

**Citizenship Education: The Search for  
Meaningful Delivery within an English High School**

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## **Abstract**

This thesis examines the experience of one English high school in the birthing pangs of citizenship education, a mandatory entitlement introduced into English schools in September 2002. The project traces a series of developments over a period of four years and documents my search, as a practitioner-researcher, for a meaningful way to deliver citizenship education within my own school. Staff, parents, governors and students (aged 13 years to 17 years) all contribute towards this project in providing both qualitative and quantitative data. While this research uses a case study approach it also draws upon a sample that extends beyond the immediate school community - this is done in the quest to provide an understanding in the stimuli for active citizenship and probes the perceptions of Members of the Westminster Parliament in office between 2003 and 2004. While many of the findings are generated from a mixture of interviews and questionnaires, a period of quasi-experimentation within the classroom also provides data for discussion.

This research provides insight into some of the problems associated with launching a centrally-imposed initiative at school level. It adds to the literature on citizenship education by providing a variety of evidence from the perceptions of an educational community, as well as offering information on the possible effectiveness of differing approaches to citizenship education. In particular, it indicates that efforts to generate a culture of active citizenship might have greater appeal when schools can create not just confident, secure and value-conscious young people, but ones who move in circles outside of their comfort zones. This project also demonstrates the potential value of a mixed-methods approach to practitioner-research. As a separate feature it adds to the knowledge-base on political socialisation.

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Of course, research over so long a period of time cannot take place without impacting upon family and, over the years, this has unfortunately led to sacrifices on the part of mine which I naturally regret. It is with great relief that the completion of this thesis marks the end of these.

## Author's Declaration

I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own has been identified and that no material is included that has been submitted for any other award or qualification. Where I have drawn commentary from work previously submitted for a MEd, this has been documented accordingly.

Signed:

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## Chapter 1 Introduction

### 1.1 An overview

This thesis engages with the responses of one English high school to a government-led curriculum initiative that was viewed with controversy prior to its implementation and which continues to attract comment. This chapter provides an introduction to this research project. It highlights the historical background of this innovation and establishes my own position within this setting, introducing both the conceptual framework that underpinned the research and the methodology that was found to be best fit for its purpose. Following a synopsis of the literature reviewed, the research questions are identified and an overview of the findings explained. A pathway through the text can also be read in the final section of this chapter.

### 1.2 The background to this research

The UK Labour Government - first elected in 1997 and then returned to office in 2001 and again in 2005 – has claimed that many young people have developed apathy to public life; by introducing citizenship education it now aims at ‘no less than a change in the political culture of this country’ (QCA, 1998, p.7). To effect such a change would necessitate a repositioning of attitudes and the Government saw schools as one medium in which such an impact could be generated. The first step towards the introduction of citizenship education in England and Wales came in ‘*Excellence in Schools*’, the first Education White Paper published by the new Labour Government in 1997. The formation of the Advisory Group on Citizenship and the Teaching of Citizenship in Schools followed, the terms of reference for this group being: ‘To provide advice on effective education for citizenship in schools – to include the nature and practices of participation in democracy; the duties, responsibilities and rights of individuals as citizens; and the value to individuals and society of community activity’ (QCA, 1998, p.4). In discussing what was meant by effective education for citizenship, this group defined citizenship as ‘social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy’ (p.11). The deliberations of this group, based on these terms of reference, led to the publication on 22<sup>nd</sup> September 1998 of the Final Report of the Advisory Group on Citizenship - otherwise known as the Crick Report and this document will be referred to as such throughout this thesis. This report led to the introduction of citizenship education into English schools in September 2002; and

this thesis focuses on the varying responses to this particular curriculum innovation observed between 2002 and 2006 within the school in which I am employed.

Curriculum innovation, however, is rarely received lightly and the introduction of citizenship education was no exception. Michael Fullan (1982) has asserted that effective educational innovation involves at least three dimensions of change: revised beliefs, new approaches and potentially new materials – an educational cocktail that is not always easy to swallow. This can be exemplified by the fact that perceptions of, and reactions to, citizenship education have long been a source of tension both within and beyond the classroom – questioning the ease with which existing beliefs can be modified and new approaches introduced. Andrew Marks doomed the project to failure even before it was launched, asserting that ‘school is the last place on earth where discussions of citizenship can hope to take place’ (2001, p.155). In Spring 2002, a mere five months prior to the statutory implementation of citizenship education as an educational innovation in secondary schools across England and Wales, Chris Woodhead, Chief Inspector for Schools from 1994-2000, launched a polemic berating this initiative as:

‘Ludicrously grandiose in its aspirations, shot through with political correctness and based upon the discredited progressive thinking that has damaged the lives of so many children ... If the government really wanted to do something about citizenship, it would tackle illiteracy and ignorance. It would ensure that teaching time was dedicated to the traditional subjects that need to be mastered.’  
(Sunday Times, 2002, April 21<sup>st</sup>)

Not known as a man to mince his words Woodhead, in this article, highlighted criticisms associated with this innovation in terms of curriculum content and time, as well as with any understanding of what should be interpreted as citizenship education. He was not a lone voice. By contrast, proponents of citizenship education in 2002 clearly viewed the arrival of this new subject somewhat differently, albeit with similar concerns over the allocation of curriculum time:

‘Like many of the initiatives with which teachers are overloaded, citizenship is a good idea. Indeed it should always have been a core, compulsory element in the curriculum. If the curriculum is to prepare young people for their future lives, then focusing seriously and intensively on their roles as responsible citizens should be part of the foundation of any curriculum along with preparing them for the world of work and for their individual lives in home and family and as people able to find personal fulfilment. Arguably all other elements of the curriculum are means to these fundamental ends’ (Hewlett, 2002, p.4).

The debate on the justification for, and means of delivery of, this curriculum innovation continues to be active within and beyond the school gates; for this reason it is therefore also a key feature of this thesis and will be evidenced in both the data that have been gathered and the discussion emanating from these findings.

Changes in society in terms of technology, knowledge and ideology have helped to shape beliefs and approaches to education in England with debatable success since at least the introduction of the first grant for education by the Whig government of 1833. This provision fell short of the suggestions of John Roebuck for a state control of curriculum and teaching methods that would promote civic virtue and secure political stability; likewise, the provision for citizenship education has been deemed by its critics as insufficient to meet the requirements for an active 21st century citizenry. School curricula over time have been moulded and critiqued by the pressure of factors and groups. Attention has been paid to a variety of themes, ranging from the basic need for a national system of education to the specifics of teaching methods – an ever-changing list reflective of the contemporary thinking of the time. Indeed, Gordon and Lawton have argued that ‘curriculum change is the result of complex patterns of interaction between influential individuals and general processes of social, political and economic change’ (Gordon and Lawton, 1978 p. 2). Citizenship education was to be no different, although with particular reference to this innovation I would elect to add to the end of Gordon and Lawton’s statement the words ‘at a given time’: the reason for which is explained below.

Any discussion linking curriculum innovation with citizenship education in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century cannot be sustained without acknowledging the role played by influential

individuals such as David Blunkett, the newly appointed Secretary of State for Education at the time of the introduction of citizenship education and Sir Bernard Crick, Chairman of the Advisory Group on Citizenship. However, potential agents of change long preceded these key players. The aftermath of the First World War, for example, gave rise to an interest in developing peace education within the curriculum, while the rise of fascism in the 1930s provided impetus both for the creation of the Association for Education in Citizenship (AEC) as well as for the drive towards viewing schools as a means to promote education in liberal democracy. An awareness of the difficulty in marrying the concept of a curriculum innovation with the practicalities of curriculum delivery was as evident in the 1930s as it is today, 'direct teaching of citizenship is a subject which can and must be taught more generally. Few people, I imagine, would disagree with this view ... if they were convinced of its feasibility and could envisage clearly the form which such teaching should take' (AEC, 1936, v-vi). However, dissension did exist and little progress was made while the influence of other pressure groups dominated. Key individuals and pressure groups continued to impact upon approaches and responses to curriculum development in England but with limited success: for example, the Spens Report of 1938 recommended different curricula for different types of schools but failed to include citizenship education; landmark legislation such as the Butler Education Act of 1944 singled out religious education as the sole mandatory subject. The need for an education in citizenship was endorsed by professional bodies such as the Politics Association and the Citizenship Foundation founded in 1969 and 1989 respectively. Indeed, a leading figure within the Politics Association was none other than Crick; although, interestingly, he was unable to exert direct influence on curriculum development at this stage. As Crick later admitted, 'By the time Blunkett unexpectedly sent for me just before the election of 1997 I had thought the game was up and had turned to other things' (Crick, 2002, p. 492). To initiate curriculum change in this field, therefore, required not simply a commitment to an ideal by a specific group or individual, but supportive ministerial backing within a framework of central control by Government at a given time; only in this way was it possible for the beliefs of one influential group to be empowered sufficiently to offer an opportunity to impact on the beliefs and approaches of others on a national scale.

### **1.3 A personal perspective**

An incentive for engaging with this research was my own professional circumstances. During this research period I held a potentially powerful position as a participant observer within the school chosen for this research, marrying the role of teacher, parent and resident within my local community – a threefold position I had juggled since 1990 (in addition, I held the position of school governor from 2003-2007). By September 2004 I had relinquished the position on Citizenship Coordinator (whilst still teaching on its programme) in preference for that of Head of Sixth Form within the same school. A year later my formal teaching commitments to citizenship education ended, although my interest in the concept did not; I therefore continued (and indeed still do continue) to use my leadership position within the Sixth Form to forward elements of citizenship at post-16 level whenever possible. When citizenship education became a mandatory entitlement to secondary school students in England in September 2002 I had been teaching history for 25 years; curriculum development was, by consequence, hardly new to me since centralised government control had increasingly become a feature of education since the Education Act of 1988. Ongoing tampering with the work of schools for such a long period has had the disadvantage of making many seasoned teachers feel overburdened, undervalued and lacking autonomy within their own area of expertise. I was no exception. It might therefore seem surprising that I approached this initiative more positively. There were a number of reasons for this.

Initially, it was the potential for impact offered by the subject matter that both interested me on a personal level and intrigued me on a professional one. To my way of thinking, the aim of spending a professional lifetime in English secondary schools has been to help equip my students in some small way with part of the knowledge, understanding and skills needed to live a meaningful life within the society in which we all function. In this era of accountability it is easy to assume such attributes (especially at secondary level) relate to examination success, but in truth this element is only part of the bigger picture. Underpinning the academic curriculum is learning emitted from the hidden curriculum; and the part played by the ethos of a school and the values of its members has always been one that I have considered extremely relevant. This is because I would argue that the shaping of the individual in relation to self and others shapes the adult in relation to the world. It is for this reason, therefore, that citizenship education has interested me and I have found it difficult to separate any concept of citizenship

education from moral and social development. Indeed, the document published by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) in 1998 - which became the initial framework for the development of citizenship education in England as in other parts of the UK - described moral values and personal development as 'essential preconditions of citizenship' (QCA, 1998, p.11). Therefore, if as Fullan asserts, curriculum reform can involve a revision of beliefs among those involved, those that I personally held were broadly in keeping with those mooted, placing me in a potentially favourable position to lead such an initiative within my own establishment.

My concept of education, therefore, appears to sit comfortably with the thinking of Ian Davies who asserts that the aim of education is 'to help prepare people to live a better individual life and also to contribute to the improvement of wider society (locally, nationally and globally). As such, education is perhaps best characterised as a moral enterprise', as noted by Davies, Gregory and McGuinn (2002, p.113). There is much truth in such a definition since individuals and society are so closely interwoven or, as Ian Gregory describes it, '*Learning, in short, is essentially a social enterprise*' (p.45, original italics). It is easy to concur with such views; indeed my own interest in education has been shaped by similar factors. This being the case, I have approached this project harbouring an intrinsic curiosity over the possibilities which an education in citizenship might offer to young people; moreover, the principle of inquiring into a subject on the basis of its intrinsic interest has been recognised (Hammersley, 2004). In addition, the possibility of searching for new approaches by which to achieve these conformed to the significance Fullan places on the dimension of new teaching approaches.

#### **1.4 The development of a conceptual framework**

Closely linked with any development of my own conceptual framework for this project was an awareness of the conceptual understanding of citizenship education as defined by the Advisory Group. In defining citizenship education as three heads encased within one body of social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy (QCA, 1998, p.13) and wishing for an active response to each, this group was supporting a conceptual understanding of citizenship in keeping with the 'maximalist' interpretation of citizenship suggested by T. H. McLaughlin (1992). The minimal-

maximal continuum mooted by McLaughlin has been transposed into a comparable continuum for citizenship education by David Kerr (1999, p.12), as explained in Figure 1.1. A leaning towards the maximal understanding is considered by these researchers to be one that offers the most meaning for citizenship education.

<b>Minimal</b>	→	<b>Maximal</b>
Thin	→	Thick
Exclusive	→	Inclusive
Elitist	→	Activist
Civics education	→	Citizenship education
Formal	→	Participative
Content led	→	Process led
Knowledge based	→	Values based
Didactic transmission	→	Interactive participation
Easier to achieve and measure in practice	→	More difficult to achieve and measure in practice

**Figure 1.1 Citizenship education continuum**

While Kerr sees this continuum as a fundamental scale along which approaches to citizenship education can be identified, he also suggests that citizenship education can be viewed from the perspective of three strands: education *about* citizenship, *through* citizenship and *for* citizenship. Education *about* citizenship is largely knowledge-based, education *through* citizenship involves active participation in school and beyond, while education *for* citizenship ‘encompasses the other two strands and involves equipping students with a set of tools (knowledge and understanding, skills and aptitudes, values and dispositions) which enable them to participate actively and sensibly in the roles and responsibilities they encounter in their adult lives. This strand links citizenship education with the whole education experience of students’ (p.14). Any research into the manner in which a school copes with the introduction of citizenship education is inextricably tied to these interpretations. My own framework developed from this.

### 1.4.1 Meaningful delivery

Surely it is possible to ‘participate actively and sensibly’ in issues we encounter in our lives without feeling any personal commitment to them? It is for this reason that I have entitled this research ‘the search for meaningful delivery’. Life without meaning lacks direction; similarly a curriculum subject without perceived meaning can be dismissed by students as being irrelevant to them. It is all too common to compartmentalise a school subject within a given slot on a timetable, attend the lessons, do the homework, pass the exams but then continue life seemingly untouched by this. Similarly, it is possible for an individual to engage positively in an area of public concern, but for it to remain a single, detached action rather one that impacts upon future behaviour. With the wrong approach, citizenship education could all too easily slip into this unfavourable mould; I wanted to see this avoided within my own school. If citizenship education is to have any impact upon the lives of young people then I assert that it must have meaning to them and shape their future dispositions accordingly.

Why do people respond to certain areas of their life and not to others? Roy Baumeister (1991) claims that people find meaning in life if four basic needs are met: purpose, value, efficacy and self-worth. I concur with this thinking because these criteria can interact to maximise impact; for example, people are more inclined to pursue objectives which they value and feel they can control; the satisfaction gained by success in these can add to a person’s sense of self-worth. Doret De Ruyter, in commenting on people’s need for a sense of efficacy, has summed this up:

‘Persons must pursue goals that they value. If people have no enthusiasm for their aims or regard them as unimportant, then the aims cannot contribute to their meaning in life ... They must have the feeling that what they do matters, not only because it is important in the pursuit of their goals, but also because they *make a difference by their actions*’ (2002, p.37, italics added).

Herein lies the conceptual framework upon which this research is based. While individuals construct their own meanings in life, one role of education is to provide the frameworks through which meanings can be sought. Of course people can have lives

which are meaningful to them but are not meaningful in the way in which they impact upon others. For citizenship education to be meaningful, it should impact positively upon the lives of others, indicating that a person's life is both meaningful and significant (Singer, 1992). In this way, actions contribute towards the development of society. The Crick Report had identified the three strands of social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy around which its authors hoped certain meanings could be found, valued and acted upon; they had thereby established the framework which they anticipated would provide a meaningful education in citizenship. Since I wished to identify whether or not stakeholders within my own school valued the citizenship innovation and whether through their responses to the initiative in action they considered they could make a difference to the lives of others, I was using the school of thought propounded by De Ruyter as the tool by which I would attempt to measure the effectiveness of this framework for citizenship education.

While definitions of citizenship and the aims of citizenship education might never arrive at any consensus, for me as a teacher the purpose of introducing citizenship education, therefore, was to help students find some sense of purpose, value, efficacy and/or self worth within the strands defined in the Crick Report as steps towards developing a sense of commitment to the ways in which they could positively impact upon the lives of others. Such a view concurs with the following belief, 'Putting meaning into practice, and from this developing meaningful practice in order to secure what the school wants to achieve, is at the core of how and why schools improve in the way that they do' (Hollins *et al*, 2006, p.148).

#### **1.4.2 The search**

The challenge of my search, therefore, would be to identify any of the ways in which this impact could be made – after all, something that has meaning for one person does not necessarily have meaning for the next person. My search, therefore, would take the form of this research project – a journey shaped by a mixed-methods approach that offered opportunities for observation, reflection and analysis of the reactions of the stakeholders in my establishment to the unfolding developments of this initiative over four years; with the ultimate goal being the identification of some way in which this

educational innovation could claim to be providing meaning for my students in the way in which it influenced their dispositions. By putting this meaning into practice this would, to my thinking, provide meaningful practice. I entered this search with an open mind, unaware of whether any positive finding would be linked to a particular theme in the citizenship programme of study, a pedagogical approach or an institutional development. If this search ended with the identification of some aspect of citizenship education which had meaning to my students, I would argue that this would be an example of effective education. In this way, I would also have more confidence in the long term impact of Kerr's 'education for citizenship'.

Effective education has been defined by Ron Best as the 'intentional and structured bringing about of affective learning, undertaken in ways which recognise the intellectual and moral autonomy of the learner' (1998, p.72) and he in turn defines affective learning as that which is 'concerned with the emotions, feelings or passions that motivate, constrain or shape human action'. If these definitions are to be linked to effective citizenship education using the terminology within the Crick Report, then for this research exercise they needed to focus on social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy. In reviewing theoretical considerations impinging upon learning, Martin Bloomer has emphasised the link between learning and self: 'While learning is to do with the changes in what people *think* and *do*, it also entails changes of a more fundamental nature, in who people *are*' (Bloomer, 2001, p.441, original italics). Crick himself admits, 'Our very self is a construct of how others see and react to us, which itself is a construct of how we see others, and how we are equipped to react to others. Is it not the true aim of education to be brought to recognise this? To be a good and active citizen is even helpful to the self' (Crick, 2002, p. 503). I saw the introduction of citizenship education as an opportunity to explore the link between some of these possibilities.

The potential for impact offered by the subject matter has already been discussed as a factor in my decision to investigate this innovation. A second reason for the appeal of this initiative was the flexibility of approach that seemed to be built into it, an element that conforms to Fullan's claim that curriculum reform includes a new approach. The prescriptions that appeared to dictate other elements of the National Curriculum over the

years did not seem to be present. True, there were strands, essential elements and key learning outcomes to be achieved by the end of the years of compulsory education (termed as Key Stage Four), but the approach was refreshingly less controlled – it appeared that, in deciding on suitable programmes of study, those responsible for delivery would be allowed to exercise a degree of professional autonomy. In this way, I saw the opportunity to conduct my own search for an educational approach that I felt would benefit others. The freedom to search permitted me to explore new avenues rather than follow prescribed ones. Crick emphasised the need for local discretion and that ‘What is not ruled in is not ruled out; therefore, so long as everything in the Order is covered to a basic level of understanding, some topics can be stressed more than others and used as major gateways into the whole curriculum’ (Crick, 2002, p.500). My search would be one directed at finding both the most appropriate themes for emphasis and the most effective approach for delivery; in this way the search would encompass my dual roles as teacher and researcher. Hence I hoped to provide an example of effective education through meaningful delivery, evidenced by a growing awareness among students that they could make a difference to the lives of others. In doing so I anticipated addressing the three strands of the initiative, although at this initial stage I was unaware of the difference in emphasis that might be placed on each strand. While I was quietly certain that this would necessitate revised beliefs on the part of some of my colleagues. I was very much aware that such an initiative would, in Fullan’s terms, require a fresh approach and new teaching materials.

### **1.5 The development of a research model**

In 2002 I initiated a study that used as its sample the high school in which I worked. Meadowvale High (a pseudonym) is a mixed, non-selective, high achieving comprehensive nestled in a leafy, middle class English suburb. The catchment area is wide: ranging from remote farming communities to very exclusive housing estates and attracting students from the nearby city across the county boundaries. The student population consists of over 1,100 students aged thirteen to eighteen years, studying across three key stages in education: the final year of Key Stage 3 (targeting English students aged 9 -13 years), Key Stage 4 (14 – 16 years) and Key Stage 5 (17 – 18 years). While the alleged benefits of citizenship education quoted in the Crick Report (QCA, 1998, p.9) were a powerful underpinning for the study as a whole, the research

that took place was primarily a search for a meaningful delivery of this curriculum innovation within this English high school.

Since this exercise focused on the reaction of one English high school to one educational innovation, in principle it conformed to the definition of a case study (Cohen *et al*, 2002 p.181). However, the organisational environment to some extent merely provided the geographical boundaries within which a combination of styles were utilised in search for an answer to my initial question. When I began this research I planned to engage with an action research paradigm, but this was soon thwarted due to developments within the case. While I needed to withdraw from this particular research model, I did not wish to withdraw from the research process, since the key question of how to deliver citizenship education meaningfully still lacked an answer. The search therefore became one in which I needed to rely on other styles and sources; only in this way could I feel confident that my methodology remained fit for purpose. The research model, therefore, was mixed; as were the methods employed. As discussed further in Chapter Three of this thesis, Ely (1990) has provided a framework for successful implementation of educational change based on environmental factors; his assertion that acceptance of change is less likely when certain factors are not present proved depressingly accurate. Since I was engaging with one case I was forced to respond to the complexities of that case, which in itself added a new dimension to the research which might have been lacking from other research approaches. Indeed this was a dimension that might have escaped documentation if research into citizenship education at Meadowvale High had been restricted to the occasional visits from the non-participant researchers of the National Foundation for Educational Research that have been a feature since 2002.

One approach within the case study was to focus on the use of quasi-experimentation within the classroom as a means to test the effectiveness of teaching materials as a source of meaningful delivery; I also made extensive use of questionnaires across different year groups in relation to differing themes within this area of research, lengthening the overall research period to allow for this. In providing a holistic approach shaped by the relationships and processes within this case study, I was able to illuminate the relationships of the samples to the subject matter and draw attention to

the processes by which some people engage with citizenship. Therefore, this thesis will engage the reader with both qualitative and quantitative data, with quasi-experimentation and with interview, as well as with findings from questionnaires returned from a wide cross section of individuals. Eclecticism in research has been defended by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and is supported by my approach in this project because it offered the best fit for this particular piece of research. A separate research exercise I had initiated in the early stages with individuals beyond the case itself was employed to provide a framework for identifying attitudes towards active citizenship thereby adding to the bigger picture.

## **1.6 An overview of the literature**

This thesis considers the impact of curriculum innovation, with a particular emphasis on citizenship education. In considering the implementation of this educational innovation in my school, the work of Michael Fullan (1982) and James Ellsworth (2000) have proved extremely relevant in providing a framework against which this stormy journey could be evaluated. The writings of David Hargreaves (1990, 1996, 2003), who has an acute interest in the shaping of curriculum, feature in this discussion together with the often contrasting standpoints of Martyn Hammersley (1993, 2004). In considering the development of citizenship education through time, some of the theoretical and practical underpinnings for the development of citizenship education have their foundations in the ancient world, so the influence of Aristotle has been recognised; this was pertinent to the concept of citizenship as understood in the sense of civic republicanism and clearly seen as relevant to the discussions of the Citizen Advisory Group (QCA, 1998, p.9).

Since this thesis concentrates on specific components within the programme of study for citizenship, this has drawn me towards the writing of proponents of varying strands. From the perspective of social and moral responsibility, the work of De Ruyter (2002), Baumeister (1991), Bottery (1990), Halstead and Taylor (1996), Ungeod-Thomas (1997), Arthur and Davison (2002), Draycott (2002) and Gardner et al (2003) were among those found useful. The strand of community involvement directed my attention to the arguments forwarded by Schine (1997), Scheckley and Keeton (1997), Oldfield (1990) and Perry and Katula (2001). Within these two strands emerged issues of

capital, allegedly in decline according to writers such as Putnam (1995), while the validity of the claims of cultural capital as expounded by Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) also surfaced. In considering issues related to political literacy, a number of sources provided thought, including Verba *et al* (1995), Terren (2002), Tapper and Salter (1978), Sotirovic and McLeod (2001), Rosenthal *et al* (1998), Pring (1999), and Crick (2002).

Underpinning the discussions of the three strands of citizenship education are concepts of citizenship. A recent interpretation of the concept of citizenship can be found in the work of Derek Heater (1999), where the concept of multiple citizenship is debated at length as a progressive step for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. This thesis will find support for the concept of a form of citizenship education that engages with the challenges of the new century, and therefore endorses some of the thinking suggested by writers such as Anthony Giddens (2002), Keith Faulks (2006, 2000), John Cogan and Ray Derricott (2000) as well as Audrey Ostler and Kerry Vincent (2002).

