvement in the 28 country, comparative IEA Citizenship Education Study and also led an evaluation of Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects in England. David is active in policy, practitioner and research networks and is currently the UK Education for Democratic Citizenship (EDC) coordinator as part of the Council of Europe's *2005 European Year of Citizenship Through Education*.

Joana Lopes is a Research Officer in the Department of Evaluation and Policy Studies, NFER and is a key team member of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study team. At NFER Joana has additionally been involved in the evaluation of Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects in England and is currently involved in evaluations of the *Primary Strategy Leadership Programme* and the *e-skills4industry Programme*.

Appendix 4. Key publications from the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

WHITELEY, P. (2005, *forthcoming*) Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study Literature Review – Citizenship Education – The Political Science Perspective. London: DfES.

KERR, D., IRELAND, E., LOPES, J. and CRAIG, R. with CLEAVER, E. (2004). *Making Citizenship Real. Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study Second Annual Report. First Longitudinal Survey*. DfES Research Report 531. London: DfES.

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Appendix 5. Analytical framework

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

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

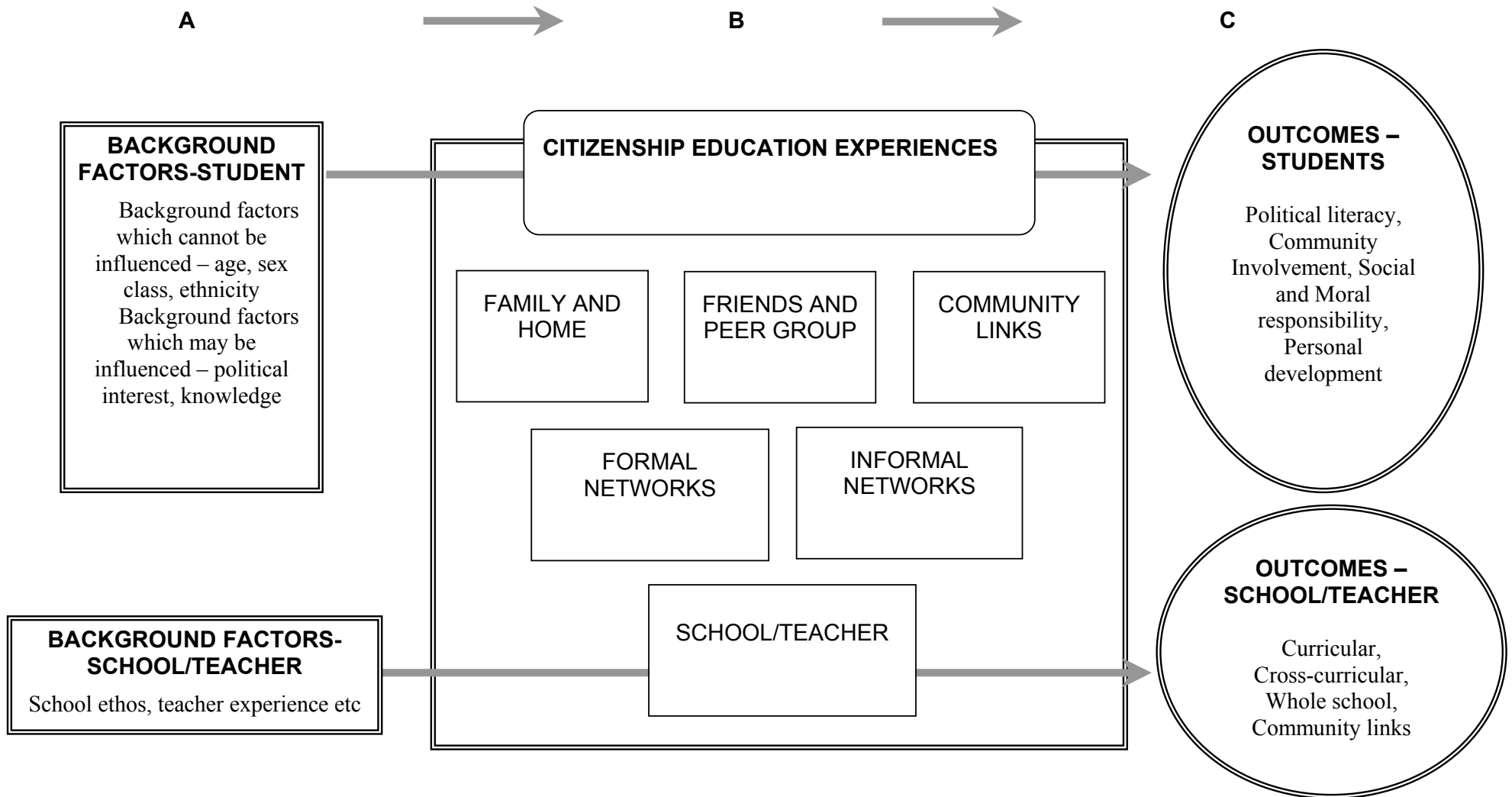
At the heart of the framework is the individual student and individual school. The framework reflects the recognition that both student and school are influenced by a range of background factors. For students these include a mixture of factors that cannot necessarily be influenced by citizenship education, (such as age, sex and ethnicity)¹³ and those factors that may be influenced by citizenship education (such as political interest and knowledge, political efficacy and civic engagement). At the school-level the influence of institutional size, ethos, management and the attitudes and expertise of staff maybe significant. This is explored in section A.

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

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

¹³ While age, gender 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



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