Government publications such as the Crick Report (QCA 1998) and subsequently updated materials relating to this – including the Ajegbo Review of 2007 – are discussed. Contemporary research is becoming increasingly available as this new policy unfolds. Reference will be made, for example, to the ongoing longitudinal study of the effects of citizenship education begun by the National Foundation for Educational Research on behalf of the Department for Education and Skills (2002), and the work already established by David Kerr *et al* (1999, 2000, 2001, 2003, 2004), both nationally and internationally. A range of other published material exists, such as the works edited by Fogelman (1991), and others continue to be published: e.g. *Citizenship Education through Secondary History* (Arthur *et al*, 2001); several contributors to the articles of the Historical Association, e.g. Wren (2002), Freeman (2002); and those of the Association for Citizenship Teaching, e.g. Annette (2005). Research journals include a variety of views: from the philosophical perspective of the late Terence McLaughlin (1992) and the empirical study of Carole Hahn (1999), to the practical implications in schools as observed by Davies *et al* (1998) and the nihilistic stance of Andrew Marks (2002), which was highlighted in section 1.2.

Practitioner-based enquiry, which exists in a wide cross section of professions, has in recent years been seen by the Government to be an approach worthy of fostering in education. Practitioner-based research, in moving away from the positivist approach and towards the more interpretive, has both its critics (Adelman *et al* 1980, Hammersley (1993) and its supporters (Elliott 1991, Hargreaves 1996). Bridget Somekh (1995) presents a supportive case for evidence-based research, whilst admitting its potential limitations, and Carr and Kemmis (1986) offer a persuasive argument for conducting action research as a critical educational science. Underpinning the aims of this research was – and continues to be - a belief that educational research and the teaching profession can be seen to be mutually supportive, not polarised. While this research will attempt to justify the use of case study research (Bassegy, 2001, 1981) it will, despite this, accept that there is still some scope for supporting the concerns of Hammersley (2004). In endorsing the use of a mixed-methods paradigm, the work of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) has been significant. I have made close reference to the guidelines for interview protocol as suggested by Kvale (1996), and for quasi-experimentation as mooted by Campbell and Stanley (1963). Cohen *et al* (2002) were among those writers who have been extremely useful in the sections focusing on questionnaires, while the BERA ethical guidelines (1992, 2004) underpinned all aspects of this project.

## **1.7 The research questions**

Citizenship education arrived at Meadowvale High without any preparatory In Service Training (INSET) for staff other than me. When I requested that the in-house programme for continued professional development, 2002-2003, should be amended to permit an explanation of this initiative on a whole-school basis, my request was refused by senior management. Thus, any hope of ascertaining staff views through such means was thwarted. Once appointed as Citizenship Coordinator I was eager to introduce a number of exercises concurrently between 2002 and 2003 in an attempt to gather as much information as possible about people's perceptions of it. I considered this was imperative if an answer was to be found to the key question driving this research:

- How can citizenship education be delivered so that students can feel that their actions can make a difference to the lives of others?

This key question, by virtue of its timing and my own professional circumstances in 2002, needed to be addressed within the suggested government guidelines and the current educational system; and it aimed to identify approaches by which I could equip young people in my school with the skills and understandings arguably considered necessary for them to participate positively in society. Baumeister's criteria were never far from the surface, nor indeed was De Ruyter's claim that 'living a life of significance in which one acts for the benefits of others and contributes to one's communities and society will increase one's opportunities to find meaning in life' (2002, p.41). Although the focus of De Ruyter's work is religious education, it was my assertion that a successful search for delivery of citizenship education within my school could contribute one small step towards a life of significance. Therefore this key question was influenced by my own conception of citizenship education and this question underpinned all subsequent questions.

The Crick Report was keen to improve the political literacy of young people in the hope that they would participate more positively in the democratic process. As a history teacher it was hardly surprising, therefore, that I seized upon the opportunity to explore this possibility within the framework of my own classroom. After all, if success could be found by adapting existing schemes of work this might encourage other history teachers to do likewise, thereby expanding the benefits of the innovation among both staff and students. As Ellsworth notes, 'Perceptions of the innovation can sometimes be improved by highlighting its similarities to other ideas or tools with which the adapter is already comfortable' (2000, p. 40). I thus created a quasi-experimental situation in the autumn term of 2002, with the intention of identifying the extent to which history lessons could be utilised to provide meaningful delivery within my understanding of citizenship education: in other words, this branch of my search aimed to discover if knowledge gained from learning about the past could awaken students to the value of people exercising their political right. This focused on the following research sub-question:

- To what extent can the study of history at Key Stage 3 provide a stimulus for a sense of responsibility towards others?

Crick had acknowledged the need to respect the local dimension. While the parameters of locality are open to interpretation, to me this could (and should) involve those community members whose lives were to be influenced by this initiative. For me to devise a scheme of work without regard for the views of immediate stakeholders would have been professional suicide and heinous bad practice. Therefore another sub-question had this sentiment at its heart. The search for meaningful delivery necessitated identifying which elements of the programme of study were deemed to be the most significant to the stakeholders. This was also in recognition of advice existent in the literature of educational change that ‘effective lasting change is best facilitated by ... addressing the priorities and concerns of multiple stakeholder groups’ (Ellsworth, 2000, p.19). I therefore anticipated that there would be a greater chance of success with this initiative if I worked alongside the stakeholders, listening to their views and allowing them to shape my thinking. For instance, if I wanted citizenship education to have meaning for the students and to shape their dispositions they had to be part of the consultation process. The importance Fullan pays to the dimension of ‘beliefs’ in curriculum reform dovetails with this. Such was the thinking behind the following sub-question, which elicited responses from questionnaires issued to a wealth of stakeholders between July 2002 and February 2003 and from interviews held with ten members of staff:

- Which citizenship issues do stakeholders within Meadowvale High value as meaningful to study?

National conferences on the introduction of citizenship education, held in summer 2002, urged schools to build on current good practice. Ever-conscious that it would be folly to ignore such basic common-sense, part of my design was to search for examples of this. While schools were now warned that implicit citizenship delivery would be deemed insufficient as examples of citizenship education, it seemed reasonable to try to measure the effectiveness of those in place before introducing new approaches. My interpretation of implicit delivery is the means by which students develop an understanding that does not take its origin from direct classroom teaching. For example, a school’s culture emits an ethos which, I believe, can impact upon students’ attitudes; individuals can take action to bring about change within a school without this action being an explicitly designated area of the curriculum. In 2004 the Headteacher of

Meadowvale High decided that citizenship education was to have its own discrete provision on the timetable. Once this subject was offered its own curriculum space, this permitted explicit delivery through specific classroom practices. I was therefore in a position to analyse findings collected in 2003 against data subsequently gathered, thereby crystallising another research sub-question. In 2003 I had considered the impact on the disposition of students who experienced this implicitly (through informal exposure to opportunities afforded within the school rather than through direct teaching) and, from 2004 onwards, I was in a position to measure the effect on those who experienced it as part of a taught programme within citizenship lessons (explicitly). Since Meadowvale High was a school where the Headteacher was proud of the international connections we had forged in the name of global citizenship - with north-south, east-west school visits becoming a feature of the school calendar - I elected to include this dimension within my research. Extra-curricular activities straddled the definitions of implicit/explicit delivery: they were not part of a formally taught programme of study yet they offered the potential for learning from firsthand experience of situations offered by the school, experiences which the students knowingly entered. The sub-question which encompassed this research strand was:

- To what extent does implicit and explicit education of global issues impact upon student dispositions?

While I had opted to use the community in which I was employed as my base for research, I was conscious that research can be enriched by the use of multiple sources. At the heart of this research was the need to uncover ways in which individuals feel motivated to act positively within this field of activity. The views of those who formed part of that community were pivotal, but this is not to claim that the views of others were not valuable. I was particularly intrigued to unearth some indication of what prompted individuals to use political action as an instrument of change while others remained unmoved. I was also keen to gather evidence on the extent to which schools played a part in this. These two issues prompted me to extend my search for information from a source outside of the case study; I particularly wished to target a group whom I was confident would satisfy these needs. Since the introduction of citizenship education owed much of its origin to the support of parliamentarians, I decided to approach this group to probe their views on these issues. While purposive

sampling is not representative of the wider population, it allowed me to tentatively provide some framework of reference – no matter how meagre - for means by which strategies promulgating political literacy could possibly be tried and tested within the environment in which I worked. I did not enter this aspect of the research expecting answers that were instantly transferable to what was, of course, a totally different situation, but I was sufficiently open-minded to think that any findings that were produced could in some way add to the bigger picture. Therefore, the sub-question influencing this element of the research process, which featured in the research process from 2002-2003 was:

- What can be learnt from factors that have encouraged others to develop a sense of responsibility towards the lives of people?

## **1.8 An overview of the findings**

While this research focuses on specific data generated across the years, it also embeds these within the unfolding policy changes within a school. In doing so, it feeds into the discourse on educational innovation by fleshing out some of the issues linked to the introduction and development of this controversial innovation within one school. Perceptions of citizenship education, and reactions to it, were seen to be as varied in the responses of the stakeholders at Meadowvale High as implied by others at the start of this chapter, and the impact of these was instrumental in shaping its development and my research path, demonstrating that even when a teacher enters a research process in which she should command a position of authority, the freedom to research can be seriously constrained. In doing so it draws attention to the impact of enforced change on experienced teachers. These findings might well explain some of the limitations to the development of this initiative in other such schools where there is a mismatch between the wishes of the UK Government and the entrenched beliefs of those in the position to effect change at school level, and where the climate of academic accountability remains the driving energy force across a school.

Emerging from this project is a suggestion that there is potential for some young people to develop a sense of responsibility towards others if they are faced with experiences that challenge their social and cultural expectations. In fact it was in activities that

developed the interpersonal and intrapersonal skills of the students at Meadowvale High in a direct experiential manner that the most powerful findings were documented. By contrast, it will suggest that classroom activities produce less dynamism, although they can be crafted to elicit, in principle, the correct short-term responses to the questions posited. This finding heightened my awareness, as a practitioner-researcher, of the need to engage with pre-test and post-test attitudinal responses from students to establish a fuller understanding of the impact of my teaching.

While I accept that its political facet remains vital in underpinning the execution of citizenship rights, this research will suggest that a rights and responsibilities agenda was embraced more positively by students than one targeting the political strand. This thesis will disappoint egalitarians; it was never intended to do this and it saddens me that it does. While some might assert it anachronistic to write in terms of working class and middle class in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, such principles of traditional British society appear to have been masked by, rather than removed by, consumer society. Discussion on the research findings will indicate that opportunities for meaningful enrichment and citizenship enhancement might remain more the birthright of those with established capital.

## **1.9 The pathway through the text**

The details of Chapter Two review the literature from two perspectives: that of curriculum innovation and citizenship education. In addressing the literature associated with curriculum innovation it focuses the reader on the issues that affect the successful implementation of initiatives in schools. This has been chosen because this research project was faced with barriers to implementation. Moreover, since the process by which citizenship education reached the school curriculum in England as a whole was in itself somewhat tortuous, this section places this process into the wider context of curriculum change. In reviewing concepts of citizenship education, Chapter Two considers the lessons that can be drawn from past attitudes towards citizenship education. It also dwells on the part played by dissension in the 20<sup>th</sup> century since this was a key feature in the lack of progress in this initiative. In doing so, this section is approached from the perspective of the dimensions of change suggested by Fullan – those of the role of beliefs, new approaches and materials. Since government can be a

powerful agent of change, the documentation initiated by the UK Government – the Crick Report – is discussed in depth. Finally, a review of attitudes to citizenship education in other countries is included to allow the reader to place developments in England within a wider context of understanding and to offset any charge of parochialism.

The mixed-methods research design is explained in Chapter Three; a timeline is also included for the reader. The problems associated with employing a case study approach are identified and the justification for using such a strategy explained. In addition the constraints encountered in my own position as researcher-practitioner are also highlighted. Since a number of instruments were adopted in an attempt to achieve triangulation within the setting of social science research, each method and its sample are identified, the research process for each method carefully explained and issues of ethical consideration addressed.

Chapter Four focuses on the findings gathered from the various strands of this research project. It opens with the data gathered from the interviews that took place with members of staff at the outset of this exercise. It identifies the results seen in the quasi-experimentation used in Key Stage 3 lessons in autumn 2002. Chapter Four then moves on to the varied findings emanating from the four questionnaires employed both within the community of the case study and from a sample approached from beyond the case study in question.

A discussion of these findings is the feature of Chapter Five. Section 1.8 has already outlined the key issues that emerged from these findings, indicating that the research produced mixed results from this investigation. This chapter considers the findings in relation to the key research question. It discusses, in turn, the issues identified in engaging with implicit and explicit delivery of citizenship education, with studying citizenship issues through the medium of history lessons and with the impact of extra-curricular activities. It also highlights factors seen to underpin the findings gathered. This discussion is conducted alongside consideration of cogent literature that both preceded and followed this research project. This chapter invites practitioners who wish their students to develop a sense of responsibility towards others to consider the

potential of further exploring the concept of learning through experiences that take students outside their comfort zones.

In drawing this project to a close, Chapter Six reflects on conclusions that can be drawn and offers recommendations for further study. It focuses on issues that surface from the dilemma of introducing a controversial innovation into an unprepared school and it reflects on the merits of a mixed-methods paradigm. In considering the way in which researchers can move forward from the findings offered in this project, this chapter recommends further exploration into the factors that impinge upon attitudinal change among young people and urges schools to search for ways in which meaningful citizenship education can be truly inclusive.

## Chapter 2 A Review of the Literature

### 2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a contextual background for my research by reviewing the literature on the processes impacting upon educational innovation and also on citizenship education. I begin by examining issues raised by writers who are concerned with the process of educational change at both macro and micro-levels. In referring to agents of change who are pivotal to innovation, I intend this term to refer to teachers, school leaders and government agencies. While it is reasonable to assert that other agents of change exist, they do not feature as significant to the discussion and therefore do not form part of the definition at this stage. In the ensuing section I attempt to identify the components that affect the change environment in education and comment on the caveats which, in the views of the scholars identified, potential change agents should bear in mind when instituting innovations in the educational field. I move on to discuss conceptions of citizenship education in ways that are relevant to the research that has been conducted. In doing so, this section focuses on four aspects. Firstly it reviews past understandings of citizenship education. This is valid because although the past does not repeat itself, it does offer lessons to be learnt from it. One branch of the research I carried out surveyed individuals whose experiences offered possible insights that could enhance current understandings, and since this did indeed enrich the research findings it is fitting that the review of the literature on citizenship education should take stock of assorted influences. Particular attention is paid to the conceptions of citizenship education which have had a significant impact on my own thinking and directly inform the practical interventions subsequently evaluated in this thesis; namely, citizenship education as a State-centred ideal and also as a tool for the education of characteristics conducive to the delivery of the duties of a citizen. Secondly, this section focuses on the impact of dissension among stakeholders. This is important because not only did this influence the development of citizenship education over time, but it also shaped the direction of my own research project. Thirdly, since the introduction of citizenship education into England was, ultimately, the work of the UK Government, it is fitting that this section should discuss government as an agent of change. In doing so, a reflective analysis will be made on the Crick Report in section 2.5.

## 2.2 Educational innovation

Educational change is prompted by a hope of improvement (Hargreaves, 1990) and a belief that the status quo is no longer adequate (Ely, 1990); in the case in question, the introduction of citizenship education was prompted by the hope of improving the political climate in England by emphasising political literacy and witnessing, as the corollary, the increasing contributions of young people to society. Effective implementation would necessitate a change in schools and, as noted in Chapter One, Fullan has identified three dimensions that feature within curriculum change: the possible use of new materials, of new teaching approaches and the incorporation of new or revised beliefs. While all three do not have to be in place simultaneously to effect change, nor indeed is the sequence of these three aspects fixed, they do impact upon each other and I would concur with Fullan that the dimension that potentially offers the biggest barrier to successful implementation is that of changing the beliefs of people. New materials or new teaching approaches have the potential to change beliefs, and vice versa, but since a change in thinking is a challenge to a teacher's core values which, in truth, might be self-conscious, this is no small obstacle to surmount. A teacher might pay lip service to an innovation if it fails to win over both heart and mind. My own observation over the years of teachers has evidenced this (for example, the attempt to introduce 'national records of achievement' within my present school was met with such nominal acceptance that it was tantamount to disaster) and the introduction of citizenship education into Meadowvale High was to be fraught with problems also.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) have provided a list of warnings to prospective agents of educational change, the recognition of which are crucial to encouraging success. If the proposed change is not perceived to meet a significant need, or if its success cannot be evidenced elsewhere as an example of effective education, the chances of it being accepted by those charged with its execution are reduced. Likewise, if the innovation is not seen as important by the very administration advocating it, its validity is brought into question. If there is not a support network among the staff collaboration will not happen; if the innovator lacks adequate resources – human or otherwise – effective change will be unlikely. Meanwhile, Hargreaves (1990) has highlighted the part played by manageability and coherence in the successful implementation of educational reform. In discussing manageability, Hargreaves makes the logical comment that a curriculum content that is not matched by appropriate curriculum time is ill-fated and

will lack coherence for teachers. Under such circumstances it is difficult to challenge entrenched beliefs, thereby compounding the problem of successfully initiating change, as warned by Fullan. Hargreaves argued the case for coherence both within and between subjects at the time of the introduction of the National Curriculum (and indeed was still doing so in 2003); but there is no reason to doubt the ongoing validity of his assertion when applied to citizenship education in 2002 – after all, in some circumstances, including my own, this was initially introduced as a subject for coordination across the curriculum rather than as a separate discipline. Hargreaves feared for the future of the National Curriculum on grounds of the lack of expertise among secondary teachers for integration across subjects. Likewise, the National Foundation for Education Research (NFER) has shown that teachers felt ill-equipped to integrate citizenship education across the curriculum (Kerr *et al*, 2003). Fullan would confirm that this shortcoming was evidence to support his topology of factors impacting upon the implementation of curriculum innovation (1982, p. 250), as seen in Table 2.1. While Fullan's writing is based on North American systems, this is not to imply that his observations do not have any parallel application for Europe.

In this process over time, as indicated by Fullan, the greater the number of factors working against the innovation, the more difficulty the process has to bring about successful change. Where teachers do not see the need for change or the way in which it will be managed, or if the resources they are given do little to convince them of the merits of the initiative or the part that they can play in it, then the chances of changing their beliefs are slender – Gordon and Lawton have summed this up as 'innovation without change' (1978, p.223). If the support offered by the local authority is weak, or has a history of ineffectiveness then this fails to breed confidence in those who feel that the onus for delivery at school level. School characteristics are very important in influencing change and the role of the Headteacher and his teaching staff pivotal. External factors can impinge upon local ones in a variety of ways, and in the case of citizenship education (as well as in other educational initiatives within the English system) the role of government cannot be denied.

*A. Characteristics of the innovation or revision*

1. Need for change
2. Clarity, complexity of the change
3. The quality and availability of materials

*B. Characteristics at the LEA level*

4. History of innovative attempts
5. Expectation and training for principals
6. Teacher input and technical assistance for teachers
7. Board and community support
8. Time line and monitoring
9. Overload

*C. Characteristics at the school level*

10. The principal's actions
11. Teacher/teacher relations and actions

*D. Factors external to the school system*

12. Role of the government departments of education and other agencies

**Table 2.1 Factors affecting implementation**

Ellsworth, in endorsing the factors hampering educational change, as listed by Zaltman and Duncan (1977), has commented on the detrimental effect of conflict. 'Effective change involves the coordinated movement of a "critical mass" of system components in a unified direction representing adoption ... a system divided by conflict that is pulling factions in different directions, is an unlikely candidate for meaningful change' (Ellsworth, 2000, p.172). If this statement is placed alongside the factors affecting implementation, as seen in Table 2.1, it is easy to see how an atmosphere of dissension has room to surface and therefore how difficult it is to create that state of critical mass.

How then is successful educational innovation managed? According to David Hargreaves, 'The innovative school of tomorrow will be very unlike the innovative school of a generation ago, because it is now more firmly embedded in a range of rich professional and institutional networks. This permits a far more powerful "bottom up" approach to innovation, one with built-in channels for more rapid dissemination of what works' (2003 p.11). In summarising his views in this way, Hargreaves was reflecting on a host of initiatives that have swept across the educational field in recent years,

claiming, 'The education system that becomes a learning system will be able to meet the two challenges of the knowledge society, namely learning how to create new knowledge through innovation, then how to share that learning through its rapid transfer across the whole of the teaching profession' (p.13). Innovation is important, therefore, as a step towards advances in knowledge, but the successful innovative school also requires communication, shared capital and commitment among its stakeholders. This cocktail has not always been evenly shaken and I would assert that, if schools are to move forward as centres of innovation, one of the roles of research is to highlight both where this has worked and where it has not, thereby providing tangible lessons for future change agents. This research project contributes towards this by highlighting some of the problems that can surface from an apparent lack of commitment to change.

While Hargreaves currently seems to be pinning hope on the possibilities offered by networked communities, it is too soon to comment on any long term benefits from these. Certainly within my own working environment the initiative of networked communities was introduced some years ago, but Meadowvale High is yet to see any meaningful impact from this. This is not to undermine Hargreaves' hopes - perhaps it implies that the blend of communication, shared capital and commitment among stakeholders within Meadowvale High was simply not right. What this example does indicate is that educationalists cannot rely upon innovations *per se*, no matter how attractive they might seem, but need to examine very carefully the layers coating the introduction of any change if success is to be evident; the communities of practice emerging to enhance the development of citizenship education, referred to by Kerr (2003), are one such group.

One important dimension is communication, which is pivotal to the change process, and two-way communication is essential to successful change within this system (Rogers, 1995). However, since those intended to receive any message of change in our multi-perspective society can react very differently to the same idea, any drive for successful innovation must take heed of the many factors that might impinge upon its delivery. In education the situation is particularly acute since teachers often hold the potentially unenviable position of being both the intended change agents as well as the intended adopters of any change. If the concept of an innovation has stemmed from the teacher,

the response will surely be very different from a situation in which the innovation has been imposed, as the unfolding story of the attempted change process at Meadowvale High will demonstrate. Where professional integrity appears to have been sacrificed, the innovation lends itself to being fraught with problems, as staff comply without commitment (if indeed they comply at all). This particular issue is considered at length by Apple (1981, 1987) in his analyses of teachers' work and the so called proletarianisation of the profession. As Hargreaves has aptly commented, 'changing the teacher ... involves changing the person ... (and therefore) changing their life' (1988, in Sikes p.38). Nevertheless, while teachers are a vital component in the system they are only one of a variety of stakeholders, and prior to any innovation being enacted the innovator needs to closely scrutinise the relationship between these various components (Ellsworth, 2000). Havelock and Zlotolow (1995) advocate six stages of planned change: firstly, the change agent should establish a relationship with those intended to adopt the change, secondly the problem requires identification, suitable resources must be found and a solution chosen; acceptance of the innovation is then needed if, as the final stage, it is to regenerate itself. Hence, 'bottom-up' approaches, as advocated by Hargreaves, probably permit such an examination to be carried out with greater depth of understanding than more grandiose schemes dictated from above. Certainly the stages of planned change advocated by Havelock and Zlotolow were never far from my own thinking when engaged in the various stages of my research, which of course I hoped would eventually lead to the acceptance and regeneration of a successful aspect of delivery within the perspective of citizenship education. When done well, Hargreaves asserts that innovation opens up the way for new communities of practice within a school.

While an educational system is made up of multiple stakeholders, it also possesses multiple dimensions and Ellsworth has emphasised the need to understand these if the innovator is to successfully select the type of change, integrate it, involve stakeholders appropriately and 'ensure that the end result of these processes constitutes a viable system in the context of its surrounding systems' (2000, p.29). The integration of these parts is no mean task: each exists within an environment that is impacting upon the intended change adopter; indeed perceptions of the innovator influence the manner in which the innovation is received (Havelock and Zlotolow, 1995). When Ellsworth wrote that 'the problems facing education today rarely reflect a single "diseased"

component ... More often they reflect a desire to bring new tools to bear to enable the system to meet new requirements ...producing the desired effects may require many coordinated, mutually reinforcing innovations that are bundled and introduced concurrently to produce an essentially new system' (2000, p.31), unbeknown to him he could have been commenting on the citizenship education initiative in England. While the Government might, arguably, claim that the political apathy among young people risks turning into a disease, their introduction of this new subject into the curriculum was akin to bringing new tools to bear on the educational system, providing new requirements to be met as a result of this, and hoping for the ultimate identification, and coordination, of good practice among schools through the ongoing research of the NFER to provide material for future curriculum development and application.

While the integration of its parts impinges on the success of any change model, Ellsworth also endorses the view of Hall and Hold (1987) that multiple coordinated innovations are more likely to bring about effective lasting change than single, or uncoordinated, interventions. Such a belief lends itself to the justification of a coordinator for whole school effectiveness of an innovation, but of course such a claim only holds true if there is support vertically within the system as well as horizontally. Once again, the actions of the components within the system are crucial to the level of success achieved; cognisance of this cannot be overstated if resistance to change is to be minimised. Moreover, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) uphold the view that the essence to success is strong leadership at all levels. However, successful innovation is also influenced by components outside the school gates and mention has already been made of the impact of stakeholders. In Table 2.1 government agencies were listed as one of the factors influencing implementation. Hargreaves asserts that, although teachers play a central role in the extent to which innovations are successful such innovations will not lead to national change unless government visibly endorse the concept of experimentation and innovation in schools (2003, p.12). Whilst the present UK Government might claim that, as the promoter of citizenship education it was demonstrating its support for the innovation and was therefore encouraging innovation in schools, the situation is more complicated than that. To sustain change requires ongoing visible commitment at all levels of the system – Fullan's factors affecting implementation are just as important for the survival of an innovation as they are for the introduction of one.

To summarise, an attempt has been made to show that educational change is a complicated process; it is not an event. It is clear from the literature that any educational innovation is replete with potential problems if the initiative is approached without awareness of these and without allowances made to counter them. While the factors impacting on implementation are many, the part played by teachers, school leadership and government as change agents has been emphasised; however the role of two-way communication and the integration of the components within a change system have also been identified. This section has therefore highlighted the issues that a researcher should bear in mind when conducting an innovation within the educational field and has also provided examples of the barriers to successful implementation. Further commentary on these issues will be made in subsequent chapters, where the methodology for this particular research exercise is explained and the findings discussed in light of these factors.

### **2.3 Conceptions of citizenship education: lessons from the past**

Since it was the purpose of my project to identify a meaningful path for delivery of citizenship education, a review of conceptions of citizenship education provides a context for my own study. If citizenship education is to have meaning, it begs the question of whose definition of meaning it adheres to: the citizen's, the educational provider's or both? If the answer to this question is the citizen only, then this raises issues over the exact nature of an educational programme that lacks general applicability or transfer (or indeed if the programme is one that has become fudged in meaning with personal and social education); if it is a definition of meaning that relates to the educational provider only, then it is less likely to have meaning for the citizen unless the provider is completely confident that its definition embraces that of the citizen also. In a multi-perspective world such a claim seems more idealistic than realistic. Hence it is reasonable to hope that a meaningful programme of citizenship, if successful, will offer some mutual benefits to both provider and recipient. Admittedly to draw such a conclusion is in itself conditioned by my own perception of this subject and definition of its success criterion, as explained in Chapter One as being one in which individuals must feel that what they do matters in order to have a sense of purpose in their own lives and to make a difference to the lives of others. This section will consider the extent to which past interpretations of citizenship education contributed towards this definition.

‘Attempting to draw lessons from the past is always hazardous’ warns Heater (2001, p.119), but despite this Heater has been content to draw his own conclusions from the past; I shall also attempt to draw mine. Aristotle claimed, ‘the citizen should be trained in accordance with the particular form of government under which he is to live’ (Politics, 1961, 1337aII), and while there might not seem to be anything controversial in such a statement, the devil as always is in the detail – as evidenced in recent times with the reactions to the programme for citizenship education in England (Tooley, 2000, Osler, 2000, Menter and Walker, 2000). Moreover, the very nature of who merited being considered worthy of being called a citizen restricted any application of such a premise in the exclusivity of the ancient world. Education for citizenship was value-laden, underpinned by messages of people’s worth to society and delivered to those individuals for whom this was deemed to apply. This emphasis on exclusivity might appear to be a far cry from the Citizenship Orders of 1998, which made citizenship education the statutory right of all students in English secondary schools, although this thesis will suggest that there is a danger that elements of exclusivity could survive in practice if not in theory. However, in other ways it is easy to see how Aristotle’s maxim has been put into practice with the Citizenship Orders in England, in that the Government explained unequivocally its standpoint on citizenship education in relation to democratic strength (the system under which it wanted people to live), the objectives for its introduction into the school curriculum, and it provided key themes for study – nobody could claim that the Government has not made it abundantly clear that it believes that a programme of study that enhances political literacy is crucial to the health of our democracy. Where governments have been involved in directing programmes for citizenship education, they have clearly done so in accordance with their own interpretations of what constituted meaningful citizenship education to them. Whether or not their interpretations have meaning for those intended to adopt such programmes is quite another matter, and for this reason one aspect of the research I undertook was to clarify this point within the parameters of my own school.

Where ruling orders have controlled policy they have influenced content; curriculum detail being determined by perceived needs. Hence, Sparta emerged as the first example in the ancient world of a State providing a structured programme for its future citizens in the sixth century BC through its programme of military training supported by an education in the glories of the past (Heater, 2002). The focus of an education in

citizenship was one that had meaning for the Spartan citizens since such training was deemed to be an essential condition for ensuring control of its conquered neighbours. Baumeister's fourfold criteria for a meaningful life (purpose, value, efficacy and self-worth) might well have existed for these Spartiates, who might claim that what they did mattered; but their concept of citizenship education did not translate to others within its community. A key principle of a Spartiate education was to instil devotion to the State; since the lives of the agricultural slaves (helots) was stark, it would seem that in an exclusive state the education of the elite did not successfully make a difference to the lives of those beyond this group. The meaning of citizenship education for the Spartiates was one closely linked to the concept of control and State loyalty; moreover it was distinctly exclusive. Other Greek states also expected their equally exclusive citizens to undergo some element of military training as part of their commitment as citizens, while also demanding the development of more civilian attributes such as *areté* (a word variously interpreted as goodness, wisdom, valour or virtue) as part of a meaningful programme. *Areté* was deemed to be an essential characteristic of the good citizen who would make a difference in the Greek *polis* (city state), and while it embodied characteristics of political literacy, it came to be interpreted as *virtus* in Roman times and *virtu* by Italians – both of which words, by no coincidence stem from the Latin word for man: *vir*. In this lies the heavy implication that the prerequisite of a good citizen was gendered, a view that directly linked with the concept of the citizen-soldier throughout the years. No doubt this did make many men feel a sense of efficacy, contributing towards their sense of meaning in life; but education in citizenship in the ancient world was laden with expectations of manly devotion to his State and delivered as such to the chosen audience. Such a tradition was to find longevity in gendered society and cannot exist unscathed today.

Despite this censure policy-makers have been influenced by the attitudes of the ancient world, with the essence of Aristotle's *areté*, from which heralded the virtues of civic republicanism, influencing UK policy-makers - Mr Blunkett being one such example (Blunkett, 2001 p.19). The ancient term 'civic republicanism' denoted a vision of publicly active citizens operating within a constitution that recognises some sharing of power with its people; the modern introduction of an education for citizenship that emphasises political literacy, social and moral responsibility and community involvement is hardly far removed from this interpretation. Civic republicanism thrived

within a community where there was harmony; and while the influence of the family as a means of education was deemed pivotal to creating such value-systems, the role of the State could not be ignored. The politically literate, responsible citizen involving himself in his community (both in a military and civic fashion) was the individual formed through education in the home and by the State within the ancient world. This was what was considered to be a meaningful education at this time. Bertrand Russell saw Aristotle as representing a view prevalent in many states until the 18<sup>th</sup> century that the aim of the State was to create 'cultured gentlemen' (2000, p.204) – such was the longevity of the lessons learnt from the past. Therefore, since citizenship remained an exclusive right within given circles and continued to possess this meaning – or lack of meaning – to populaces as a consequence of this, education for citizenship reinforced these perceptions. This is not to claim that the populace, excluded from such an education, did not make their own contribution to the welfare of society under their own terms. By contrast, those not conforming to the mould of the 'cultured gentlemen' found an outlet in the education provided by Christianity, one that preached a different interpretation of the actions that made a difference to the lives of others. This theme will be discussed later in this section.

In Chapter One I stated that, to my way of thinking, meaningful citizenship education should enable students to be aware of how they could make a positive difference to the lives of others. Was this achieved in the model of citizenship education mooted in the ancient world and were there lessons to be learnt from this? To those in the seat of power, it presumably was deemed to have done this - Perikles, for example, boasted that power was in the hands of the whole people (Thucydides, *trans.* 1972), and he stood by this as evidence for the triumph of Athens. Of course, as previously intimated, perceptions were coloured by who was considered to be the 'people', since in terms of citizenship this precluded a large slave population and endorsed the view that women should remain silent in public affairs. I would argue therefore that education in citizenship in the ancient world of the Greeks was meaningful in reinforcing perceptions of who mattered, whose views were respected and who should be educated in the knowledge, skills and attributes necessary to make a difference to the lives of others. Since loyalty to the State was paramount in the delivery of civic duties, the young people trained to act in this way were also conforming to this very concept, thereby restricting any understanding of whose lives should be affected by their participation.

While it is unrealistic to claim that today's citizens have the time, resources (and in truth, the motivation) to act in Aristotelian fashion, even Aristotle himself accepted that *areté* needed to be nurtured, and one way to do that was through education – with a particular attention paid to the cultivation of the arts. Such position-taking lends itself to Aristotelian support for the importance of affective learning in bringing about attitudinal change, a standpoint that will be raised again in Chapter Five. To those people privileged to experience this, a sense of purpose, value, efficacy and self-worth might well have been the corollary.

Ancient perceptions of exclusivity towards an education for citizenship might seem far removed from our present lives, but in fact this is not the case. Exclusivity can take different shapes. While it remained on grounds of gender and wealth until relatively recent times in England, the gender element has become less apparent. In principle exclusivity to an education for citizenship on grounds of wealth is no longer a feature of the educational system, but in practice this thesis will suggest that, on grounds of capital, a level playing field is not necessarily shared by all in what can be experienced as part of an education for citizenship. While any claims on exclusivity might disappoint idealists, the reality of it is hardly surprising considering the seemingly inseparable ties between educating future citizens and how we are told we should view our country. Despite changes in school structures, curriculum and methods, the ideals of the classical age have long held sway in the educational field in England and the elitism of the past is difficult to bury. Where national history has been based on imperialism, elitism has never been far from the surface, and England must surely fall into this category; although in recent years schools have been censured for not teaching enough British history and undermining this feature of our past. In the current (supposedly inclusive) age where all students in English secondary schools are entitled to citizenship education, attempting to find the balance between avoiding undertones of elitism and ethnocentrism when teaching 'Britishness' – as expected from September 2008 onwards – will not be easy. Even the Association for Citizenship Teaching (ACT) acknowledges the problematic nature of this, attributing the lack of suitable texts as a barrier to implementation (Times Educational Supplement, 16 March, 2008). Kennedy has aptly explained this: 'The lesson here is that either knowingly or unknowingly images of citizenship can be conveyed and reinforced in simple instructional material. When the images are exclusive they automatically support exclusive notions of

citizenship with some individuals or groups being “in” and others being “out”. We can thus construct citizenship to suit our needs. In a democratic society citizenship should be inclusive rather than exclusive but we must deliberately set out to make it so, otherwise it can fall into exclusivism’ (1997, p.2). Group selection on grounds of suitability was very much part of the atmosphere in England following the arrival of immigrants from the 1960s onwards – and by consequence influenced curriculum attitudes.

More recently, observations from my own delivery of citizenship education as a discrete subject between 2003 and 2004 indicated that some of the materials produced in the first wave of literature available for teaching citizenship education at KS3 level in English schools also made it possible for the teacher, unless she was very careful, to undermine inclusivity in that resources paid only lip service to multiculturalism in UK society (e.g. Fiehn, T. and Fiehn, J. 2002 and Jerome, L. *et al* 2002). Since these materials were published specifically to launch the innovation, this is somewhat concerning. In ‘*This is Citizenship 2*’ Fiehn and Fiehn make no attempt to define multiculturalism to their readers. In introducing their section on human rights and responsibilities they state that readers will learn about the rights of some minority groups but they focus on disability groups with no meaningful reference made to ethnic groups. Jerome *et al*, in ‘*Citizenship for You*’ does make one attempt to elicit empathy for asylum seekers but this is dwarfed by other material, a fact probably explained by the lack of recognition for the needs of minority groups in its definition of citizenship education (2002, p.4). Although later critiques of school textbooks for citizenship education in England, Australia and Canada (Davies and Issitt, 2005) also found the resources they studied to be somewhat wanting, these authors were more confident with the focus proffered for the promulgation of diversity and democracy. Given the weaknesses apparent at this level of opportunity, it is not surprising that the attempts to embed multiculturalism into society as a whole continue to struggle in the face of adversity. While Isin and Turner have recently noted, ‘Multiculturalism is in crisis, because most liberal governments are retreating from open commitment to cultural diversity’ (2007 p.11), perhaps we should question the extent to which real commitment was ever a reality given its lacklustre start. Conversely, given the fact that the (then) Education Secretary, Alan Johnson, agreed to the suggestion of Sir Keith Ajegbo (2007) for the emphasis of multiculturalism as a fourth strand to the agenda of citizenship

education - identity and diversity: living together in the UK – perhaps the current UK administration deserves some degree of exoneration from the lament of Isin and Turner in so far as it might appear that there has been some recognition of past shortfalls. The multicultural agenda is highly sensitive and recent events both within and beyond the UK have done much to further sensitise feelings. While it would be hopelessly naïve to suggest that a sharper focus on this from the outset would have negated the need for discussion of the imperative for a fourth strand five years later, perhaps the damage would have been less.

Overt exclusivity is easy to censure and dismiss as an error of the past, but it is important to raise an awareness of this because covert exclusivity is arguably more difficult to undermine. In Chapter One I drew attention to Fullan's three dimensions for change: the possible use of new materials, new teaching approaches and revised beliefs. If the materials offered to introduce an initiative do not go far enough to emphasise inclusion, then this does not bode well for any change in approach or beliefs. This is even more serious if we consider that the ancient world made no attempt to be inclusive, but our age does. Therefore the lessons from past ages are loud and clear: no matter how noble the intentions might seem to its creators, it is possible to undermine the holistic aims of a project by the perceptions that are reinforced, and the effort needed today to avoid criticisms of exclusivity is no mean task and one not yet fully achieved. As indicated in section 2.2, when a message is transmitted to an audience it is not always received in the way intended by the change agent. One of the goals of citizenship education must be to guard against this shortcoming in areas over which it has some control. In doing so, its educational programmes will be in a stronger position to equip young people with an inclusive understanding of citizenship, one which might hopefully impact upon their attitudes within society.

While different ages offer individual interpretations to concepts, citizenship education during the era of ancient republican Rome was considered, as in Athens, to be training for male civic responsibility. Unlike Athens, however, the onus for this duty lay more firmly with the family, with a greater emphasis on the concept of the *paterfamilias*, and without the Athenian emphasis on affective learning. Instead, the cognitive model dominated, as boys were educated in the laws and customs of their ancestors, although

the power of oratory was recognised as a powerful means to an end. Indeed, in his day, Cicero argued with eloquence about the need for man to act as a virtuous citizen and believed that service to the State was the best way to demonstrate this virtue. The persuasive rhetoric of Cicero outlived him, dominated the curriculum of the Roman Empire until its demise, and has been long used in education as a model for shaping the minds of young people in the skills of civic virtue. However, it is also possible that one man's justification for providing an education for citizenship is another man's wish for social control. Effective citizenship education became more of a challenge because of the wide base of Roman citizenship characteristic of the later days of the Roman Empire. Endowed schools and academies provided the means by which liberal arts could be studied and skills developed that would equip the student to engage positively with the world. Interestingly so, a focus on the liberal arts presupposes support for a development of the senses, thereby suggesting that a curriculum that develops affective behaviour has the potential to mould a citizenry. Considering the extent of the Empire, its sustainability and the quality of life it offered to its members, it would seem that such imperial pragmatism was effective and therefore acknowledged as – in keeping with the perceptions of those in control - an example of meaningful citizenship education for both State and citizen on their terms, albeit whilst admitting the same critique levied against the earlier Greek model on grounds of exclusivity.

Suggestions of links between education for citizenship and social control are never far from the surface. In 19<sup>th</sup> century Scotland, for example, the part played by the social experiment in New Lanark of mill-owner, Robert Owen, has been described as a 'useful case study which contributes towards the enhancement of education for global citizenship in the contemporary world' (O'Hagan, 2008 p.378); but Owen also has his critics, who interpret his actions as those of an absolute ruler, who saw the potential for healthy profits through moral control (Butt, 1971). Owen claimed that, at an early age, character is formed for the individual not by him and saw education as a means to reduce societal ills. Owen wanted quiet, contented factory workers who respected each other and the world around them and educated them thus. By virtue of his position Owen was able to ensure the delivery of his reforms, evidencing, therefore, the power afforded to individuals committed to reforms who also lead their organisations. Subjects which Owen believed helped individuals to understand their world - history, geography and civics - nestled comfortably within the curriculum of the New Lanark

School and helped to shape individuals. Moreover, his Institute for the Formation of Character provided night classes for adults, helping to reinforce the attributes that Owen considered meaningful to society. Such was the manner in which a meaningful education – as defined by Owen - was offered to those individuals whose lives he could affect; however, his ideas for a reformed curriculum such as this were not reflected in the bigger picture at that time. Such is the situation when a lone voice cries out in a room with poor acoustics. While Owen saw satisfaction within his own grounds, he was powerless to exercise impact nationally despite attracting the attention of a wide and influential audience. If he had been in a position to do so, no doubt he would have supported the concept of networked communities, so applauded by Hargreaves, as an opportunity to communicate his understanding of good practice. The New Lanark experiment has significance in this discourse for several reasons. Radical by the standards of the time, it was a tangible example of a factor external to the school system which impinged upon implementation and demonstrated that where beliefs were actively embraced rather than merely stated, changes in approaches and resources were more readily seen. Thus, it helps to validate Fullan's writing on factors influencing curriculum innovation – in particular reinforcing the advantages of leadership. Equally significantly, despite being an isolated example from the 19<sup>th</sup> century, it reinforces the concept that good character formation - *areté* - needs direction, leadership and opportunities to develop if individuals are to live fulfilling lives; it thus helps to support the view that a learning community can contribute towards programmes for an education for citizenship. Since my own work was a search for opportunities through which my students could find meaning from the experience of citizenship education within their own community, this example provided some hope for me as a curriculum leader.

The concept of living a meaningful life in relation to others took on a new shape to the virtuous citizen of the medieval world and formal education in this field was not the medium through which this happened. Although the principles of the Roman model were to find new expression in the Renaissance years, education for citizenship was not recognised in the same manner - education, after all, in the medieval Christian age directed the individual's commitment towards a power greater than the State. While lay teachers resurrected the ideals of the classical age in the minds of their students, the Church played its part in encouraging communal harmony providing its own approach,

beliefs and materials. The power of religion was strong in the shaping of thinking and the rule of European monarchs commanded a different temporal sway. The concept of an education in the specifics of citizenship as a tool for developing politically-minded individuals who would, in turn, use their training for the benefits of the State generally eclipsed. The dichotomy of Church and State took root, with the prospect of becoming a citizen of Heaven dominating minds; as a result, the belief that an individual could lead a meaningful life by making a positive difference to the lives of others found a more compelling source of reference in religion than in the State. While individuals were not educated in the principles of citizenship in the manner of their ancient ancestors, the moral strand of citizenship did not therefore die, providing a social standard for actions in the world – the concept of the Good Samaritan was very powerful. This in itself is interesting because it adds weight to the moral strand of education for citizenship and, since such thinking has such a deep-rooted lineage, perhaps raises discussion on the link between the education of young people in citizenship attributes and Christian values. Certainly this surfaced as an issue of significance with some of the participants who engaged with my research, with reference made to the impact on their actions of Luke's Gospel (e.g. MP 18). While a recently published report (Davis *et al*, 2008) - albeit commissioned by the Church - rightly draws attention to the pivotal part played by the latter in matters of social provision over time, it is not unreasonable to suggest that this commitment to the needs of people is a form of active citizenship, a citizenship that is making a positive difference to the lives of others. This being the case, my discussion will return to this issue in Chapter Six when reflecting on the changes of disposition noted among some of my students.

For those who feel uneasy at the thought of associating citizenship education with values sourced from religion, perhaps we should consider whether the lessons of the past offer more comfort from the perspective of State influence. Certainly there has been support for the power of State in place of religion. Against the backdrop of the French Wars of Religion, for instance, 'Bodin put his faith in the social bonding potential of what we would call comprehensive schools' (Heater 2002, p.460). By 1700 it was becoming increasingly accepted in France that the role of the State was preferential to that of the Church in directing education, in particular an education in civic republicanism, and that this should not be done to the exclusion of the masses. A

commitment to active citizenship was encouraged, with the consequences of non-adherence emphasised by Jean Jacques Rousseau: ‘As soon as someone says of the business of the state – What does it matter to me? – then the state must be reckoned lost’ (1968, III. 15). The opportunities for forwarding a revolutionary State-controlled programme in citizenship education were never healthier; nevertheless, despite Napoleon’s belief that moral and political education helped to sustain a state, such a theme was not introduced into his *lycées*. A century would pass before elements of moral and political duties entered the curriculum in France and yet another before civic education was named thus. Whilst accepting that there are differences in background and purpose between citizenship education as expounded in France and as intended in England, Starkey (2000) argues that there are lessons to be learnt from the current approach to citizenship education utilised in France, but perhaps too much should not be read into this. After all, alarm permeated France in 2002 when the radical Jean-Marie Le Pen gained momentary but significant profile in the preliminary round of the presidential elections, an outcome attributed to a low voter turn-out. Political apathy was deemed to facilitate extremism at this point. If an educational programme that has a long history of use in a country was unable to prevent such a reaction, then something is missing. Revisions of the French curriculum in this area of secondary education have been evident between 1976 and 1996. Surely a proportion of those French citizens who chose not to vote in 2002 must have been recipients of this curriculum programme? If so, this raises the question of the extent to which school programmes do impact on future political commitment. Since in England the role of schools in inculcating political literacy has been raised by the introduction of citizenship education, and is clearly interpreted as being a meaningful enterprise, one strand of the research I carried out attempted to tease out a response to this question.

Moreover, while the English education system was coming to terms with the implications of the Crick Report, students at all levels in Greek secondary schools were familiar with formal citizenship education. The Greek government, in seeing citizenship education as a medium by which to encourage loyalty to the State, favoured skills in negotiation with authority as part of its formal curriculum in this area. However, if the gradual development of these skills was intended to deliver a meaningful curriculum, the use of pupil self-government in schools in the form of the ‘student community’ has proved disappointing. Athan Gotovos (in Cogan and

Derricott, 2000) bemoaned the effect of pupil self-government in schools which, it has been stated, has led to passive resistance in the form of sit-ins and ‘came to foster exactly the type of action it was supposed to prevent: deviation from the rules of the ‘democratic game’ as the means to obtain a highly respected goal’ (p.51). Thus, even in nations with long-established programmes of citizenship education, success has not been achieved easily.

In this section I have attempted to underline the importance of the following four issues. Firstly that when attention has been paid to citizenship education it has a long history of exclusivity, one which does not naturally vaporise by virtue of the fact we like to describe the current age as one of inclusivity. When earlier generations talked of the ‘people’ they did not appear to recognise the paradox; similarly, today we could misuse the term ‘inclusion’ if we are not careful about the resources we employ to communicate our messages. If curriculum change is to revolve around new approaches, materials and revised beliefs, this sobering fact must be borne in mind if the current generation of students is to participate in society without bias. Secondly, it has illustrated that the formation of certain characteristics have been deemed desirable in the education of a citizen and that these virtues do not necessarily develop without the input of some form of influence; this is in keeping with the contemporary view held by the UK Government that education is the means by which this can be enhanced and hence contributes towards the introduction of this innovation. The nature of those characteristics, however, have been defined by those in varying forms of authority over time, making any decision on the validity of these characteristics (or educational programme utilised to achieve them) very subjective – the defining factor being the vested interest of those empowered to define them. This discussion has also drawn attention to the influence of religious values in underpinning the actions individuals take in relation to each other, and suggests that there is some commonality between this and people’s acceptance of the moral strand of citizenship. Finally, this section has acknowledged the part played by the State in establishing the principles of citizenship education, using France as one example. In doing so it has also intimated that a country with a long history of teaching citizenship education does not necessarily reap the benefits from it that a government might desire. This leaves open the question as to how successful the UK Government will be in achieving its own objectives; it therefore helps to justify the case for investigating the process of change with regard to this

innovation. Further discussion on current approaches to citizenship education in other countries can be found in section 2.6.

## **2.4 The impact of dissension: beliefs, approaches and materials**

Since dissension features heavily in the discourse on citizenship education, it is fitting that attention is paid to it in this thesis. Conceptions of citizenship education in England were to develop later than those in a number of countries, but they did eventually take shape. Since this process has not been smooth, this section engages with this development from a perspective of dissension among those in a position to bring about change – and in doing so it also resonates with the developments within my own case study. In a tension of ideologies - right versus left, market versus moral, individual versus State – citizenship education measured little progress in England before 1998. It is important to identify these tensions in some detail for a number of reasons. Initially, they provide the contextual background to the innovation under investigation; for instance, the ‘discourse of derision’ (Ball, 1990) that fuelled the years of Conservative Government did much to impact upon the chequered progress of citizenship education. This section helps to highlight why the educational system in England was not already facilitating a meaningful delivery of citizenship education prior to 1998. Secondly, despite this mandatory entitlement from 2002 onwards tensions did not in any way dissipate, so this section also provides a framework of explanation for why this innovation has been received with mixed blessings. Additionally, it contributes towards an explanation for the experiences recorded in my research; in emphasising the impact of dissension among stakeholders it provides a tangible link with Fullan’s scholarship on factors impacting upon implementation of an innovation as well as with his three dimensions of change: beliefs, approaches and materials within curriculum development; for this reason this section is discussed from this perspective.

It is not difficult to see the effects, both negative and positive, of Fullan’s dimensions of curriculum change in practice in years past. For instance, a revision in the beliefs of people in 19<sup>th</sup> century England was needed if the view of Jeremy Bentham - that a curriculum was needed that was relevant to the needs of the time - could be embraced. Of course, what constitutes a curriculum relevant to the needs of an age remains, as ever, a moot point. In highlighting barriers to effective change Zaltman and Duncan

(1977) have identified cultural factors as one of their four categories. Cultural clashes have both a broad and a deep history as resisters to change, and curriculum initiatives are no exception to this since opponents can (rightly or wrongly) assume that such changes challenge the validity of the existing system and recoil at this thought. Hence, while Bentham's commitment to an education in the prevailing sciences and technologies has resonance for many today, it fought a more difficult campaign against the dominance of the classics in an age that honoured the latter in the traditions of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Where a revision of beliefs was not readily accepted, it was difficult to introduce new approaches or materials. Likewise, in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, policy-makers lacked consensus over the content of any curriculum that might develop the characteristics of good citizenship; and while views provided meaning to their supporters, assumptions that considered that an education in citizenship was more suited to the education of the lower classes seemed to others tantamount to little more than a patronising exercise in social control.

It was difficult to inculcate any cultural change in England anyway. Slow in developing a national system of schooling and with a tendency for individuals to emigrate rather than immigrate in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, England's history lacks experience in turning immigrants into citizens. Moreover, British society – and history – has been marked more by the presence of British subjects of the monarch rather than British citizens of the state. As argued by Garratt and Piper, attempts to 'claim citizenship and subjecthood as one and the same confuses and conflates two otherwise opposing discourses. The 'sovereign' discourse requires subjects to be 'passive', know their place in society, relies on pomp and ceremony, and is in direct conflict with the more 'liberal' notions of 'active' citizenship ...' (2003, p.129). Education for subjecthood was clearly evident in the history lessons of Victorian society, where children learnt their supposed place in society and loyalty to nation, Empire and the ruling elite was paramount, despite the publication of a number of articles by H. W. Hobart in 1894 calling for a reform of the curriculum that would move away from such a submissive, class-ridden approach. Any hopes of revising beliefs on this issue were fraught with obstacles; as long as traditional views dominated, it would be these views that had meaning for people and therefore nullified attempts to change. Beliefs spawned from England's imperial past dominated and a spirit of Social Darwinism kept people aware of their assumed status in the chemistry of the nation.

Local administration - a key element of English education from 1870 until a curbing of its impact in 1988 – also featured as significant in Fullan’s model for implementation. Certainly it is accountable for the differences in emphasis placed on educational innovation across the country and across time. Beliefs, approaches and materials varied. For instance, a ‘*Scheme of Training in Citizenship*’ adopted in the county council of the West Riding of Yorkshire in 1904 was in line with that encouraged by F.J. Gould’s work in Leicester, promoting the Moral Instruction League, and was broadly emulated in another ten local education authorities – but not in all. Agencies such as this league did, however, help to impact on the directives of the Board of Education, leading to, for example, a code of regulations for personal and civic duties in public elementary schools in the same year – one which echoes the spirit of the current citizenship wish for consideration, respect, a sense of duty to others and the need to contribute positively to community life. However, external factors such as the power of European politics and the reaction of church authorities to what was deemed to be secular interference into moral matters did little to help the work of the Moral Instruction League. As Fullan has indicated, factors external to school systems can impact on the implementation of educational change; this carries with it a history of evidence and the progress (or lack of progress) of the current citizenship initiative is no exception.

Nonetheless, the competing curriculum materials published to enhance the patriotic citizen so very much wanted in the first two decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century carry with them some of the undertones evident in the writings of the Advisory Group in 1998. The materials produced to impact upon the curriculum were by nature in keeping with what their creators deem to be the needs of – and have meaning for - the society at that time. A 1910 document lamented the lack of moral training and discipline and called for a close scrutiny of ‘present educational and social developments, lest relaxed discipline, false sentiment, or an immoderate pursuit of pleasure should tend to weaken the moral fibre of the children. The writers feel strongly that the present juvenile indiscipline is a serious social danger and a peril to the permanent security of the Empire’ (Gordon and Lawton, 1978, p.104). Fears for the nation’s future were apparent and educational programmes were deemed to be the means of rectification. Similarly, the Crick Report stated, ‘There are worrying levels of apathy, ignorance and cynicism about public life ... unless we become a nation of engaged citizens, our democracy is not secure (QCA,

1998, p.8); and perhaps statements such as these should not be taken lightly - after all, reference has already been made to the perceived French crisis of 2002. Thus, any meaning of an education in citizenship in England, at both the beginning and close of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, has never wandered far from what its designers see as being linked to the defence of the nation in some shape or form (moreover, more recent publications for use at KS3, such as QCA schemes - one of which I employed in the experimental strand of my research - and *Citizenship for You* (Jerome *et al*, 2002), have worked hard to inform readers of the ways they could respond to contemporary issues deemed to be of significance to the nation). Despite rebranding, the Moral Instruction League – finally known as the Civic Education League – was doomed; it had not won the hearts and minds of those with the power to effect change, its materials therefore did not have sustained appeal and the approaches it encouraged were not endorsed. Fullan's dimensions of change saw no long term revision in this example of curriculum development.

The question of the value of implicit versus explicit delivery of citizenship education features in my case study. Implicit influence has a long history in England because for the most part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, it was largely assumed that an individual's path through life was sufficient instruction for most aspects of citizenship and, where gaps existed, general exposure to education would provide the rest. Nonetheless, although without tangible impact in schools, individual efforts were made to raise awareness of the part that subjects could play in enhancing the citizenship skills considered to have meaning. Not surprisingly, the impact of the Great War brought its own reactions to what should be taught in school. In 1920, for example, *History as a School of Citizenship* had been published (Madeley, 1920), urging a curriculum programme relevant to the current age, one that focused on the local rather than the national, emphasised insight, a pedagogy that involved active participation and primary material, and questioned the wisdom of teaching political history to anyone under the age of fifteen. As such Madeley was advocating new approaches and the use of new materials in a bid to constitute a meaningful curriculum and meaningful delivery for the era. While the Advisory Group of 1998 would have frowned on Madeley's scepticism over political history, it is not difficult to see the similarities between some of its recommendations and the general theme of Madeley's programme. The part played by history as a tool for delivering citizenship ideals remains a topical one. As such, it is

not surprising that I chose to focus on this as part of the research project with which I engaged. The impact of this strand of my research can be read in Chapter Four.

While the Hadow Report of 1926 acknowledged the need for education to respond to environmental influences, the debate over whether the development of civic awareness and responsibility should be conducted directly through its own curriculum area or indirectly through other subjects continued unabated; such conflict rendering impossible the development of the state of critical mass of system components necessary for effective educational change, as mooted by Ellsworth (2000). Leading the vanguard for direct delivery, with Lord Hadow as its president, was the Association for Education in Citizenship (AEC) which emerged in 1934 but which saw little support for its suggestions in the Spens Report of 1938 and Norwood Report of 1943; moreover, the opportunity provided by the introduction of the 1944 Education Act to discuss the specifics of curriculum content was ignored. The AEC questioned the transferability of skills across the curriculum, fearing therefore that indirect teaching of citizenship through traditional subjects would have limited success. As mooted in Chapter One (p.12-13), curriculum innovation has emerged as a result of changes in ideology *at a given time*. While the AEC was symbolic of an organisation that foresaw the need for meaningful curriculum development within a citizenship perspective, the powers that raged against it were stronger. However, the reasons for the failure of the AEC are varied. Fears of bias – which also emerged as potential criticism of the current programme – played their part. While its rationale focused on the premise that the informed citizen was a democrat and political literacy was needed to ensure the survival of flagging democracies, its failure to promote the teaching of politics in schools was no doubt also due to more significant factors than its dichotomy of programme and aims. The wider political framework that was so pivotal in accounting for the decline in European democracies in the 1930s and the bigger picture that ensued until 1945 dwarfed such immediate goals. Moreover, in an era where the concept of ‘equality’ was tangibly more a word than a meaning in the experiences of so many sections of society, there must have been considerable discord over this. While it has become almost a clichéd expression to claim that citizenship is a contested concept, it seems reasonable to suggest that dissension over this concept must surely have contributed towards the fall of the AEC.

If hopes were raised by the publication of the Ministry of Education's pamphlet *Citizens Growing Up* in 1949, they were soon dashed since not only was it Victorian in its stance and offered no guidance to teachers trying to help their students through the real issues facing them, but it also remained the first and the last official publication for forty years (Heater, 2001). The drive towards change is fuelled by a perceived need for new development (Ely, 1990); a reluctance to change can also be experienced by a lack of perceived need. The latter seemed to be the case at a macro level within England, where the contentment of the 1950s and the hedonism of the 1960s seemed to remove the incentive for active political involvement on the part of the individual and this was likewise mirrored in the lack of attention paid to any agenda for citizenship education. The Schools Council, instituted in 1964 and charged with the task of recommending curriculum materials to schools, supported the general principle of political education (Schools Council, 1965: paras. 67-71) but provided little real support for schools wishing to engage with this. This was an opportunity missed since the ideals the Schools Council (1965, para. 68) seemed akin to those in the Crick Report, which were of course to be treated in a completely different manner. Once again, this reinforces the significance of the response of government as an agent of change within the curriculum at a given time.

In these years, some curriculum time was directed towards low achievers, e.g. 'social arithmetic' would enhance the school leaver's ability to deal with social security matters; by contrast a GCE course on the British Constitution was available for those schools that wished to direct its more academic teenagers thus (and respondents from Questionnaire Four of my research considered this GCE course to be beneficial to their understanding of politics), but on balance the profile was low. The Association for Teaching the Social Sciences increased the teaching of social sciences in some schools, but explicit teaching of citizenship issues continued to make little real progress and subject specialists in areas where aspects of citizenship education could have been piloted (e.g. history and geography) fought for the purity of their subjects within the control of the examination system. Moreover, when standpoints were made in the 1970s and 1980s over single issue campaigns that raised the profile of the need for social justice, their impact on the curriculum was slim, despite publications such as Pike and Selby's *Global Teacher, Global Learner* (1988) and later Hicks' *Educating for the*

*Future* (1994). Once again, lone voices received little attention when the prevailing climate was dictated by those who believed in a different emphasis.

Banathy (1992) has argued for systemic change in education when the existing model ceases to be effective. On a national scale in mid 20<sup>th</sup> century England, this concept was seen to have meaning since the general shaping of the time appeared to be demanding a revision of past structures. Once more, pressure groups emerged and grappled for attention. There was indeed a climate for change, but educational developments within the domain of citizenship education were not to evolve as smoothly as such groups would have liked. The Politics Association, founded in 1969, promulgated the need for political education through its own inception, through radio broadcasts in 1975-76 and through research programmes sponsored by the Hansard Society. Such efforts were without tangible impact. This exemplified how a pressure group that attempts to exert influence does not achieve success if the tensions impacting upon the innovation hold greater sway. Herbert Hyman suggests, 'Political education is not simply something on which all reasonable men agree as long as the specific programmes are properly formulated, but that rather it is within itself a political issue because it requires resources to operate, upsets established routines, and may change individual behaviour and thus influence ongoing patterns of social interaction' (1969, p.69). Hyman's reference to an innovation such as this being a 'political issue' has a chilling realism in the chequered progress towards the introduction of citizenship education. While any drive towards altering individual behaviour patterns and social interaction would conform to the understanding on citizenship education as defined by the prevalent groups impacting upon implementation, the groups themselves were torn by conflict. Moreover, the beliefs of the ruling political elite were to do much to reinforce past undertones of exclusivity.

As a result, attitudes to the development of education for citizenship remained much as they had been and in the domain of the individual rather than the State until the Swann Report of 1985, which highlighted the need for a curriculum embracing, from primary level, the need to learn about prejudice, to reflect on stereotypes and to explore as citizenship the human rights issue. Not everyone agreed that this was compatible with a good education, which was hardly surprising considering the negative undercurrents

permeating these years. What ensued was a vitriolic attack by an amalgam of lobby groups within the Conservative party who wished to promote both a consumerist and at the same time traditional approach to education. The strategy of this group, the New Right, was what Stephen Ball refers to as the discourse of derision. According to Ball, 'Power is invested in discourse, equally, discursive practices produce, maintain or play out power relations' (1990, p.17). New Right critiques of educational policy, which had begun in 1969 with the publication of the first Black Paper, launched a caustic attack on progressive and comprehensive education and in doing so undermined the efforts of those working towards innovative policy. The Hillgate Group, the Government think-upholding the views of Conservative PM Margaret Thatcher, furthered the drive towards a pedagogy that mirrored past values in a time of perceived current crisis. For example, its publication '*The Reform of British Education*' asserted that the Swann Report was symptomatic of the prevailing attempts 'to destroy altogether the basis of our national culture' (Hillgate 1987, p.4), while in its teacher-training pamphlet '*Learning to Teach*' racism was discussed in a section entitled *Irrelevance and Bias*, claiming, 'Attention paid both in schools and in educational courses to the politics of race, sex and class ... appears to stir up disaffection, to preach a spurious gospel of 'equality' and to subvert the entire traditional curriculum' (1989, p.5). The teaching of controversial issues would certainly not be tolerated lightly – as demonstrated by the introduction of Section 28 into the 1988 Local Government Act. (This contrasts sharply with Section 10 of the Crick Report which saw the educational value in teaching controversial issues.)

Documentation from both neo-conservative and neo-liberal writings in 1987 identified a common core of what was desirable in education and what was not. As noted by Ball (1990) tradition, cultural heritage, political unity, the family and accountability featured as sacred to the successful education of young people; multiculturalism, new subjects, a politicised curriculum and Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) were profane - the 'minimalism' of the National Curriculum Council's 1990 guidelines no doubt reflected this antipathy. Opponents to neo-liberalism saw England in the 1980s as a country wallowing in an inegalitarian cult of the self and interpreted the move towards citizenship education as an attempt to counter this. The Hillcole Group, founded in 1989 as a left wing counterweight to the Hillgate Group, challenged the ideology of the Hillgate Group and the influence that this group was having on educational policy.

Despite publishing five papers within its first year and being well-received by Labour in opposition, the prevalent climate was not conducive to its thinking, further evidence of the point made in Chapter One (p. 13) that the impact of pressure groups can be limited if they are not operating at a given time – even if their work was drawing the attention of the (then) opposition politician, David Blunkett.

Curriculum Guidance 8 (NCC, 1990) certainly seemed to draw attention to the role of the individual within the community and the concept of the active citizen was a prominent feature in the campaigning for the 1989 general election (which coincided with the preparation of Curriculum Guidance 8). The theme was highlighted in the Speaker's Commission of 1990 and later become part of John Major's rationale for 'active citizenship'. Nevertheless, Curriculum Guidance 8 was a disappointment to anyone who expected a framework for delivering citizenship education due to its permissive nature - little uptake was evidenced in schools by 1995, by which date a review led to the removal of citizenship and other cross-curricula themes. This adds credence to Fullan's assertion that 'what changes are presented, and how the government does this, have a major impact on the likelihood of success' (Fullan 1982, p.214).

As documented in Appendix 7, there is support for the study of history as a means by which community spirit can be engendered. One of the sub-questions of my research was an investigation into the extent to which history lessons could be adapted to provide a stimulus for a sense of responsibility towards others. The potential of delivering lessons in history as a means of contributing towards an understanding of citizenship education has already been noted in the writing of Madeley. It also surfaced - with another understanding - in the thinking of Secretary of State for Education, Sir Keith Joseph, during the era of the new 'racism' in the 1980s, focusing as it did on culture and identity. Neo-Conservatism found a bedrock of support in the shape of the Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, who, for example, claimed in 1979: 'People are really rather afraid that the country might be swamped by people of a different culture' (Thatcher in Hardy & Vieler-Porter 1990, p.196). It was no surprise, therefore, that the theme of national culture would find its way into the educational diet in a more structured form. Sir Keith Joseph announced to the Times Educational Supplement

(TES) that to ensure the safe delivery of public policy in the future, it was the duty of British people to ensure others in our society learnt and adhered to those values that constitute being British. This call for a common set of values gave new impetus to the study of history in schools. Again it was Sir Keith Joseph who, in 1984, saw the study of history as a means by which students could 'understand the development of the shared values which are a distinctive feature of British society and culture, and which continue to shape private attitudes and public policy' (Joseph, in TES, 17 February). In this way, Joseph was broadcasting his framework for the type of history education that he believed should shape the impact of future citizens upon society. If successful, such an approach risked developing the exclusivity of old.

The first real, albeit reluctant, indication of government recognition of the need for the introduction of a form of citizenship education within the school curriculum was not until the passing of the Education Reform Act in 1988. Since the Hillgate Group played no mean part in this policy reform, this is tantamount to admitting that any move towards citizenship education would be in keeping with their philosophy, rather than in line with the recommendations of the Swann Report. Citizenship education would therefore be de-politicised in favour of the desired status quo and exist as one of five cross-curricular themes. With the 'discourse of derision' raging and Labour councils under attack for subverting education with progressivism, Gus John, when Director of Education for Hackney, challenged this approach within the social and economic framework of the era and, in doing so, also challenged the claim by Duncan Graham, Chairman of the NCC, that education for citizenship would help each student to "understand the duties, responsibilities and rights of every citizen and promotes concern for the values by which a civilise society is identified - justice, democracy, respect for the rule of law" (in John, 1991). Drawing on his own experiences of inequality in Inner London, John failed to see how 'justice, democracy and respect for the law' could be understood by young people whom he considered were being treated as second class citizens themselves. For John, the prevalent ethos of the age favoured the achievement of the individual over and above the need for social justice and he therefore questioned how realistically Duncan Graham's claims were in a society that lauded the cult of the individual. The path to an inclusive programme of education in citizenship that would encourage young people to develop a sense of responsibility to others was still remote. The 1988 Education Act did not directly lead to the introduction of citizenship

education, but it certainly raised its profile as a potentially contentious subject for the curriculum.

Curriculum Guidance 8: The Whole Curriculum (NCC, 1990) and the five documents that followed ensured a place for some form of citizenship education in the future of English schools. It stated 'Education for Citizenship develops the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for exploring, making informed decisions about and exercising responsibilities and rights in a democratic society' (NCC, 1990: p.2). This was reinforced by the report of the Speaker's Commission on Citizenship (HMSO 1990), which also highlighted the need for community based learning for future adult life. However, Curriculum Guidance 8 was a disappointment to those who might have envisaged it as a step towards delivering a host of objectives labelled under the key terms of knowledge, skills, attitudes, codes and values. It lacked coherence (thereby validating Hargreaves' (1990) concerns), it lacked suitable in-service training on how to integrate citizenship into the curriculum and it lacked ownership for citizenship. Despite the forward of Curriculum Guidance 8 claiming that 'education for citizenship is essential for every pupil', the document was ambiguous in what it meant by this concept. Such vagueness, however, did not stop it from suggesting in section 3 that a possible study area could be 'the concept of citizenship - the duties, responsibilities and rights of individuals and societies' (NCC, 1990, p.3). The Secretary of State for Education in 1990, Mr. MacGregor, re-ordered this phrase from the original 'rights and duties' in accordance with his own interpretation of citizenship. In doing so he was no doubt emphasising the Government's belief in duty to the State. It was ironic that such an influential and authoritative document shrank from publicly establishing its own definition of a politically and educationally sensitive concept, but invited young people to do precisely this themselves.

Some might try to justify the lack of definition on the grounds that this document stated that it was not intended to be a dogma for schools to adhere to and that it reflects the contentious nature of citizenship. However, the project was inevitably diluted by its tendency to ignore theoretical or ideological conflicts. The arguments I posited in relation to this in my paper of 2001, still stand firm. 'The eight components of Curriculum Guidance 8, so vital that they all needed attention, ran the risk of swamping

specificity. The intention to de-politicise the content - noble though this may have been - removed the means by which contentious issues such as the nature of 'active citizenship' could be debated. The whole *raison d'être* of the subject had been emasculated. Due to the general nature of the subject matter, perhaps Curriculum Guidance 8 would have been better entitled 'Education *about* Citizenship' rather than 'Education *for* Citizenship.' Moreover, since no tangible help was given to teachers destined to deliver a curriculum, which if done properly would indeed include contentious issues, then the chances of this being delivered appropriately were considerably reduced' (Allen, 2001). What was being mooted by the Government at this stage seemed little more than a furtherance of civics education, which the Politics Association had been criticising as inadequate since 1969. Once again, there surfaced one of the key factors Fullan lists as influencing implementation: in this case the nature of the innovation coupled with the impact of agencies external to the school system.

Carr and Hartnett (in Demaine and Entwistle 1996) explain this lack of clarity on the fact that the 'liberal democracy' we experience stems from differing political values and hence leads to tensions in interpretation. They saw the actions of the Conservatives in the 1980s as rejecting social citizenship on the grounds that it begets dependency, envisaging citizenship based upon popular capitalism and minimising its political element by virtue of the passive model it espoused. 'There has been no tradition within the English education system to take citizenship seriously, since education has long had separate institutions for leaders and led, and often separate curriculum, pedagogy and assessment for these groups' (1996, p.78). The Conservative Government, therefore, paved the way for a policy that was both widely contentious in principle and yet at the same time narrowly developed in practice.

Meanwhile, movements pressurised for a more active approach to understanding citizenship issues within schools. In 1989 the Citizenship Foundation was institutionalised, following a scheme piloted between the Law Society and the National Curriculum Council in which resources were produced that educated students in the role of the law as well as in their legal rights and responsibilities. The nature of these materials, which encouraged knowledge and understanding, critical thinking and discussion were based on some of the key concepts that would later feature as essential

elements within the Crick Report (power and authority; justice and law; rights and responsibilities). The introduction of citizenship education into the National Curriculum was in part due to the lobbying of pressure groups such as the Citizenship Foundation. The Institute for Citizenship, inaugurated in 1992, likewise encouraged the production of educational resources that would enhance active democratic participation. It drew upon – and continues to draw upon – a wide range of sponsors sympathetic to its cause.

Market and Opinion Research International (MORI) reports indicated public support for enhancing citizenship, but despite some attempts by Conservative politicians such as Michael Portillo and Peter Lilley to address issues of social inclusion, grass-roots Conservatives did not seem ready to embrace this. 1993 saw the creation of the think-tank, Demos; one of its co-founders, Geoff Mulgan, was later to emerge as the director of Mr Blair's Strategy Unit. It is therefore highly significant that among the plethora of issues produced by Demos was a recommendation for citizenship based on participation and social inclusion, symbolising a transition from the accepted view of citizenship previously defined by T.H. Marshall. A Demos publication partly authored by Geoff Mulgan, *'Freedom's Children: work, relationships and politics for 18-34 year olds in Britain today'* (Wilkinson and Mulgan, 1995), not only called for a centrally-organised teaching of citizenship education to offset the ignorance and apathy it witnessed in young people, but was sufficiently influential to be quoted in the Crick Report (QCA, 1998, p.16). Documents such as these helped to reinforce the perceived contemporary fears of young people's indifference to politics, and in an attempt to justify the alarm that this should engender statistics were seen as supporting evidence: the Crick Report, for example, used as evidence the results of a British Election Study that claimed 25% of 18-24 year olds declared that they would not vote in the 1992 general election; by 1997 that figure had increased to 32% (p.15). In the same year as New Labour stormed to power, within academia a new journal surfaced: *Citizenship Studies*. It seemed that, despite the inherited past, citizenship, as an active process within a changing world rather than as a passive concept, might begin to take shape and that citizenship education was fated to do likewise.

However, an approach perhaps being missed in these years was the extra-curricular activities of young people in the field of voluntary associations and campaigning.

While the conventional interpretation in the 1990s was that teenagers were socially problematic and that citizenship education was needed to rectify this, private commitment to alternative forms of training for citizenship was encouraging, if measured against rising membership in organisations such as Amnesty International and Community Service Volunteers (Roker *et al*, 1999). Even membership of Young Labour and Young Conservatives was increasing in the 1990s. A survey of 1160 teenagers aged 14-16 years, all attending English schools, led Roker *et al* to assert that ‘those young people involved in campaigning and volunteering experienced the development and crystallising of their views about party politics and issues and, in turn, were more likely to say they would vote’ (1999, p.195). This is interesting because not only does it add weight to the strand of community involvement within citizenship education, but it also acknowledges the part played by factors beyond the school gates. While the latter endorses the views of critics of the citizenship programme, such as Tooley, it also encourages discussion on the possibilities for schools to build on existing good practice, which clearly existed as an approach to citizenship education before the enactment of the Citizenship Orders.

Political socialisation is the process by which we learn our political values. These can be absorbed from a variety of stimuli and the early work of Herbert Hyman (1969) did much to highlight the part played in this by families and educational experiences. Whilst accepting that socialisation takes place in a number of situations, it is not difficult to see why school, as an agent of socialisation, could be interpreted as a facet central to this process. Prior to the advent of comprehensive education, its advocates claimed that the structure of British education reinforced the rule of the elite; that levels of political socialisation were deliberately shaped in accordance with the unequal opportunities that existed for the individuals concerned. Therefore, equality of opportunity through the ideals of comprehensive education would surely eradicate this criticism, laying bear the path to equal participation for all. Yet this must not have been the case, as witnessed by the rationale behind the Citizenship Orders a generation later. Egalitarians might try to counter this with the claim that the continued existence of public schools preserved that layer of elitism that has been at the heart of British politics, but this does not explain why after a generation of supposed equality within the state system no significant progress appeared to have been made in promoting political enthusiasm among the recipients. Political socialisation, supposedly caught implicitly

through exposure to the educational environment, rather than explicitly taught through formal lessons of political education, had not permeated the nation's teenagers as desired. Underpinning the Crick Report was a belief that schools could do more to contribute towards the political literacy and participation of their students. Since schools, as an implicit ideological forum for political socialisation, had clearly made insufficient success prior to 1998 in the eyes of the Advisory Group on Citizenship, it was deemed more appropriate to approach the problem explicitly and with a prescribed programme of study.

As the foregoing discussion has indicated, the evolution of citizenship education in England in the 20<sup>th</sup> century has been slow and indeed it continues to be fraught with tension. The path towards new approaches and the use of new materials lacked solid foundations; hence such a situation did not encourage schools to become agents of change in the name of citizenship education. It is not surprising that it is an innovation that has been viewed with both enthusiasm and apathy, since this is in keeping with the reaction to politics itself by varying groups within the population. This section has illustrated that tension exists where stakeholders hold differing interpretations of, or differing applications for, the concept. By consequence, attempts at innovation largely fell on stony ground, effecting no meaningful change. I have elected to discuss the development of citizenship education within England in the past century from this position, not only because of the way in which it shaped progress (or lack of it) but because the tensions that it identifies provide a climate for the research exercise that follows in the next chapter and contributes towards our understanding of the factors that impinge upon curriculum change; moreover, the focus on beliefs, approaches and materials dovetails both with the literature on curriculum change and the thrust of this research project. The Educational Reform Act afforded considerable status to the so-called 'core' and 'foundation' subjects when the National Curriculum was first introduced. Since this did little to enhance the standing of other curriculum initiatives, government action has been one reason why there was little school-based research into citizenship education prior to 2002.

## **2.5 Government influence as an agent of change: the Crick Report**

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) have emphasised that governments play a pivotal role in introducing educational change, while at the same time exercising debatable impact over the execution of this change. This factor resonates not only with the manner in which citizenship education became an explicit item on the agenda of English schools but also, as evidenced in my research project, on the way in which the initiative unfolded within Meadowvale High. With the eclipse of the Conservative government in 1997 and a mandate to govern given to New Labour, it was inevitable that some new slant would be placed on the citizenship agenda. Nevertheless, the Hillcole Group which had been advising Old Labour on education policy in the years leading up to 1994 was not to enjoy such a relationship with New Labour, which looked to David Blunkett as its educational spokesman. Mr. Blunkett's appointment as Minister of Education in 1997 was instrumental in the ultimate shaping of citizenship education in England, for it was his decision to subsequently appoint as Chair of the Advisory Group on citizenship education his former mentor from his undergraduate days at the University of Sheffield, Professor Crick (now Sir). We have already identified Crick as a member of the Politics Association and as such an advocate for active citizenship, rather than passive citizenship. Clearly the appointment of Crick as Chair of the Advisory Group offered the opportunity to forward this belief. This section considers the extent to which the Crick Report can be interpreted as a document of innovative change in the field of citizenship education, offering the possibility of a meaningful education in citizenship to young people. As part of my research exercise, KS3 and KS4 students in my school completed questionnaires to gauge their perceptions of the value of the learning outcomes raised in the Citizenship Orders. The discussion below therefore provides a framework for this aspect of my research.

In the Speaker's Forward to the Crick Report, the Rt. Hon. Betty Boothroyd justified the decisions of the Advisory Group on the grounds that the demise of citizenship as a subject in schools had become 'a blot on the landscape of public life for too long, with unfortunate consequences for the future of our democratic process' (QCA, 1998, p.3). The Advisory Group aimed to transform the political culture of the country by the introduction of citizenship education. In keeping with its terms of reference, its specific expectations were to breathe new life into young people through political literacy

(thereby enhancing understanding of political processes and with this, democracy), to educate young people in social and moral responsibility (thereby ensuring knowledge of the moral principles needed for a successful democratic society) and to promote community involvement (thereby replacing the Conservative '*I*' of the 1980s with the New Labour '*we*' of the 1990s and embracing a communitarian ideology of the type spearheaded by the American sociologist Amitai Etzioni). In this way it anticipated young people who received such an education would impact more positively on the lives of others.

Communitarian thinking had already been challenged in 1996 by Jack Demaine on the grounds it was retrospective and, as such, did not deal with the problems of the current age. Poverty (and inequality), the demise of heavy industry in the UK and the unemployment that this has led to are all real problems that have permeated society for a number of years. It is hardly surprising that such dilemmas result in disaffection and that such young people are reluctant to take selfless action to improve the lives of others; it is also hardly unreasonable to expect a government to remedy these grievances. During the Thatcher years such decline was not interpreted as simply an economic problem, but as a political and moral one also: politically, erosion of our collective national identity by increasing multiculturalism was at fault; morally, we had abandoned our sense of self-reliance and replaced it with state dependence. Such thinking paved the way for the Conservative Government to focus responsibility on the role of the traditional family as the bedrock of values and reform. The fact that the concept of 'family' was increasingly fluid in these years could contribute towards the need for New Labour to approach the problem from a different angle. Social issues demand the adoption of a political ideology, but perhaps expecting to approach this through a form of communitarianism whose heyday belonged to a different generation is unrealistic. Couple these with the effects of a changing world, where boundaries continue to blur and loyalties with them, retrospective thinking is perhaps not the best path forward. However, one aspect of this research project was seen to highlight that the impact of forms of community involvement conducive to the expanding boundaries of the new century can be very positive; while another branch of this research reinforced the impact of families, contrary to modern concerns.

It would be unfair to assert that the Labour Government was unaware of the changing world that surrounded it when it endorsed an ideology based on communitarian ideology. Indeed, the influence of Anthony Giddens was pivotal in creating the Third Way, so famously championed by Mr. Blair. While in years previous the New Right had recognised a move towards a multicultural society that it wished to curtail by its words and actions, the Third Way recognised the move towards an individualised society and provided the framework for a social contract linking the rights of individuals with their responsibilities to the wider community. A neo-liberal social-economic policy, the Third Way has been lauded by New Labour as an alternative to the free-market capitalism of the Thatcher years, although it appears as an amalgam into centre left policies of the economic deregulations of Thatcherism and globalisation. It might seem reasonable that education should play a part in promoting this; but what is less easy to accept, however, is any view that education could act as a panacea for the ills of society (both national and international). Moreover, shifting the responsibility away from central government to local communities and the individuals within these, appears at best naïve and at worst irresponsible.

Key elements of citizenship awareness highlighted in the Crick Report were the knowledge and understanding of ‘topical and contemporary issues and events ... the nature of democratic communities ... *dissent and social conflict* ... Britain’s parliamentary political and legal systems ... the rights and responsibilities of citizens as consumers, employees, employers ...’ (QCA, 1998, p.44; *my italics*). If this is successfully promulgated, what will be the result? The 19<sup>th</sup> century saw the need to educate the masses in England to keep pace with other countries and to appease fears of possible revolution. The 20<sup>th</sup> century ended with this invitation to allow the masses to gain a heightened awareness of their own misfortunes, by bringing to the educational table a meal of *dissent and social conflict* for digestion – or indigestion. In encouraging students to discuss such problems head-on (and presumably wanting its initiative to be successful), the Government could not surely be accused of trying to use citizenship education to bolster support for itself; or could it? Difficult problems do not lend themselves to easy solutions. Should students discover this for themselves, would such enlightenment make them less critical of governments who fail to find solutions either?

Alternatively, what if this heightened awareness leads to increased voice? In theory this is the intended end result of this initiative and could be a step towards young people making a difference to the lives of others. Will this bring about the proposed climate change among the young? *Dissent and social conflict* can be a feature within schools themselves and among its students. In attempting to engage pupils with these concepts, was the Government exercising the maxim: *Physician, heal thyself*? Yet, when young people are truly disaffected this often extends to disaffection with school as well as with other aspects of their life. This being the case, formal education is perhaps not the best medium in which to attempt to rectify this. Is informal education a better alternative for such people? In 2000, James Tooley supported this option when he questioned the need for State intervention and suggested there should be more research done into the contribution of local initiatives to the development of citizenship. Research focusing on a socially deprived region in East Cleveland (Lee, 2005), indicated that even when attempts were made to give young people a voice within a forum that did not necessitate them conforming to school, the results implied there was more to be gained by these people grasping some sense of identity, rather than promoting their skills in political literacy. This example therefore brings us back to an earlier point: namely that the onus for solving societal problems that trace their origin to economic deprivation is a remit of government, not of the individual – even in a society that is moving towards rapid individualisation.

It is a characteristic of the teenage years that young people search within themselves for their own identity; to provide structures that support this is therefore a valuable asset, but to expect political socialisation to take place as well is perhaps over zealous, as the example in East Cleveland indicated. By contrast, however, issues of identity could – if this were deemed desirable – be used as a means to an end. In other words, by raising awareness to the dimensions of identity in a changing world individuals might be helped along the road to establishing their own identity; citizenship education could clarify the path towards political education by laying bare the layers of citizenship held by its members, which in turn might increase political socialisation. Perhaps Furlong and Cartmel (1997) are correct when they criticise attempts to encourage young people to have a voice as an epistemological fallacy, on the grounds that in truth they are not fully integrated into society in terms of citizenship. Pseudo-citizenship for the young is not new: consider as examples the use of youth parliaments in the 1950s, the brief

encounter with county-based youth councils in the 1980s; moreover the use of school councils and other forms of student voice in schools has been gathering momentum for many years. To date, the success of such initiatives nationwide has been limited. While the explanations for restricted success are varied and therefore do not necessarily lend themselves to generalisation, the limitations of youth power cannot be denied, nor can the tensions inherent in schools that endeavour to marry two potentially polarised ideals: schools as tools for development (and liberation) of the individual mind while retaining their role as tools of social control.

Unlike its predecessor Curriculum Guidance 8, the Crick Report was very clear on what it meant by citizenship education, but it was not without its critics as the special edition on the Curriculum Journal in spring 2000 was keen to point out. While John Morgan worried about the lack of a coherent policy of assessment (an issue that also emerged from discussions with the interviewees of my research), James Arthur and Jon Davison feared that the learning outcomes for Key Stages 3 and 4 as outlined in the Crick Report (QCA, 1998, p.44) and indicated in Appendix 1, were so specific that these seemed unlikely bedfellows for the freedom of pedagogical style that was to be the privilege of the teacher. While the Advisory Group was keen to highlight that it had not been their remit to define pedagogy, the task of delivering educationally sensitive issues without a supporting network made the challenge to the teacher all the more daunting. The Crick Report openly stated (p.10) that it drew from the conception of citizenship as defined by T. H. Marshall (1950) but that it wished to put greater stress on the balance between rights and responsibilities, as well as what people can do for each other. Despite this, Arthur and Davison (2000) asserted that attempts to develop social literacy were skewed by the emphasis placed on political literacy.

The 'values to individuals and to society of community activity' have been quoted above as part of the terms of reference for the Advisory Group in 1998 and the British Government itself in the same year described values and principles as 'decency, social justice, reward for hard work, the importance of strong commitment and families, and rights being matched with responsibilities' (in Starkey, 2000). Nevertheless, Hugh Starkey felt that this report did not emphasise values sufficiently strongly to encourage success with the initiative. Opportunities existed, Starkey contended, to reinforce

human rights under the umbrella of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and the European Convention, both of which were incorporated into UK legislation in 1998. I took heed of this advice when delivering citizenship education as a discrete subject, and was pleased with the way in which students responded to a programme of study that was underpinned by this document. Students confident in the details of such a document are more empowered to speak up for those who are denied its rights – as I witnessed once citizenship education received explicit provision in Meadowvale High.

It is appropriate at this juncture to suggest a potential comparison between the undertones of the Crick Report and those of a publication by the Conservative Hillgate Group. In musing over the wording within ‘The Reform of British Education’ (Hillgate, 1987) it would seem that the group baulked at the prospect of schools embracing multicultural education, despite claiming that the ‘Government must face up to the challenge thrown down by the multicultural lobby’ (page 4). The true colours of Hillgate thinking were clarified later in the same paragraph with the words, ‘...Nothing is more important, in the present period of our history, to *reconcile our minorities*, to integrate them into the national culture, and to ensure a common political culture, independent of race, creed or colour. Not every national culture can breed such a loyalty’ (my italics). Perhaps we should not interpret in such words a supposed hint of superiority rather than a wish for equality; although it is easy to do so; nevertheless it does seem sadly akin to the concept of the ‘melting pot’ in 20<sup>th</sup> century US history which held a somewhat paradoxical meaning to those who did not conform to the prevalent culture. Likewise, Audrey Osler (2000) lamented the lack of commitment the Crick Report showed for anti-racism – and in fact suggested that wording within this report could unwittingly encourage racism: ‘Majorities must respect, understand and tolerate minorities, and minorities must learn and respect the laws, codes and conventions as much as the majorities’ (QCA, 1998, p.17-18).

This chapter has already signalled that a citizenship education programme that reinforces perceptions of exclusivity is inappropriate; the statement above endorses this further. It would surely be difficult for young people to make a positive difference to the lives of others if they grew up believing that ‘tolerance’ was all that was necessary in their relationships with other people. There exists an uncomfortable similarity

between the tones of this statement in the Crick Report and that of those highlighted earlier from Sir Keith Joseph, which is disturbing: both the Conservative philosophy of the 1980s with its fear of alien threats and the implied endorsement of superior nationalism in the Crick Report by New Labour seem to imply a shared sentiment. As long as racism is a feature of society, equality cannot exist; without a programme of study emphatic in human rights, Osler contends that democratic institutions will lack the strength for which they crave. It might be the case that Osler has been over-critical of the wording used in this report, if we accept Crick's defence that 'it is a flexible Order...with plenty of room in it for human rights, global citizenship and race relations programmes' (Crick, 2000), but there is also a case for accepting that subliminal messages were possible. Mark Olssen (2004) suggests that an amalgamation of the strengths of the Crick Report with the concepts of the Parekh Report of 2000 offered a better opportunity for the development of citizenship education in England.

However, as raised in the previous section, having had personal experience of using the first wave of literature produced for dissemination in schools delivering citizenship education at Key Stage 3 (e.g. Fiehn, T. and Fiehn, J. 2002 and Jerome, L. *et al* 2002) I can verify that it was possible to teach citizenship without any due regard for issues of multiculturalism. Thus, it would seem, that key school resources produced in the wake of both the Crick Report and the Parekh Commission have not lived up to the expectations for which some might have hoped. Unlike Curriculum Guidance 8, the Crick Report of 1998 was quite precise in defining what effective education for citizenship was: 'So our understanding of citizenship education in a parliamentary democracy finds three heads on one body: *social and moral responsibility, community involvement* and *political literacy*.' (QCA, 1998, p.13) The first strand is seen as a prerequisite for citizenship, whilst the other two strands are developmental through schooling from the age five to sixteen. It was the introduction of this third strand, political literacy that singled this document out so dramatically from its Conservative precursor, and it was in this component that the hope for the purging of political apathy was embedded.

In Curriculum Guidance 8 the community featured as the first strand of the knowledge objectives, reflecting the need for a whole school approach to citizenship education.

While this has its merits, it also contains suggestions of politicisation, as indeed the whole concept of citizenship education has been interpreted by observers, not least by the right wing James Tooley in the early years of New Labour. Tooley found unsettling elements of politicisation in the Crick Report in the use of key terms such as ‘prejudice, xenophobia, discrimination and pluralism’ – examples he asserted were of a potentially left wing agenda at Key Stage 3. He believed the teaching of ‘famine, disease, charity, aid and human rights’ (Tooley 2000, p.145) could be a platform for the teaching of anti-capitalism. Such claims seem extreme, but they do illustrate how heated the concept of citizenship education can be. To avoid teaching such themes would be an abrogation of responsibility of schools to society, regardless of any political underpinnings. The real issue is not the issues themselves but how these issues are taught. Perhaps in making these statements Tooley has forgotten that education for citizenship is concerned with educating pupils in a balanced way in the steps towards societal progress; if his philosophies are the correct one, then they should triumph in any discourse that result. Nevertheless, it would be wrong not to agree with him when he claims that the natural bias of teachers is likely to influence any proceedings, although his image of a left-wing plot rotting the minds of the young in the name of citizenship education seems somewhat perverse. The 1996 Education Act already dictated against partisanship and section 10 of the Crick Report is quite emphatic about the need to confront controversial issues and deal with them openly.

It is difficult to accept many of the criticisms of Tooley when the purpose behind writing ‘*Reclaiming Education*’ was to uphold the right of market forces in education and remove schools from the intervention of the State. Such a *raison d’être* would find it difficult to uphold the latest mandatory curriculum initiative presented to schools by the prevailing (Labour) government. His right wing attack mirrors the accusations against change that had been highlighted by Hillgate members in years prior to him, thereby presenting an updated version of the ‘discourse of derision’. Although it is possible for ideological biases to control processes of learning, as suggested by Tooley (and clearly his own ideological biases influenced his own writing) bias, when publicly declared and open to scrutiny, can be an educative device; I see Tooley therefore as overreacting to the elements suggested for the teaching of citizenship education. It is interesting that he has such blind faith in *ad hoc* measures such as the Internet as tools for citizenship education, failing to see how such *ad hoc* measures themselves could be

the source of the very misinterpretation and bias that he claims would be received within schools.

This is not to imply that Tooley's work on this subject is invalid for there are also a number of valuable observations. I believe he is correct in his assertion that the basic principle for the introduction of citizenship education was an attempt at political socialisation *per se* – as demonstrated by the evidence that I have offered for the thinking behind both the Conservative and Labour initiatives. Since the initiative for citizenship education was not carefully piloted up and down the country prior to introduction, Tooley is correct in claiming that the Advisory Group lacked evidence to prove that such an initiative would improve people's attitudes towards citizenship. He is right to question the link between young people's reluctance to engage in voting and the lack of a policy for citizenship education - inadequate schooling of this type does not have to be the cause of the Crick Report's references to anti-social behaviour among adolescents. There is a values-based agenda here for which some responsibility could just as readily lie with factors of personal socialisation moulded in the home (as findings from this research will support); alternatively – or indeed additionally – responsibility could lie with inadequate government policies that ignore the needs of such adolescents, while sadly believing that they are meeting them. This links seamlessly with Tooley's reference to the lack of trust in society's core institutions – claimed by the Crick Report as a significant reason for introducing citizenship education - and his suggestion that the cause of such distrust should be addressed.

Basil Bernstein certainly saw schools as a social structure for shaping attitudes: 'What the school does, its rituals, its ceremonies, its authority relations, its stratifications, its procedures for learning, its incentives, its rewards and punishments .... can modify or change the pupil's role as this has initially been shaped by the family.' (1972, p.48-49) Moreover, there is evidence to support this in the findings of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) in 2001, which noted a positive correlation between democratic participation and school-based programmes of civic education. Yet, as an agent of socialisation it cannot automatically be expected to outstrip the impact of other forces, especially when other pull and push factors predominate. Furthermore, there are those who assert that while school is one among a

number of variables shaping the person, its role – alongside that of these other factors – has been misguided by the citizenship curriculum in that its driving force has been outcome based, working *on* students rather than *with* them. In such thinking lies a censure on the ideology underpinning this initiative, ‘We would claim that the aim of citizenship education has been quite simply to ‘manufacture’ or ‘engineer’ a particular species of citizen – furthermore, to measure the achievement of that aim against predetermined and taken-for-granted criteria of efficiency and effectiveness’ (Lawy and Biesta, 2006, p.46). Subsequent chapters will address the issue of the variables impinging upon socialisation, as well as considering the effectiveness of citizenship initiatives.

To summarise, in introducing the formal teaching of citizenship education the Labour Government has gone further than its Conservative predecessors, although the initial recommendations did not appear to meet the issue of multiculturalism (an apparent fear of the Conservatives) as directly as it could have, thereby limiting the potential for this subject to impact on society as widely as would be ideal. While there are theorists who firmly assert that formal education is an ideal medium in which to shape political literacy, there is also dissension over this. The resurgence of a doctrine of communitarian thinking together with a programme of political literacy, both underpinned by a sense of moral and social responsibility, became the hallmark of the Citizenship Orders – a collective that will be assessed in the findings of this research exercise, together with the comments of my students who also expressed their varying standpoints on the programme of study suggested by the Government. The discussions in this section are germane to this enquiry because they highlight the differing interpretations of interested parties which, when placed alongside the viewpoints garnered in this research study, help to explain the difficulty in trying to establish, without censure, a curriculum in citizenship education.

## **2.6 An overview of the wider picture**

Since the introduction of citizenship education at Meadowvale High proved to be less than smooth, this section will provide an overview of responses to this area of curriculum development elsewhere in England both before and after its introduction, as well as reviewing attitudes within Europe and the wider world. This is justifiable

because 'comparative education can claim to be one useful tool towards a better understanding of the educational process in general and one's own system in particular. At this time when the global world is in such a flux, this is a claim of no little importance' (Grant, 2000, p.309). Comparative studies offer the possibility of borrowing ideas, providing frameworks for analysis and even being a tool in the shaping of educational policy. Although it would be dangerous to attempt to draw definitive comparisons from such an overview since the geographical, historical and ideological differences within such a study are so varied, this section is intended to provide a framework against which developments in England can be contextualised. However, studies in comparative education carry with them certain caveats. Education in different countries – and this section will demonstrate that this also includes *citizenship* education – varies in its aims, criteria and operational conditions. It is therefore imperative that systems are studied as wholes and also in their own contexts, rather than search for generalisations. Where generalisations might be possible, qualifications will also exist. Failure to relate to such needs can lead to misunderstanding of both the practices abroad and the system at home. Researchers in this field must therefore be prepared to embark on a process of self-discovery and challenge their own assumptions. This has been demonstrated by the research of Liviu Popoviciu (2005) who used comparative study as a research method to identify how children conceptualise national identity. He became very aware of the dangers of assuming that a common framework would help him understand conceptualisations of identity, for the picture proved to be far more nuanced than he originally anticipated.

England was not alone in being concerned about the nature of civic engagement by young people at the end of the last century. The ideological, historical and geographical changes that swept across parts of Europe in the last decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century have painted a double-sided image: support for strengthened democracy and democratic processes on the one hand and declining commitment in established European democracies on the other. Moreover, this image exists against a background of pessimism over civic engagement in the USA, as mooted by Putnam, and one of uncertain relationship between state and citizenship in nations as far apart as Canada and Australia (perhaps raising questions over the nature of the bonds formed in immigration-based societies). These developments coexist beside a growing interest among governments to become increasingly involved in the nature of the education of

their young people, together with renewed zeal for the potential offered by a programme of civic education (to use the American terminology) or citizenship education (the English variant). Moreover, these movements grew alongside the presence of, and pressure from, the United Nations Decade of Human Rights (1995-2004).

In considering attitudes towards citizenship education, European research has highlighted similarities and differences of style and intention. Naval *et al* (2002) contrasted the divergent approaches of Spain and England, the curriculum of the former focusing on civic and moral education (CME) and the values that should impact from this rather than on the concept of the knowledgeable, active English citizen encouraged by the aims and objectives of the citizenship curriculum. 'While politicians and bureaucrats encouraged CME through legislative reform, little evidence exists of support for curriculum presence and subsequent implementation' writes Naval *et al* (2002, p.123) with reference to Spain. Equally negative similarities sadly exist with the evolving impact of citizenship education in some schools in the UK. The second annual report on the progress of citizenship education in England between 2002 and 2003, published by the National Foundation for Educational Research, identified 41 schools out of a sample of 84 that were characterised as either merely minimalist in their approach to implementing the citizenship curriculum or implicit. (By minimalist, a limited range of approaches were seen in schools that were not deemed to be democratic; in implicit schools, democracy was evident but limited in terms of application.)

Such a situation draws us back to Fullan's factors impacting upon implementation; in this case, the emphasis could well lie with characteristics at school level. In 71% of the schools participating in this NFER research, citizenship education was delivered within the remit of assemblies or through Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE). Yet PSHE is an area that by definition focuses on the self, while citizenship education focuses on our relationship with others. Lessons that present such dichotomous dilemmas must surely be at an immediate disadvantage, especially when it is easier for young people to think about the needs of self before the needs of others. On 17<sup>th</sup> January 2005 David Bell, at that time Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools, admitted in a lecture to the Hansard Society that inspections by the Office for Standards

in Education (Ofsted) had shown that citizenship education was the worst taught subject in the curriculum. While this might well be attributable to the newness of the subject together with the inexperience of the staff chosen (cajoled or forced) to deliver it, the report did also indicate that where citizenship was married with PSHE it was at its worst. Another possible cause of this minimalism could be the fact that not all the schools of this research exercise had at this stage appointed a citizenship coordinator. In 87% of the cases where this had been done the appointment was internal with only 24% of coordinators being members of the senior management team. This, coupled with the discrepancies noted between senior staff and other teaching staff on interpretations of their school's delivery of citizenship (with senior staff holding more positive perceptions), adds credence to the case that commitment in certain schools was probably less well led and supported than it could have been.

In searching for a programme of study that has meaning for the current century the American academic, Parker (2001), has claimed that common ground can be found in education in political engagement (e.g. participating in voting) and democratic enlightenment (e.g. cognisance of and commitment to the ideals of democracy). Ironically, the USA is weak in implementing any programme of development or understanding in it. Whilst this might be partially attributed to the lack of federal control over education and the notorious history of citizenship deprivation that sullies the annals of the many American states involved in this, it might also be attributed to the American interpretation of the term 'democratic citizen', which is both demanding and constricting. This is defined by Parker as 'a citizen who is informed through liberal studies and experience, is skilled in the arts and procedures of policy making, is committed to democratic ideals (e.g. justice, equality, liberty, limited government) and is disposed to participate in democratic public life' (in Cogan and Derricott, p. 80). The demands on such a person are not at all slight; moreover, such a definition ignores any recognition of cultural diversity, a key feature of American society despite its long tradition of not recognising this fact. A lack of mutual respect within a segmented society can hardly breed healthy, democratic citizenship or a meaningful, holistic programme for citizenship education. Additionally, those who are in the greatest need of accessing from American society the benefits that can be gained from enhanced civic knowledge, understanding and skills are the very people who are in the least likely position to acquire them. In this example, the characteristics of the innovation itself, in

light of its contextual background, could appear to be a key factor in shaping future implementation.

Civic knowledge, skills and values have increasingly gained consensus as key principles of citizenship education, but have received a mixed reception across the globe. This tripartite model of knowledge, skills and values has featured in various guises and with equally various effects within western democracies such as Britain, the USA, Canada and Australia, has gained appeal in the new democracies of Poland, Hungary and some Baltic states, and has grappled for support elsewhere. In an attempt to gauge attitudes to and knowledge of the concept of citizenship, the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) embarked upon an international survey led by Torney-Purta *et al* (2001) of 90,000 14-year olds across 28 countries, the findings of which were published a year before the introduction of citizenship education in England. The findings of this IEA survey suggested that most 14 year olds expect to vote in elections when eligible, but do not intend to engage in other forms of conventional political participation. It also threw up potential anomalies in its findings; for example, the attitudes of pupils in the South American countries of Chile and Columbia were highly positive towards issues political although their civic knowledge and skills were low – an observation that begs identification of other stimuli.

While England was one of the countries that participated in this survey, she was the only country in which there was, at the time of this survey, no formal teaching of civic or citizenship education - a factor that had the potential to skew any international comparisons elicited from the results. Nevertheless, the data spawned were interesting all the same. England fared above the international mean in civic skills, but when this was placed alongside civic content to create a balance on the findings on total civic knowledge, England was ranked in the middle band of ten countries with scores close to the international average. Midway, not at the end of the scale - surely this raises questions about a number of factors, not least the success of provision in countries that fared equally or below that of England? If we were to accept the hypothesis that the need for the introduction of citizenship education in England was justified, then this would imply that concern over its delivery in a number of other countries was also justified. The English sample was ranked below the international mean for attitudes

relating to conventional citizenship (such as voting, political affiliation and interest in political affairs). Such findings were useful in endorsing the view of proponents for statutory citizenship education in this country. They also help to validate my decision to probe in depth possible approaches to deliver this innovation, rather than accepting it at face value.

There was, to some extent, support for the data produced in the IEA research in the earlier findings of Carole Hahn (1999) whose survey of students across six countries (England, the Netherlands, Denmark, Germany, Australia and the USA) placed attitudes towards citizenship education in Denmark and the USA in a more positive light than those in England. Yet, despite her enthusiasm for educational approaches to citizenship education in Denmark, this country ranked 18<sup>th</sup> out of 28<sup>th</sup> in the table of total civic knowledge scores produced by the IEA survey. First in this list was Poland – a nation whose national identity since 1980 has been proudly transformed by the action of her own people. Perhaps this could partially account for the positive attitudes of young people in Poland towards citizenship issues. Certainly it would be too simplistic to attribute this factor as the sole reason for such a result. The IEA researchers themselves remained perplexed by the inconsistency of some of their results – while civic knowledge was high in the post-Communist countries of Poland and the Czech and Slovak Republics, this pattern was not replicated in Romania, Estonia, Latvia or Lithuania. Similarly, such variances existed within long-standing democracies. At what point does social or political discontent breed disinterest in the political system deemed responsible for it, and at what point does it thrust individuals into action? One of the findings of the IEA research was that, in almost all nations in the sample, civic knowledge was greater in students who came from homes with more books. While the presence of books in a home does not necessarily imply that students read, understand or are motivated by them, they do represent a certain culture in a home and, by consequence, raise potential links between cultural capital and citizenship. The role of capital is an issue that will be further discussed in the research findings of this thesis.

While the findings of Torney-Purta *et al* seemed to confirm that the attitudes of young people towards citizenship-related issues were at best ambivalent, and strengthened the case for a reappraisal by the participating nations of their provision of citizenship

education, perhaps the attitudes of young people can be linked to post-modern attitudes, as suggested by Eduardo Terren (2002). Terren asserts that there are challenges in trying to promote democratic education in a world in crisis over traditional past values (by this he means the security and identity to be gained from employment). Beck (1992) and Giddens (2002) would translate this as being part of the risk society that they believe has reshaped our world. If Terren is correct in asserting that employment shapes people's identities, then the insecurity that is now a feature in this could indeed lead to the de-motivated citizenship. Putnam would view employment as a source of social capital, and this thesis will assert that those rich in capital have more opportunity to be active citizens than those who are not.

Surviving within the so-called 'risk' society of the current age raises questions of trust. If the individual should no longer depend upon others but revert to self-reliance (as encouraged in the UK in the Thatcherite years), if the individual can no longer expect a security provided by government policies, then it is hardly surprising that levels of trust decline. Only eight out of the total of twenty-eight countries surveyed by the IEA in 1999 emerged with a mean significantly higher than the international mean with respect to trust in government-related institutions – with political parties faring the worst within this sector. It is easy to understand the reluctance of teenagers to become smitten with a theme of political literacy if they have little trust in its key players. Couple this with the ongoing re-interpretations of what is meant by sovereignty and nationhood in many countries of the world, and the seeds of doubt and insecurity continue to grow.

Attempts to inculcate support for forms of civic participation into young Americans have been seen in the move towards service learning – community service projects that are connected to the school curriculum. While students seem to profit from these activities in terms of personal development (e.g. cognitive understanding and lasting empathy for the values of service), the impact on later political responsibility is seen to be less clear (Perry and Katula, 2001). This is hardly surprising if the current trend for lack of trust in senior political organisations continues. Putnam quotes lack of trust in the American government rising from 30% in 1966 to 75% by 1992 (Putnam 1995), the findings on 'trust' from the IEA survey of 1999 have already been noted, disaffection with politics among young people across eight countries is tabulated by Eduardo Terren

(2002) and the 2003-2004 research findings from this thesis will later support this claim also.

It is important to stress, however, that lack of trust in the key organs of governments in countries across the world does not by definition mean a lack of trust in democracy itself. Young people might be growing up apathetic to traditional high politics, but they might still respect the principle of a democratic culture. If we accept that a democratic education encourages freedom of expression, inclusion and rational argument, then perhaps many countries are engaging in democratic education rather than education for citizenship and deserve recognition for this. Political apathy is a barrier to democratic education, however, in that it is likely to dictate against involvement in school and other areas of engagement, as famously expounded by Robert Putnam (1995) with reference to the USA. However, the possible implications, if justified, lend themselves to problems in less well-established democracies, e.g. Portugal and Spain, where social networks have had less time to become embedded into the society of those nations.

The evolving formalisation of citizenship education in England has already been seen to serve policy interests of incumbent administrations, and the wider picture is not very different, although the concept of citizenship education in many countries within the African continent is an anathema, while in South Africa, which is markedly different from the rest of the continent, the challenges continue. Nine international case studies presented by Cogan and Derricott (2000) highlight both common and individual problems among a range of nations facing the challenge of implementing a meaningful programme of citizenship education suitable for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. There is not a neat divide of east-west, European versus non-European or even old democracy versus new. Efforts to develop a European vision of citizenship seem to have a sliding scale of enthusiasm, with England less zealous than some of her continental neighbours. The policy makers in Europe and North America seem to interpret meaningful citizenship education as one that will engender national loyalty while the thinking of their educationalists focuses on modes of delivery that will raise thinking levels, understanding and tolerance. Within the Asian sphere, there is a body of support inside Japan that sees citizenship as little more than a tool towards establishing national identity over pervading western influences (although this is not necessarily

representative). Despite the presence of courses in civics in Japanese high schools and ones in social studies in junior high schools, citizenship education has a low priority and an emphasis on memorising information rather than active involvement. By contrast, in Thailand, citizenship education is integrated across the curriculum in both a cognitive and affective manner and is seen as a meaningful way in which an education programme based on the principles of the rights and responsibilities of citizens can gain recognition.

Despite international differences, agreement existed across the case studies published by Cogan and Derricott for an education in citizenship that allows participation in real world issues coupled with knowledge of the political and social systems underpinning the student's country. The four-year research project that is at the heart of Cogan and Derricott's writing produced data from 182 policy shapers from Europe, Asia and North America. In considering citizenship education from the perspective of a new century, these respondents concurred on a number of strategies which, in their view, would be conducive to a form of citizenship education that would be meaningful – both in principle and in delivery. Interestingly, one of the key areas of reform emerging from this international research was consensus for an educational strategy that embedded an international component in teaching and learning; while a second was one that promoted community action. Both of these strategies resonate with the most positive findings of my own research. A meaningful education for citizenship in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, according to Kubow *et al* (in Cogan and Derricott, 2000, p.132), is one that equips a young person to be multidimensional within a global world. These dimensions should be personal, spatial, social and temporal; and in operating across them educational programmes would work towards empowering the individual with the following characteristics:

1. To look at and approach problems as a member of a global society.
2. To work with others in a cooperative way and to take responsibility for one's roles/duties within society.
3. To understand, accept, appreciate and tolerate cultural differences.
4. To think in a critical and systematic way.
5. To resolve conflict in a non-violent manner.

6. To change one's lifestyle and consumption habits to protect the environment.
7. To be sensitive towards others and to defend human rights.
8. To participate in politics at local, national and international levels.

A selection of findings from my own research, which demonstrated attitudinal change among some students at Meadowvale High, was sufficiently robust to stand alongside the first three of these characteristics.

To summarise, citizenship education has received a mixed reception from institutions beyond my own; moreover, progress has been inconsistent even in countries where frameworks for reform have been long established. Both of these observations provide a link between my own project and the wider picture. Variations exist and this is hardly surprising when wide geographical, historical and ideological backgrounds exist. While the existence of (and background to) the multiple realities that embody attitudes to citizenship education worldwide limit any attempt to identify a common framework of popular ideas, this does not mean that analysis is impossible in this field: the very existence of alternatives forces us to justify our own stance.

## **2.7 Summary**

In reviewing the literature associated with this project, I have adopted a fourfold approach. Firstly I attempted to address examples of literature associated with the development of curriculum innovations within schools. While much of the material found useful stemmed from North America rather than from Europe, the application of ideas raised among these researchers is highly germane, to the extent that I used the dimensions of change that feature in Fullan's discussions of effective implementation to shape the discussions I then raised over the chequered progress of citizenship education in England prior to 1998. Moreover, the overarching theme of these years was one where consensus was seen to be lacking; for this reason – coupled with the fact that my own research was to indicate that dissension on this subject did not disappear simply because a government ultimatum gave citizenship education its legitimacy – the impact of dissension has surfaced in detail in this chapter, and will re-surface within the conclusions emanating from the research itself. While the Advisory Group hoped to put into place opportunities for a meaningful delivery of citizenship education from their perspective, this chapter has indicated that others found the Crick Report wanting in a

number of ways, that these criticisms have been verified by my own experience of working with the resources published in the light of the Crick Report, and that developments in subsequent years, such as the Ajegbo Review have attempted to redress imbalances. This chapter has indicated that the search for a meaningful delivery of citizenship education over time has, in keeping with individual conceptions of it, been varied as well as having been applauded and criticised. It is not surprising, therefore, that my own search for meaningful delivery would mirror these reactions. Finally, I attempted to place the situation in England within an international context to provide elements of the bigger picture. In doing so it has been evident that the approaches to citizenship education in different countries demonstrate their own individualities and tensions. While this might provide some comfort for the tempests that continue to storm over the progress of citizenship education in England, it also reminds us of the inherent difficulties in trying to find links in the study of comparative education.

## Chapter 3 Methodology

### 3.1 Introduction

The main focus of this research was to explore perceptions of citizenship education, as delineated by the Crick Report, whilst tracking its developments between 2002 and 2006 in an English high school which, for the benefits of this discussion, has been named Meadowvale High. The research employed a mixed-methods approach, utilising findings from interviews, questionnaires and quasi-experimentation to identify both perceptions of citizenship education among its stakeholders and the impact of differing modes of delivery of citizenship education within the parameters of this school. This introduction attempts to provide an explanatory framework for the research strands adopted by offering an overview of the shifts in approach experienced within Meadowvale High between 2002 and 2006, and how these approaches helped to create a coherent project.

From 2002 to 2003 school management considered citizenship education to be a subject that should be coordinated across the curriculum but without a specific timetable slot to facilitate this. As its coordinator I worked with the support of an Assistant Headteacher in this initial year to assess the situation and develop appropriate strategies. After all, as discussed in Chapter Two, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) have emphasised that a need for change must be felt by those involved in educational change if an innovation is to be successful, so it was important to establish where change was warranted. As the Citizenship Coordinator, it was my responsibility to audit the position any education in citizenship might have within existing curriculum areas and develop the subject thereafter. Since citizenship education lacked discrete curriculum time, it was envisaged at this stage that Meadowvale High would utilise ‘citizenship days’, created from collapsing the timetable as required to deliver key elements of its programme. Within this year I also conducted interviews, quasi-experimentation and introduced a questionnaire survey instrument (*Questionnaire One* and *Questionnaire Two (a)* and *(b)*) – all of which were initiated to feed into the developing picture.

In the second year the Headteacher decided to allocate citizenship education its own discrete provision. This response resulted from the unwillingness of certain staff to participate in the delivery of ‘citizenship days’. This changed the status of citizenship

education from a coordinated subject to one embedded within the timetable of the humanities faculty; moreover, this shift in delivery allowed me to measure the impact of discrete provision of this subject among the students I taught (*Questionnaire Two (c) and (d)*) against earlier implicit delivery. I led a team of four members of staff (including a newly-appointed Head of Religious Studies) in the delivery of citizenship education as a discrete subject on the timetable to Year 9 students (272 students). The subject was allocated three half-term slots across the school year; the remaining weeks of the terms dedicated to religious studies. The Assistant Headteacher who had been involved in the first year of this innovation was no longer linked to it; in effect there was no input from the senior management team that year. Since at this stage discussion focused on the possibility of these Year 9 students working towards sitting a short-course GCSE in citizenship education and one in religious studies at the end of Year 11 (later rejected), I devised a programme of study for citizenship education that followed guidelines from the content specification from the Assessment and Qualifications Alliance (AQA) examination board. I also bore in mind the findings I had so far gathered from stakeholders who had completed *Questionnaire One* on the areas of citizenship education that were deemed the most significant to study.

In September 2004 I took up appointment as Head of Sixth Form within Meadowvale High. As a result, I relinquished my responsibility for leading the department of citizenship education, although I continued to teach on its programme for another year. The task of leading and managing this subject fell under the remit of the Head of Religious Studies, who taught on the programme alongside the same colleagues as in the previous year; in addition, a newly appointed Headteacher also elected to teach one Year 9 class. The subject was rolled out so that both Years 9 and 10 were involved and the programme of study adopted followed closely that which I had formulated the previous year. Meanwhile my research continued, using questionnaires as a tool to chart the developments that were unfolding as a consequence of Meadowvale High's commitment to global citizenship (*Questionnaire Three (a) and (b)*).

In the final year (2005-2006), citizenship education, religious education and PSHE shared a timetable slot for Years 9-11. By this stage my own teaching commitment to citizenship education had ended, but my research into it continued to probe the effects

of global community involvement among students (*Questionnaire Three (c)*). A timeline of the research process, alongside the concurrent developments within Meadowvale High, can be seen in Table 3.1.

A secondary focus of this research was to search beyond the case study to gauge some impression of the significance schools had previously played in successfully stimulating political socialisation in the lives of others. Findings emanating from the quasi-experimentation led to this initiative which then added to the big picture, providing enrichment to the main focus. This dimension, which employed a postal questionnaire survey of UK Members of Parliament (*Questionnaire Four*), was carried out and analysed between September 2003 and March 2004.

In my view, the overall coherence of the research is not diminished by an adherence to this mixed-methods approach and avowedly eclectic stance. Far from being an uncoordinated and complex set of findings, the data that were gathered from these strands, providing both quantitative and qualitative results, shaped my thinking and the direction of the research project. The analysis of these findings allowed me to identify commonalities and individualities among stakeholders within the case study. This contributed towards my research project because it helped me to separate my own perspectives from those of others, thereby equipping me to make more objective judgements about the aspects of citizenship education that would best offer a meaningful education to the students concerned.

I have stated in Chapter One that my definition of meaningful citizenship education is one that permits individuals to make a difference to the lives of others. The research findings that surfaced narrowed my focus on to the areas where this might bear fruit. Analysis of the data also permitted me to comment on the impact of teaching citizenship through a specific subject discipline (history) and also through its own discrete provision. This was valuable because it allowed me to see the limitations that can occur within superficially successful examples of teaching - limitations that can be missed when discrete teaching is not scrutinised in this way. In searching for meaningful delivery, therefore, this awareness encouraged me to probe wider, this time into areas that emerged as positive examples of student commitment to the global community. I

<b>Research within Meadowvale High Research beyond Meadowvale High</b>		<b>School response to the citizenship initiative</b>
<b>PHASE ONE: SETTING THE SCENE</b>		
<b>2002</b>		
July	<b>Staff interviews</b>	
August		
Sept		
Oct.	<b>Questionnaire One (staff, students, parents &amp; governors)</b>	Citizenship education is identified as a cross-curricula subject; subject audits are made
<b>PHASE TWO: DELIVERY THROUGH HISTORY</b>		
Nov.	<b>Quasi experimentation (Year 9 students)</b>	
Dec.		Tutors refuse cooperation for delivery of 'citizenship days'
<b>PHASE THREE: SEARCHING FOR MEANING THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRES</b>		
<b>2003</b>		
Jan	<b>Impact of implicit delivery Questionnaire 2 (a) &amp; (b) (Year 9 students)</b>	Headteacher considers delivering the initiative via ICT lessons
Feb		
March		Headteacher considers delivering the initiative alongside RE
April		
Sept	<b>Impact of explicit delivery Questionnaire 2 (c) &amp; (d) (Year 9 students)</b>	
Oct	<b>Lessons to be learnt from beyond the case Questionnaire 4 (Members of Parliament)</b>	Discrete delivery of citizenship education to Year 9 classes in 3 half-term slots (RE receiving the other 3)
Nov		
Dec		
<b>2004</b>		
Jan		
Feb		
March		
April		
May	<b>Impact of extra-curricular involvement Questionnaire 3 (a), (b) &amp; (c) (Years 11-13)</b>	
June		
July		
<b>2005</b>		Delivery rolled out to include Years 9 & 10
<b>2006</b>		Citizenship education, RE and PSHE are married for Years 9, 10 & 11; citizenship lessons reduced to 7 lessons over 3 years

**Table 3.1 A timeline of the research process**

doubt that I would have extended the research project from 2004-2006 had I not become aware of this finding. In stepping outside the case study and considering the bigger picture of factors impinging upon active citizenship among other people, I was able to add to the literature on political socialisation within the UK. Collectively these findings helped to illustrate what did and what did not have impact within Meadowvale High and in doing so they provide a backbone for reflection among other teachers searching for meaningful delivery within their own schools; hopefully encouraging them to delve more acutely into the factors that affect the dispositions of their students rather than simply delivering a programme that others claim is valuable. One of the values of practitioner-research is that it affords possibilities such as these. Although localised in its orientation, my study illustrates how practitioners working in other contexts might profitably utilise a mixed-methods approach when undertaking investigations within their own institutions.

While the contributions made to research by use of this mixed-methods paradigm will be discussed in Chapter Six, in essence this methodological approach was justifiable because it:

- Demonstrated the potential values of a mixed-methods approach for school practitioners engaged in research.
- Provided practitioners with information on the likely effectiveness of different approaches to citizenship education, including those focusing on global awareness.
- Added to the existing knowledge base on curriculum innovation by providing insight into some of the implications of a major curriculum innovation and, by consequence, threw light on the problem of getting a centrally-imposed initiative off the ground.

- Provided evidence on a breaking initiative from the perceptions of an educational community: students, parents, teachers and governors – all key stakeholders within this situation.

Moreover, in electing to research beyond the case itself I was able to contribute towards the knowledge base on political socialisation. Hence an eclectic approach, which allowed me to become fired by data as it became available, served the aims of the project – to explore perceptions of citizenship education and to track developments that might lead to approaches that would help students to make a positive difference to the lives of others.

This chapter explains the case study approach chosen for this research, and in doing so it addresses the strengths and weaknesses of the case study as a research strategy. It focuses on the conflict of the case study in research and the rationale for its choice for this exercise. This is linked this with the dilemma of the role of the practitioner-researcher within a case study framework, an issue that is featured in greater detail in the conclusion to this research. It also addresses the rationale underpinning the decision taken to employ a mixed methods research paradigm. Section 3.2 sets the scene for the project by introducing Phase One. This was the initial exercise undertaken: that of assessing perceptions of the initiative held by staff working within the school of the case study. This section therefore discusses the role of interviews within a research setting, clarifying the stages of investigation used and explaining issues of protocol and ethics associated with these stages. The sample is identified and the interview schedule justified. This section also draws the attention of the reader to issues associated with the first set of questionnaires that were employed. In section 3.3 the focus is Phase Two, the second strategy employed - that of quasi-experimentation. The sample chosen for the quasi-experimentation is explained and justified by means of Mann-Whitney tests and the possible criticisms to levy against the use of control groups are addressed. The schedule for the design is then clarified. Phase Three, the focus of section 3.4, was a complex study of attitudes in response to developments. Since the sampling unit for the questionnaires was not always homogeneous, this is subdivided into two strands: the sample within the community between 2003 and 2006 is termed Strand One while the sample beyond community between 2003 and 2004 is referred to as Strand Two. The

sample within the community is broken down into its different components. Issues of protocol and ethics for this sampling unit is addressed in keeping with the code of ethics suggested by Cohen *et al* (2002); particular attention is paid to the wording of the letters inviting participation in this research. The questionnaire schedules are identified and the rationale underpinning them is discussed.

Naturally such a setting lends itself to potentially ethical dilemmas, situations that begged sensitive handling. While it was important to ensure that adherence to the Ethical Guidelines promoted by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) in 1992 - later revised in 2004 - remained a sharp focus, this is not to claim that it was possible to embrace each element of this guideline unreservedly – itself an ethical dilemma. This chapter will therefore demonstrate the ways in which the research endeavoured to uphold the principles underpinning these guidelines; it will also attempt to justify any potential deviance from them, seeking support for such decisions from the critique of the 1992 Ethical Guidelines levied by Peter Foster at the 1996 BERA conference.

### **3.1.1 The case study in research**

In defining case studies Walker (1986, p.189) writes, ‘Case study is the examination of an instance in action. The study of particular incidents and events, and the selective collection of information on biography, personality, intentions and values, allows the case study worker to capture and portray those elements of a situation that give it meaning’. In believing that a case study can be employed to illustrate a bigger picture, Nisbet and Watt (1984, p.72) echo Walker’s view, while Adelman *et al* (1980, p.72-73) highlight the advantages it can offer in establishing links between ideas and abstract principles. Since they are ‘strong in reality’ Adelman endorses the case study as a step in action’ that draws strength from its own subtlety.

While these advantages are compelling, in truth the key reason for my choice of a case study approach can be traced to the view of Hitchcock and Hughes (1995, p.322) who assert that its value lies with the researcher who has little control over the variables. This applied to my situation: in wishing to conduct in-depth research whilst engaged in

full-time employment, the opportunities open to me to secure samples unconnected with my work-place were limited both in terms of time and resource possibilities. Pragmatism might not be the purist of motives, but I was also aware that to pursue a case study approach within my own environment would not only be intrinsically interesting but would provide a unique opportunity to investigate and document the initial impact of an initiative that would never repeat itself.

While critics of case study research would instantly condemn such a statement on the grounds that it proves that generalisations cannot be made from such research, I would challenge this as a bland generalisation itself. While the research I undertook was indeed unique in many respects, it documented the teething problems of a school undergoing the impact of a government initiative that was being experienced nationwide. The extent to which the findings from this case study can or cannot be applied to other schools will depend upon common factors. A large part of this research was based on a study of attitudes and values within a middle-class setting; any in-depth study of this type could have some potential application to similar groups. Each school will have coped with this initiative in its own way but it is unlikely that these experiences will have been documented in the same detail as those experienced within my school. The NFER, which has been commissioned by the Government to monitor the impact of this initiative over nine years, has observed and interviewed many individuals in a cross section of schools. While the reports it is producing from school visits mirror a number of the findings that I have drawn, breadth of study reports such as these can be strengthened by the in-depth picture that is generated by case study analysis. Other characteristics of case study research, such as a focus on the particular within its natural setting while making use of multiple sources, offer an insight into relationships and processes for which other approaches thirst. Reactions to initiatives should be closely monitored if policy-makers are to truly understand the effects of, and responses to, their decisions; case study research can offer one step towards achieving this.

While pragmatism was a key motivator in shaping my decision to undertake case study research, this is not to imply that I selected this approach through desperation and assumed that, by virtue of my multiple roles within the case study community, I could

automatically identify the bigger picture or the links between ideas and abstract principles. By contrast I entered the process cautiously, well aware of the criticisms levied against the interpretive data produced from case study research by hostile positivists. While I have already referred to the criticisms over generalisation, I acknowledge that there will be critics who will not be convinced: Smith, for example, dismisses the case study as ‘the weakest method of knowing’ (1991, p.75 in Cohen *et al*, 2002, p.183), while a general handbook produced by the Central University of Technology, Free State that overviews research designs for postgraduate students (Lategan and Lues, 2005) fails to even acknowledge the very existence of the case study in its chapter on types of research designs. Although Cohen *et al* (2002, p.184) identify the potential advantages of the case study in research methodology, they stress the difficulties of establishing validity and reliability from such an approach. I entered the research process anticipating that I could challenge such a shortcoming by employing a hybrid strategy. My intended instruments were varied: interviews, questionnaires and quasi-experimentation. From the variety of qualitative and quantitative data that would be generated from these instruments I hoped to be in a position to engage in critical analysis.

Indeed, critical purists of the mixed-methods paradigm might also condemn my methodology and assert that this too weakened the usefulness of the research exercise. While purists in the quantitative versus qualitative war might remain entrenched in their views because they witness so much strength in their respective fields, I would assert that if there is an argument to support the value of both of these paradigms, then it is reasonable to claim that there can be a case for using instruments from both to provide a triangulated approach to research. In approaching the project thus, I employed both a mixed-method approach and, within that at warranted times, a mixed model design. While purists will balk at such a flexible approach, there is a growing school of thought that supports the blend of quantitative and qualitative research paradigms, describing this as a ‘third wave’ (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.17) within the philosophy of research debate. In doing so, as indicated in the discussion above, the approach I adopted from 2002 onwards was to conform to the rationale advocated in 2004 by these researchers. Moreover, in pursuing such a paradigm I was also conforming to the five main reasons for its use, as outlined by Greene *et al* (1989): triangulation of data from the contrasting methods (e.g. between interviews and

questionnaires); elaboration of the results by following one method with another (e.g. the results emanating from the quasi-experimentation led to further questionnaire research); initiation (I reframed the research focus in response to new needs); development (reflection on the views offered in the interviews encouraged me to explore specific aspects of implicit delivery); and finally expansion, which I assert has been achieved by throwing up rich attitudinal data about the complexities of this subject matter and my role as a researcher-practitioner over and above the initial objective to identify a suitable means of delivery.

### **3.1.2 The researcher-practitioner within a case study**

When I initiated this case study approach, it was not therefore in trepidation over its use *per se*, but over the possible dilemma that might be produced by virtue of my dual roles as both practitioner and researcher. In penning the article published in *Educational Studies*, I chose to entitle it, '*Researcher-Practitioner: an unholy marriage?*' The rationale for choosing such a title owed its thinking to the dilemma of operating in a conflicting role within a case study scenario. While welcoming the advantages that could be reaped from my own position within the community, I was aware that these could be weakened by the disadvantages resulting from the very same position. What I was not at this stage able to anticipate was which of these would weigh heavier and how this balance would affect the research process and its possible findings. The views that were expressed in this paper therefore provide the basis for some of the arguments I develop both in this chapter and in the findings that form the focus of Chapter Four. Within this chapter the issues raised in this article will be further developed as a result of the observations made in the later stages of the research exercise.

There was clearly a need for change if my school were to meet the Government's requirements in relation to the Curriculum Orders in England and, as the recently appointed Citizenship Coordinator, I seemed to be aptly placed to influence and monitor this. In principle, such a situation neatly met the characteristics of action research, as described by a number of researchers (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Somekh, 1995; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2002). My primary interest was to uncover the views of all stakeholders. I saw the initial success of any new strategy as being heavily influenced by the perceptions of those involved. Since flexibility of approach had been built into

the delivery of any citizenship programme, by identifying the views of stakeholders a general plan of action could be devised that made allowances for these. This decision was taken in negotiation with school management, thereby constituting one of the stages of procedure laid down by Cohen *et al* (2002, p.235) and the initial steps of action research as explained by Kemmis and McTaggart (1981, p.2). It also paved the way for developing a general plan of action, from which monitoring and evaluating could follow. Hence I began with the intention of employing action research praxis, although this proved somewhat untenable over time, thereby indicating that those wishing to undertake research within their own environments should not assume that action research is a strategy that will yield results. The negative reaction by staff in November 2002 contributed towards reflections on the impact of imposed curriculum innovation, which in itself was a useful observation that I could make as a researcher employing a case study approach within my own institution. Another advantage of practitioner-research is that the position it affords can provide a flexibility of approach - when one door closes another can be opened; research can continue but follows an alternative path.

### **3.1.3 The unfolding research path**

Powney and Watts define educational research as 'the systematic, empirical and critical enquiry into matters which directly or indirectly concern the learning and teaching of children and adults' (1987, p.3). In a school where no preparation had been made for the introduction of citizenship education as a curriculum innovation before my appointment as its coordinator (which did not take effect until September 2002), it appeared completely inappropriate - and indeed unprofessional - to launch into the coordination of this initiative without taking the opportunity to approach it from a systematic, empirical and critical stance if the learning and teaching of these students was to be meaningful.

In creating a research framework I opted for a flexible approach. While a traditional approach would have led me to establish a hypothesis against which the collected data would be tested, this was hardly pragmatic as a result of the novelty and complexity of this situation: a new subject in a school unprepared for its arrival and manned by a staff unaware of the role they would be asked to share in it. My aims were twofold: to

research into attitudes towards citizenship education as the first step towards identifying and delivering methods of meaningful delivery of this initiative within my school, and secondly to examine, and move forward from, the impact of any strategies employed. To achieve this merited approaching the issue from a number of angles; for this reason no single research paradigm dominated the research. It was essential for me to engage in an approach that explored the perspectives of the participants within my working environment, a need that lent itself to employing a case study approach. I wished to identify and establish good teaching practice both for myself and for others within an unproven initiative, for which an action research strategy seemed appropriate at the outset – a strategy which I viewed as the way forward until November 2002.

### **3.1.3.1 Phase One**

The first stage of this project was marked by the identification of the issue for research: the dilemma of how to deliver citizenship education so as to secure the purported benefits (QCA, 1998 p. 9). When, on reflection, this seemed too wide a research remit for one individual researching alone in her institution, I narrowed my focus, from which the key research question emerged:

- How can citizenship education be delivered so that students can feel that their actions can make a difference to the lives of others?

While this question underpinned the project, other sub-questions were formed to help shape an answer to it, the first being:

- Which citizenship issues are seen by stakeholders within Meadowvale High to be the most meaningful to study?

This sub-question was chosen because Cohen *et al* (2002, p.235) describe the second stage of a research cycle as involving preliminary discussions and negotiations among interested parties and this initial research question was introduced to comply with this stage. Since no grounding in this initiative had been provided among my colleagues by staff training prior to the introduction of this innovation, I was very keen to engage others in discussion about it. From this emerged the semi-structured interviews (Phase

One) that were to identify staff perceptions on issues relating to the application of citizenship education within our school and also the introduction of *Questionnaire One*. To rely only on the interviewing of ten members of staff as the only source of reference of staff views would have been too narrow, whereas a broader survey of the stakeholders within Meadowvale High would help to act as triangulation. Collectively these two methods produced qualitative and quantitative data for analysis. The stakeholders involved in responding to this question were staff, students, parents and governors.

The literature produced for the national conferences held in 2002 to launch the citizenship initiative urged schools to begin with an audit of current provision and to allow this to shape the evolution of delivery within individual schools. For this reason, I adopted the audit model suggested at these conferences by Marianne Talbot (2002) and used this as the basis for developing an initial plan of action. In reviewing data gathered from this with an Assistant Headteacher, and subsequently in consultation with the Headteacher, we decided that some initial attempts to plug gaps in the curriculum would be approached through collapsing the timetable for specified days throughout the year. It was agreed that it would be my role to provide the teaching resources for the delivery of these sessions by form tutors within Years 9 and 10. Form tutors were informed of this arrangement at year team meetings by the Assistant Headteacher. In response to the areas identified as important by the students' questionnaires, it was my intention, therefore, to use these 'citizenship days' as examples of classroom-based research within the research cycle. This approach had already been documented in the literature of citizenship education in schools (Davies *et al*, 1998), had been suggested as a possible mode of delivery by QCA in 2001, and was being promoted in conferences and courses launching citizenship education in 2002. With this end in mind, a one-day initial programme of activities was devised for use with students of Year 9 and Year 10 in December 2002. However, this was not to be. The concept of 'citizenship days' led by form tutors was extremely ill-received by the Year 10 tutors who claimed, in November 2002, that they did not deem it to be their responsibility to engage with this. In keeping with the anticipated reactions gathered through interviewing staff prior to this, complaints were made about a lack of time, expertise and need. Negative responses from experienced teachers to imposed curriculum initiatives have already been noted in the literature of educational change (Sikes, 1992). The form tutors, who

shaped the development of this innovation by their reluctance to deliver sessions on the very themes that had been highlighted as important by staff, were all teachers whose ages ranged between mid-30s and late-40s. Sikes classifies this group as experienced teachers who can influence younger teachers and the ethos of the school, scuppering efforts to introduce change as a result of their own experience of what does/does not already work. Eight of the ten interviewees were also from this age bracket and although their responses did not register resistance, the problems they anticipated arising flagged up the complaints that these form tutors were later to make.

Since launching an initiative in such a negative atmosphere was tantamount to killing it, it was aborted without attempt by either year group and the Headteacher was left to re-think the manner in which he wished me to lead this initiative. It also helped me to refine my research planning. Although the focus of my research – the search for meaningful delivery – remained unchanged, the direction of my planning needed to make allowances for this setback. No longer could I introduce and examine the impact of citizenship initiatives for year groups within a collapsed timetable setting; instead the situation became more fundamental – one of trying to find ways of delivering effective citizenship education in an unprepared and potentially hostile climate. At this point, the concept of approaching this initiative through action research appeared doomed. Since the observations so far made had confirmed that attitudes and values lacked homogeneity, it was important for me as the Citizenship Coordinator to recognise this fact and incorporate it into future planning. I was aware that I alone could not alter inbred attitudes across a body of staff but I was also aware that, technically, the onus for change was mine. Nevertheless, the parameters for change were limited: there had been no formal timetable allocation made for the delivery of this subject, no recognition of the need for in-service training for staff time to promote it and reluctance by staff to engage with it. The barriers to success raised by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) – highlighted in Chapter One (p.33) – seemed chillingly real.

This situation raised a new question – how and where should citizenship be delivered? Schemes of work were already in place, high schools are tied heavily into examination syllabi and the need to deliver increasingly good results; teachers are pressurised by this and tired of initiatives. While, in principle, it is reasonable to claim that citizenship

education permeates life in general and is or can be incorporated into a wide cross section of subject areas, the reality can present a different picture. Flexibility can unwittingly encourage in individual departments an assumed option of avoidance. A subject audit of citizenship education at Meadowvale High flagged up willingness in some subject areas to accept that implicit citizenship education was evident in certain lessons but reluctance to embrace any modifications that could lead to explicit delivery. This supported the concerns raised during the staff interviews that time constraints would hamper the successful delivery of citizenship education within existing subject disciplines. Once again, this conundrum provides evidence for Fullan's assertion that characteristics at school level can strongly impact upon the implementation of an educational innovation.

### **3.1.3.2 Phase Two**

While this development was running its course, I was also preparing to work with a different research style, that of quasi-experimentation within my own classroom. I saw this mixture of styles as a means by which to enrich my understanding of the project. Since the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), in conjunction with the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), had endorsed an exemplar scheme of work in 2001 to help schools 'develop learning opportunities to respond to the specific needs and priorities of pupils, their communities and the schools themselves' (QCA, 2001, p.3), a reasonable starting point for measuring the success of possible interventions lay within its exemplar materials, which were justified as creating 'explicit opportunities for citizenship' (p.4). To measure this some form of experimental design was warranted. This rationale gave rise to Phase Two of the research exercise in which I tested the impact of teaching citizenship through history lessons I conducted with Year 9 classes. The intended outcomes of citizenship education at Key Stage 3 (QCA, 1998, p.49-50) clearly indicated an overlap with those of history at Key Stage 3. This placed history teachers in a strong position to deliver citizenship education and the Citizenship Advisory Group favoured this link (QCA, 1998, p.22). Since schools had been given the freedom to devise paths through the citizenship programme that suited their individual needs, the opportunity had arisen for history teachers to examine their own practice alongside these needs. The question driving this strand of the research was:

- To what extent can the study of history at KS3 provide a stimulus for a sense of responsibility towards others?

I explored this issue within my own classroom with two sets of Year 9 history classes. From this exercise emerged both quantitative and qualitative data, the latter spawning a wider investigation of the role of schools in providing stimuli for active political citizenship. In recognition of the fact that quasi-experimentation is seen as an approach separate from case study research, the main thrust of the discussion on this can be read in section 3.3.

Whilst the use of quasi-experimentation was very fruitful as a strategy, I elected to return to the use of a questionnaire survey for much of the research project over subsequent years because this proved to be the best instrument for gauging a broad selection of viewpoints at the various stages of the exercise (Phase Three). *Questionnaire One* had been very useful in the early stages to shape a response to the first research question. The return to further use of questionnaires was prompted by the dilemma resulting from the reaction of the form tutors to ‘citizenship days’ in November 2002, one which changed the ultimate direction in which this initiative would be implemented in Meadowvale High.

### **3.1.3.3 Phase Three**

Preliminary discussions in the semi-structured interviews held with staff in July 2002 had pinned hopes on the development of the work of the Charity Committee as a tool for developing citizenship awareness within Meadowvale High. From this emerged an exercise that aimed at evaluating the potential for this. Each year the school funded a number of charitable causes, largely through non-uniform days each of which instantly produced a sum of no less than £1000. If the manner in which we structured such activities heightened awareness of citizenship issues then we, as a school, could justifiably claim that a whole school initiative such as this was an example of citizenship education. Since September 2002 had not been marked by the formal introduction of citizenship education into our school curriculum as a designated subject for study, it was important to identify the extent to which students could or could not be influenced by initiatives around the school. Implicit delivery of citizenship education

had been deemed insufficient by the Government, but there were also appeals for schools to build on what they already had. This being the case, I wished to measure the impact of potential opportunities for citizenship initiatives that were already embedded into the workings of the school, strengthen their weaknesses and learn from their successes. As a result I initiated a questionnaire-based enquiry focusing on the effect of implicit delivery.

As Citizenship Coordinator I was in receipt of a multitude of suggested causes to promote among students. After discussion with the Chair of the Charity Committee (a Year 13 student) he and I agreed to target the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) Day for Change 2003 as the test case for this exercise. Not only was this an area that the Charity Committee felt strongly about, but global citizenship was a concept that the Headteacher spoke of with enthusiasm and commitment. The Chair of the Charity Committee and I decided to measure awareness of the impact of this day by presentations at assemblies by leading members of this student committee and by the deployment of literature, both visual and written, in strategic parts of the school. In acting in this way, we were in keeping with current school methods for promoting non-uniform days, although the visual materials were in greater abundance and placed in more high profile locations than those in years past. We also felt that an exercise of this nature would allow us to make some assessment of its impact without incurring additional staff hostility.

The evaluation procedure I elected to use was *Questionnaire Two (a) and (b)*, based on a pre-test and post-test design (details of these can be seen in section 3.4.4) with a sample I had carefully chosen. The pre-test was taken on 31<sup>st</sup> January - one week prior to the 2003 UNICEF Day for Change (7<sup>th</sup> February) - the posters and written information were displayed from 3<sup>rd</sup> February onwards, an assembly to this year group, led by members of the Charity Committee took place on 5<sup>th</sup> February, and the post-test taken on the afternoon of the non-uniform day: 7<sup>th</sup> February. By administering the post-test as soon as possible after the potentially change-producing events, I hoped to minimise any censure that internal validity was threatened as a result of history – a criticism highlighted by Campbell and Stanley (1963) who advise against the use of one-group pre-test/post-test designs. These writers raise a number of other caveats

against such a design. Maturation, they assert, might impact upon the process. The students may have ‘grown older, hungrier, more tired, more bored etc., and the obtained difference may reflect this process rather than X’ (1963, p.8). While this cannot be denied, and while the use of experimental and control groups is undoubtedly a feature of a stronger research design, in truth there is no absolute assurance that factors such as tiredness or boredom will not impinge on multi-group pre-test/post-test designs as well. The same reservation can be made about Campbell and Stanley’s concerns that the effect of pre-tests might skew the performance on post-tests. The data was analysed on an Excel spreadsheet, allocating one mark for each correct point made among the quantifiable responses; patterns of response were sought among the subjective responses.

During the spring term of 2003 the Headteacher, after considering and then rejecting the possibility of marrying delivery of citizenship education in the classroom with ICT, took the decision to merge the delivery of citizenship education with religious studies with effect from September 2003. This provided an interesting development for me, both as researcher and as practitioner. Citizenship education through implicit delivery was already established at Meadowvale High, but since this new decision provided a window for formal delivery of citizenship education it was possible for me, as a practitioner, to devise a plan of action that would permit the explicit teaching of citizenship issues. It also provided me, as a researcher, the rationale for linking the questionnaire-based research of 2003 with this new development, thereby crystallising the third research question, which underpinned both *Questionnaire Two* and *Questionnaire Three*:

- To what extent does implicit and explicit education of global issues impact upon student attitudes?

*Questionnaire Two (a)* and *(b)* had already focused on measuring implicit delivery within the context of global citizenship; *Questionnaire Two (c)* and *(d)* now attempted to measure explicit delivery of citizenship issues within lessons I taught. To ensure a degree of parity with the research carried out on implicit delivery, I elected to build in to the teaching programme a study of the work and ambitions of UNICEF. The delivery

of this particular teaching unit was to become the core of this strand of the research exercise and was tested by me in February 2004, to coincide with the UNICEF Day for Change 2004. Again, the evaluation tools to be used were pre-tests and post-tests (*Questionnaire 2 (c) and (d)*), designs modified to improve upon the design of the 2003 model and fit in with the changing needs of the 2004 remit. A new sample was chosen, this time from the cohort of Year 9 students who were the first in our school to receive explicit citizenship teaching. All of these questionnaires were completed by students whom I taught within my own lessons and the responses produced findings of both a qualitative and quantitative nature and the results of this strand of the exercise were made available to all interested stakeholders.

As an interested observer in any developments that could enhance the citizenship experience at Meadowvale High, I elected to continue the research project beyond the two-year time span I had initially intended when I witnessed the response of all of the students who visited Kenya on a community project. Since this was a school in which the Headteacher was keen to encourage global awareness, east-west and north-south connections were becoming increasingly high profile in Meadowvale High. This led me to return to pursue an investigation (*Questionnaire Three*) into the impact of experiential global awareness on three cohorts of students between 2004 and 2006 (details relating to these questionnaires can be seen in section 3.4.4). Since my research was driven by a wish to find ways in which citizenship education could help students make a positive difference to the lives of others – and thereby prove meaningful – it was fortuitous that I was in a position to react to an observation that hinted at this. At the heart of my own thinking throughout my teaching career there has always been the belief that one of the values in schooling is the schooling in values. This being the case, any explorative method that might ultimately raise the success levels of a value-driven agenda merited investigation. As a consequence *Questionnaire Three* employed a pre-visit and post-visit approach to evaluate the impact of community projects experienced by students from Meadowvale High; these three sets of visits took place in consecutive years, two to Kenya and one to the Gambia, and produced qualitative findings that I considered very powerful.

Moreover, the use of an eclectic stance resulted in the development of *Questionnaire Four* and a further research question. The results from quasi-experimentation that I had completed in December 2002 fuelled my interest to probe more widely in search of factors that encourage political socialisation. This led to a secondary research focus – exploring the motivations for active citizenship from a sampling unit beyond the school community. While quasi-experimentation is viewed as a different strategy to case study research, without it I might not have been prompted to reflect on a bigger, attitudinal picture towards political socialisation. In probing the views of a wider sample, this research question was:

- What can be learnt from factors that have encouraged others to develop a sense of responsibility towards the lives of other people?

In searching for a broader picture I needed to identify a sample that could provide me with tangible evidence of successful political socialisation - the most visible example of this is parliamentarians. For this reason I elected to survey the UK parliamentarians in office between 2003 and 2004 in an attempt to elicit data related to the impact their schools and other factors played on their eventual political socialisation. This strand therefore traced its origin to the case study but allowed my thinking to engage with the experiences of a wider sample, which, I believe, enriched the study of this case, a view in keeping with that of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie who recommend mixed-methods research because they deem it to offer an ‘expansive and creative form of research, not a limiting form of research. It is inclusive, pluralistic and complementary, and it suggests that researchers take an eclectic approach to method selection and the thinking about and conduct of research’ (2004, p.17). Moreover, the data that emerged from this questionnaire beyond the community raised sufficient thought to consider probing the impact of, among other matters, forms of experiential learning, thus providing a form of cross-reference with the significance of *Questionnaire Three*.

Thus, between July 2002 and June 2006 I travelled along a winding research path, one that had been shaped by responses to the innovation experienced within Meadowvale High and also by opportunities afforded by observations made through my position as practitioner within this community. I had begun searching for ways in which

citizenship education could be delivered with meaning and ended with finding a way that appeared to have considerable impact upon some students. The fact that this finding in Meadowvale High was not the result of any initiative specifically introduced as a consequence of the formal, imposed introduction of this curriculum innovation was somewhat ironic.

## **3.2 Phase One: Setting the scene – staff interviews, 2002**

### **3.2.1 Interviews as an instrument in research**

In planning this set of interviews I expected to adopt the seven stages suggested for interview investigations by Steinar Kvale (1996, p.88, in Cohen *et al* 2002, p.273) - thematising, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analysing, verifying and reporting. The sensitive nature of these interviews, however, meant that I was unable to follow each of these stages as straightforwardly as I had intended. This section will explain in detail the first two of these stages and the interview schedule itself; the methods of recording, verification and issues related to reporting will also be identified. At an early stage this section will address issues of ethical concerns, for it was impossible to follow these stages effectively without due consideration of such matters. The findings from these interviews can be studied in Chapter Four and a discussion of these findings in Chapter Five.

The holistic culture of a school is influenced by a number of sub-cultures: for instance within the classroom, relationships at different levels and within the wider community. This being the case, this instrument sought to explore such sub-cultures through the interview process in an attempt to gauge a fuller image of the school culture within Meadowvale High in relation to the citizenship education initiative. The ethnographic researcher, James Spradley, has written: 'Before you impose your theories on the people you study, find out how these people define the world' (1979, p.11). I was not posed to carry out ethnographic research akin to that of Spradley, but as I was soon to take up the position of Citizenship Coordinator, it would have been a blind step to take without securing some understanding of the views of the incumbent staff. This provided my justification for wanting to open my investigation with a set of interviews. However, this is not to state that I envisaged my research to be an example of ethnography. Sensitive to the criticisms raised by F.W. Lutz that those who confuse ethnographic

methods with ethnography itself do not produce good research, it is important to clarify that the interview instrument employed in this research is to be interpreted as an ethnographic approach but not as ethnography since the research exercise did not conform to Lutz's definition of ethnography as 'a holistic, thick description of the interactive processes involving the discovery of important and recurring variables in society. It is not a case study, which narrowly focuses on a single issue' (1986, p.108).

Moreover, unlike many ethnographers I entered into the research with my own understandings of the culture in which I was working, but mixed with this was an ignorance of the ways in which staff in the main perceived the citizenship initiative. This was the result of the general lack of discussion that had taken place around the school in the months leading up to its introduction, coupled with the lack of attention paid to it in either a formal or informal capacity. For example, when I suggested to senior management that in-service training on staff development days could be used as a forum to launch citizenship education, such requests were refused. The subsequent interviewing of ten members of teaching staff, therefore, was the first methodological approach used in this research exercise and this method was carried out in July 2002. As the initial instrument used and therefore the launch-pad for the entire research project it was obviously an exciting and curious time and one which was imperative to approach with absolute rigour since the flexible approach to the research exercise, which I had elected to employ, implied that the results of this exercise could have the potential to shape the possible delivery of this initiative or perhaps my approach to later stages of this enquiry.

### **3.2.2 The interview sample**

Ten members of staff agreed to participate in this process, five male and five female. In a school organised into ten faculties, eight were represented: arts, curriculum support, English, business, mathematics, physical education, science and technology. There was no representation from the faculties of humanities or languages, and neither from the senior management team (although the format of the interview schedule had been discussed with one member of this team in advance of its use) nor from any colleagues operating as support staff. One of the interviewees carried pastoral responsibility as a head of year, three were faculty leaders, another four were subject leaders and two were

teachers without additional responsibilities. While all aspects of the school staffing structure were not represented, the cross-section constituted by this group was encouraging because all its participants carried their own understanding of the school and the people therein. The gender balance and variety of both subject disciplines and school roles collectively could add a richness of perceptions and experiences to the larger, quantitative exercise that would follow it.

### **3.2.3 Issues of protocol and ethics in the interview situation**

The theoretical basis for these interviews has been broached in the introduction above. It was my intention to use the interviews as a preliminary step towards the launch of a whole-school questionnaire that would probe into the views of stakeholders. By starting the research process with an exercise dependent upon direct interaction of an open-ended nature, I hoped to gather qualitative data to complement the quantitative data that subsequently would be generated from these questionnaires.

I would argue that the most important task for a researcher-practitioner in an educational setting is adequate planning. This is because the quality of any data that are gathered, or perhaps even the presence of the interviewees themselves, is so often dictated by the manner in which the interviewing process is approached. In designing the interview schedule I had to ensure that the questions adequately reflected my research objectives. A detailed explanation of this interview schedule follows in section 3.2.4.

Having devised the structure to be used in this interview, I invited a colleague to comment on the suitability and clarity of the interview questions in an attempt to address reliability. The choice of this colleague was controlled by two factors: her declared support for the citizenship initiative and the cogent experience she could offer from having recently completed a Masters' degree in education in which interviews featured both as a subject of her research and as a research method. Since no changes resulted to the question design, this indicated that 'stimulus equivalence' (Oppenheim 1992, p.86) had been achieved in that the respondents were expected to interpret the questions in the same manner.

Peer interviews in an educational setting bring with them their own issues. Inviting colleagues to share their perceptions of their own working environment can appear potentially threatening and any uncertainty over how their information will be used can deter them from involvement in the project. A written invitation to take part in this interview was offered to all members of staff, regardless of their position within the school. It explained my personal reasons for embarking upon these interviews (the wish to gather data for my postgraduate research) and my professional interests in securing staff views at this important juncture (the impending arrival of this subject and the wish to engage with colleagues in advantage of this). In this way I wanted staff to be aware that citizenship education was a whole school issue and that their views were important to it. Effective change, after all, needs to consider all members of the system (Ellsworth, 2000). The interviews were to be held in mid-July when there were fewer demands on staff; this offered the potential of a higher response rate than at other times in the academic year. The invitation also promised total anonymity and confidentiality to interviewees in an attempt to stem fears of vulnerability and promote confidence in the research method and in its researcher. I was aware, however, that the degree to which this succeeds in instilling such confidence in a school-based situation has, however, been questioned by Powney and Watts (1987, p.183) and therefore can have impact on any data that result.

In conducting interviews within my own establishment I appreciated that my situation was different from that of the outsider-interviewer in that I would be operating within different capacities – as colleague, researcher and interviewer – and that these roles could both interact with each other and could influence the results. Since this had the potential to complicate the interviews, I opted to conduct one-to-one interviews rather than group interviews. While the advantage of group interviews is the richness of any discourse that can develop during the interviews, I anticipated that should any issue result from my multiple roles, this would be easier to control within the situation of an individual interview since this was the type of interview in which I had prior experience. Moreover, one-to-one interviews promised a greater degree of confidentiality to the respondents, which could perhaps lead to more open reflections. Such interviews would also facilitate control of the schedule and reduce the potential for the production of irrelevant material.

It was also important for me to remember not to allow any familiarity with the interviewees to breed assumptions or complacency: 'Each interview is new and cannot rely on either previous assumptions or one's complacency due to experience' (Logan 1984, p.24). Additionally, I needed to recognise that each interviewee would bring to the situation perceptions of me. Powney and Watts assert: 'A person only gives such information in an interview as is compatible with the relative status of the interviewer and interviewee' (1987, p.46). It was important, therefore, to realise that operating as a researcher-practitioner my data could be affected by the nature of the relationships shared between interviewer and interviewee. Likewise, as the researcher, interviewer and colleague, I would bring to the interview my own perceptions of the respondents and would inevitably harbour what I personally deemed to be my answers to my very own questions. The complexity of the situation would inevitably present elements of bias. As such it was vital that I established an objectivity of approach in the interview protocol to avoid any danger of this exercise drifting towards a verification of any self-fulfilling prophecies. Clarity of purpose was crucial and efforts to establish this were made through the written invitation to partake in the exercise and re-iterated to each respondent at the outset of each interview. Empathy with any concerns interviewees might have also needed careful handling. Prior to knowing the identity of the respondents this was difficult to address in advance, other than offering the aforementioned assurances of anonymity and confidence. Once the respondents were identified, the only concern that surfaced was reluctance on the part of three of them to have their interview tape recorded. Powney and Watts (1987, p.27) attribute this to concern felt by people in authority. Unknown to me at the time, this was to be the beginning of a sequence of issues linked to power relations within the research exercise as a whole. Despite reassurances that the tapes would be wiped clean as soon as the information had been transcribed, one of the respondents remained uneasy. To respect her wishes and thereby maintain her support as an interviewee and to ensure a consistency of approach throughout all of the interviews, the responses from all interviewees were hand-written by me. All interviewees were aware, nevertheless, that the data they would provide would be used in my thesis at some later date. To honour commitments to confidentiality, anonymity and to ensure non-traceability, the paper that was published using some of these findings was printed using a pseudonym.

In electing not to tape-record these interviews I immediately recognised that I risked losing valuable data. This method also ran the risk of questioning validity – responses summarised by the interviewer could be open to misinterpretation. To avoid this I sat side-by-side with my interviewees, who were then aware that they could read my notes as I made them if they so wished. In this way I hoped to maintain their confidence and minimise any feeling of unequal power relations. At the end of each response I re-read their answers to them, thereby conducting a consistency check between my notes and their words. This allowed interviewees to clarify, alter and add to their original answers. Each interviewee verified, before leaving the interview, that that the notes that I had made were an accurate reflection of their views, thereby offering respondent validation of these data.

What I could not capture in this arrangement, however, was the non-verbal communication that a video-recorded interview could have demonstrated. To compensate for this I concentrated on approaches to interviewer response, which I planned to use to draw out the meanings inherent in non-verbal communication. Phil Carspecken (1996, p.158) asserts that the way a researcher responds to a question is much more important than the wording of the question. From a study of his suggested typology of interviewer responses I elected to employ three types, as and when appropriate, within the interviews that would take place: bland encouragements to sustain rapport throughout the interviews; low-inference paraphrasing and non-leading leads both as an alternative to bland encouragements and to encourage interviewees to build on their responses. I rejected any intention to use active listening, medium-inference paraphrasing or high-inference paraphrasing because each of these types of responses could have led me unintentionally to direct the conversations towards my own perceptions, thereby encouraging the respondents to provide me with the answers I expected rather than the ones they felt reflected their own views. It was important for me to make these decisions in advance of the interviews so that I could approach them, as far as possible, with a prepared repertoire of styles that would be consistent within all interviews. I also ensured that the protocol at the start of each interview was consistent: each interviewee was reassured of anonymity and confidentiality at the start, but also reminded that I did intend to use the data gained from this exercise both to enrich my research and, where feasible, to influence the delivery of citizenship education in our school. The location I chose for the exercise was my own classroom. This was not to

cater for any convenience of mine but because its situation offered excellent privacy to the interviewees from other members of staff. The timing of the interviews was also opportune in that only two year groups were in school during the week of the interviews and none of these students were timetabled to be near the classroom during the periods of these discussions. Each interview lasted around thirty minutes and, although each question was followed through systematically, interviewees responded freely using their own terminology. This was possibly made easier due to the fact that the relationships I shared with all of the participants were positive and relaxed.

The final stage of Kvale's protocol for conducting interview investigations is that of reporting. This proved to be a dilemma. If I had produced a written report of any analysis made and allowed this report to be circulated within Meadowvale High, it would have rendered meaningless my guarantee of confidentiality. Moreover, since the sensitivity of the data that were yielded would have inevitably led to staffroom discussion it would have become increasingly untenable for the respondents to maintain their anonymity. As far as the respondents were concerned, reporting therefore remained verbal and informal.

Analysis of the data took place when all ten interviews were completed. The interview schedule included both open and closed questions and statements that required a response. As a result of this format there was a mixture of response modes. Although respondents were given much freedom to develop their answers, the unstructured nature of this complicated any methods of analysis. Nevertheless, since I had adopted a flexible approach to the research exercise as a whole, and since the purpose of these interviews was to gather as full a picture as possible of the interviewees' interpretation of the citizenship initiative with particular reference to our school, I was satisfied that this was the correct approach for my purpose. To generate meaning from the data collected from open questions and from statements requiring a response, I searched firstly for repetition of words that carried with them identification of themes and then for words that could be interpreted as being subsumed within these themes. From this approach I was able to develop a holistic view of the data. As Cohen and Manion state: 'The great tension in data analysis is between maintaining a sense of the holism of the interview and the tendency for analysis to atomize and fragment the data – thereby

losing the synergy of the whole, and in interviews the whole is greater than the sum of the parts' (2002, p.282). I then searched for differences in interpretation to establish a fuller picture and noted these for identification in the findings. Where these occurred I was able to draw upon my knowledge of the interviewees, their status in the school and their relationships with people within this environment to attempt to create a contextualised explanation (albeit subjective) for these differences in the discussion of the findings. Collating answers to sections of questions that were closed was straightforward, these being added numerically. On reflection, however, analysis of some of the other questions that permitted a yes/no answer but in fact led to qualitative responses would have been more straightforward if I had asked the interviewees to rank their views of certain issues on a sliding scale.

### **3.2.4 The interview schedule**

Any decision on the appropriate structure for the interviews was naturally dictated by the type of information I wanted to elicit from the responses. Ever conscious that the context within my school was one where there had been no formal discussion on the nature of citizenship education as a new curriculum area and where no preparatory groundwork had been made, I was searching for responses that would shed light on staff perceptions of this initiative and also on the perceived ability of the school to meet these. Ignorance of these issues would provide barriers to any effective implementation of this curriculum innovation. Two key concerns therefore underpinned the structure of the questions I set:

- Do members of our staff agree on the alleged contribution of citizenship education to the school curriculum?
- To what extent do members of staff feel that our school is in a position to meet the requirements of the citizenship agenda?

The questions I devised around these two key issues pivoted around the purported contribution of citizenship to the school curriculum, as quoted by Pamela Draycott at the National Conference for Citizenship Coordinators which I attended in London in June 2002 shortly before beginning these interviews. If accurate, such contributions

could help young people make a positive difference to the lives of others and therefore, to my thinking, provide meaning to their own lives. For this reason they merited further exploration among our staff:

‘Citizenship makes a distinctive contribution to the school curriculum by:

- providing a framework which contributes to pupils developing the knowledge, skills and understanding necessary to play an effective role in society at local, national and international levels;
- encouraging pupils to become informed, thoughtful and responsible citizens who are aware of their duties, rights and responsibilities;
- promoting their spiritual, moral, social and cultural development, making them more self-aware and self-confident and responsible both in and beyond the classroom; encouraging them to take an active and helpful part in the life of their schools, neighbourhoods, communities and the wider world;
- teaching them about our economy and democratic institutions and values;
- encouraging respect for different national, religious and ethnic identities;
- developing pupils’ ability to reflect on issues and take part in discussions.
- Citizenship does not seek to urge particular political opinions on pupils, rather it encourages pupils to consider the effects of actions on others and to take an active and positive role in the various communities they are involved with.’

(Draycott, 2002, Seminar A p. 5)

I used these statements as the stimulus material for the interviews. Each interviewee was given a copy of the above statements and time to study them. The opening question probed the interviewees’ reaction to the statements they had read:

Q1 Do you agree that each of the claims above should be part of a school's responsibility to its students? If so, why? If not, why not?

This question addressed my first key concern. While it began as a closed question, it led into an open-ended response which provided an opportunity for interviewees to comment freely on any of the essential elements of the citizenship agenda (key concepts, values and dispositions; skills and aptitudes; knowledge and understanding) that had been covertly sketched in this text material without being swayed in any particular direction by the interviewer. Prior to the interviews I was unaware of how informed or uninformed any of the interviewees might be on this subject, so it seemed appropriate to open the discussion with a question that provided a framework for the rest of the interview, allowed interviewees to inform the interviewer of their level of understanding on the citizenship initiative and created the forum for the interviewees to control this stage of the discussion by presenting a personal judgement on the subject matter.

The second question addressed my second key concern, the feasibility of our school to provide the foundation for these contributions:

Q2 Do you think any of these aims will be more difficult to achieve than others? If so, why?

This question allowed interviewees to discuss their own perceptions of the school in which they worked in relation to a given remit. It was important to ascertain such views from staff if the citizenship initiative was to function in any way within our establishment. Once more, it was open-ended and made no attempt to influence the respondents with any of my views, even though I had my own perceptions on this point. This question, and the previous one, therefore aimed to establish the understanding levels that interviewees possessed on citizenship education as defined by the prevailing literature and to elicit responses to it in keeping with the environment in which they worked.

The National Forum for Values in Education and the Community was set up in 1996 and led by representatives of the teaching and law professions, faith schools, employers, youth workers and the media. It was soon to produce pilot materials for schools, which provided findings for education ministers and received support from Nick Tate, then Chief Executive of QCA: 'They reflect a conviction that education – for employment and for life – is as much about values as about knowledge and skills' (Tate, 1997). It was clear that these values were to be seen as linked to the aims of citizenship education, as indicated by David Blunkett in the same press release, '...It is vital that children learn how to distinguish right from wrong, and schools have their part to play in this. Children must also develop an appreciation of their duties, responsibilities and rights as citizens, and of the importance of stable family relationships' (Blunkett, 1997).

This National Forum would later influence the statement of values in the National Curriculum 2000 (Key Stages 3 and 4: p. 196-197). 'We value others for themselves ... We value relationships as fundamental to the development and fulfilment of ourselves and others, and to the good of the community ...We value truth, freedom, justice, human rights the rule of law and collective effort for the common good ...' (in Draycott, 2002, Seminar A, p.8). In this statement of values it is possible to note a number of similarities between the examples given of what we should be striving to achieve and what was purported to be the contribution of citizenship to the school curriculum, e.g. understanding and fulfilling responsibilities as citizens, encouraging participation in democratic processes, resolving disputes peacefully, helping people to know about the law, its processes and developing respect for the law, as well as respect for other people and for cultural and religious diversity.

The importance given to values, therefore, shaped the nature of the third question that was posed to my interviewees:

Q3 Values are seen as being very important in citizenship. What are the values that you believe we, as a school, should send out?

While the interviewees would have been aware of the values underpinning the citizenship agenda once they had studied the stimulus material and this could be

claimed to influence their thinking, this question provided the respondents with the opportunity to identify any values that they, as individuals and as teachers within the same environment, might consider the citizenship initiative to be lacking. It also provided a framework for cross-checking responses to the initial question, since areas where the interviewee had agreed with the point made in the first question would, ideally, be mentioned once again in response to this question.

Among the recommendations embodied in Section 4 of the Crick Report was written: 'We unanimously recommend that .... schools consider the relationship of citizenship education to whole school issues including school ethos, organizations and structures' (QCA, 1998, p.22). In an earlier section it claimed, 'Pupils' attitudes to active citizenship are influenced quite as much by attitudes and values in school as by factors other than schooling' (QCA, 1998, p.9). Although the validity of such a claim *per se* might be a moot point, it does merit being discussed within the context of the case study, both for its own sake and for any benefits that could be gained from the research data that would then shape the development of an approach to citizenship education in the ensuing months. This being the case, this provided the rationale for the next question:

Q4 Are values currently echoed in:

- The opportunities for responsibility that we give to students?
- The way the school environment is maintained?
- The rules and discipline we employ?

In keeping with the statement of values devised by the National Forum for Values in Education and the Community, I was particularly interested in ascertaining staff evaluation of values in relation to three areas: the development of self and relationships, the environment and the society we fostered. For this reason I directed their answers around the three themes identified above. I singled out 'responsibilities' because this has become a much-used term in the language of citizenship education; indeed providing the basis for one of the three constituents of citizenship education in the terminology of the Crick Report. I deliberately guided the discussion towards environmental issues within the context of our own school because I was interested in

discovering whether or not my own (negative) perceptions of these would be supported or contradicted by the views of others. It was important for me as a researcher to probe the potential for difference to minimise any drift towards interpreting situations from an ostensibly biased perspective. 'Rules and discipline' symbolise our attitude towards the society in which we function and are an inherent component of school life. For this reason they form part of our value system and bear relevance to our understanding of what is essential for the functioning of the common good – hence the focus on this theme.

I was aware that the exact nature of the responses to question four could be dictated by the answers to the previous question if values had surfaced in this answer that had not been evident in the stimulus material. While this might indicate that the interviews could develop along incongruent paths and that this could make the analysis of the data more complicated, the opportunities for qualitative results offered by this individuality outweighed any inconveniences.

Still in keeping with the assertion that schools should look inwards to develop its citizenship programme and that the messages they emit to their students are instrumental in shaping attitudes, questions five probed into perceptions of the various relationships that collectively accounted for our school community on a daily basis:

Q5 Are the values you identified reflected in the relationships that are evident in the school, e.g.:

- Students to each other?
- Students to staff – both teaching and support staff?
- Between teachers themselves?
- Between teachers and the senior management team?
- Between teachers and support staff?
- Between support staff and the senior management team?

- Between the Headteacher and students, teachers, support staff, parents and the community?

Again, the interviewees were in a leading, judgemental position. Having defined their value systems they were being asked to measure what they considered to be the ideal path forward alongside the varied relationships to which they were privy - either overtly or covertly, actively or passively, subjectively or objectively. According to symbolic interventionists such as Herbert Blumer, ‘ Human beings act towards things on the basis of the meaning things have for them ... the meaning of such things is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one’s fellows’ (1969, p.2). While critics of symbolic interventionism would claim that people respond to situations in keeping with meanings inherent in society, it does not seem unreasonable to assert that relationships make life meaningful and therefore can be a powerful tool in interpreting society. This being the case, face-to face interactions play a part in this and such encounters within the multi-layered relationships that constitute a school could impact upon the attitudes and values seen therein.

The significance of relationships continued with question six:

Q6 Is the relationship between the school and the parents and the community mutually supportive?

I chose to make this a separate question from the one that preceded it not only because I envisaged there being a wealth of potential information to draw from question five, but because I wanted the respondents to focus on a different level of relationship. The Crick Report urged that ‘everyone directly involved in the education of our children – politicians and civil servants, community representatives; faith groups; school inspectors and governors; teacher trainers and teachers themselves; parents and indeed pupils – be given a clear statement of what is meant by citizenship education and their central role in it’ (QCA, 1998, p.23). This touched on the need for two-way communication and support. If citizenship education was to reach beyond the school walls for support and expertise, then the nature of the school’s relationship with its community begged examination. Failure to do so could lead to missed opportunities to develop meaningful links or vacuous critiques of the progress of citizenship education.

In posing question seven I was inviting respondents to move away from the narrow focus of some of the previous questions and return to the bigger picture, framed within of course the context of our school:

Q7 What do you foresee as being the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in introducing citizenship education into our school?

While it would be reasonable to state that this question could encourage a repetition of information already offered this was not an issue for me because any repetition would serve to emphasise the significance of the interviewees' views. More importantly, however, it gave respondents complete freedom to evaluate the situation from whatever angle they deemed appropriate to their understanding of our school. There was no compunction to discuss aims, contributions, values or any other issue so far mentioned, although the direction of the interview so far could well have shaped their thinking into such areas.

The focus of the penultimate question was, however, heavily influenced by my own thinking at that time:

Q8 Would you agree that a manageable agenda for citizenship education at our school could be:

- To raise awareness of current affairs and global issues?
- To help students to realise that they, as individuals, can make a difference to the world in which they live?

Since I was about to take up position as the Citizenship Coordinator I was bound to harbour my own ideas about how to manage this. My views were shaped by my own acceptance that the world had changed considerably in the last twenty years and I adhered to the view that for present-day citizenship to have relevance for young people then these changes needed to be at the forefront of their understanding if they were to act in any way that had real meaning to their lives. As a seasoned history teacher I was well aware of how limited the understanding of many students was to significant events both past and present, and as such did not always relate to the world around them. I

also believed that if students were to be empowered by citizenship they had to feel that they could make a difference by their actions. Located in a small suburban community far removed from the national seat of power, it is easy to appreciate why a young person might feel that our school – or the individuals within it - does not immediately radiate any sense of importance to the nation. Therefore, I anticipated that one need of the Citizenship Coordinator would be to lay this ghost to rest. Before embarking on any programme of activity, I wished to glean from my interviewees whether or not they shared the same perceptions as me. It was never my intention to imply to the interviewees, either by my tone, body language or by additional wording that such views were central to my own thinking.

Ever aware that I was not a professional interviewer and that therefore the interview protocol could have been faulted, I included a final, open question:

Q9 Are there any other comments you would like to add?

This was intended to allow the interviewee to assume the role of an informant – i.e. to provide information about what they deemed to be important, rather than what had been determined by me. It was my intention to have created, by the interview schedule, the situation in which this had already been possible, but this acted as an additional measure by allowing the interviewees to impose their own structures. As Tripp has argued, ‘an attempt to record what someone thinks on a particular question must also include the attempt to discover how that question and its relevant features is placed in the world-view of the interviewee, that is in the interviewee’s rather than the interviewer’s terms. In this regard it must be equally important for the interviewer to learn what questions are important to the interviewee, as it is to learn the answers to questions considered important to the interviewer’ (1983a, p.4-5 in Walker, 1985, p.117).

### **3.2.5 Developing the scene - Questionnaire One, 2002**

Initially this research method was employed in 2002 to elicit from a cross section of stakeholders associated with Meadowvale High their views on the various themes of study suggested for citizenship education at Key Stages 3 and 4. This questionnaire will be referred to as *Questionnaire One*. I considered this to be a suitable instrument for

research at this point because, not only could it offer triangulation with the interview findings, but it was the most appropriate method to gather a diverse range of views in a practical manner. Quantitative data would be easily accessible and analysed, while the opportunity provided for additional comments invited qualitative data which could enrich the findings. Since I was keen to uncover what I considered to be an overdue understanding of stakeholders' perceptions of this innovation as a step towards developing a strategy for its delivery, a questionnaire that addressed a wide audience could offer valuable insights.

### **3.2.6 The sample**

While the interviews of July 2002 searched for insight from ten members of staff, the sample invited to complete *Questionnaire One* was far more comprehensive, consisting of:

- All of the staff, irrespective of their roles within the school.
- All of the students within Years 9 and 10 – the year groups that were initially intended to be the first recipients of the citizenship initiative in the school.
- All of the parents of these students within Years 9 and 10.
- The governing body.

The rationale for choosing a sampling unit within my own community has already been raised in earlier sections. This section will focus on issues relating to the sample itself and will discuss, in a systematic order, the constituents of that sample. While one of the voluntary groups that functioned in the local community was also invited to contribute to this enquiry, the response rate was so low I have elected not to include this in the discussion.

In devising *Questionnaire One*, which searched for views on the emphasis that should be placed on the citizenship education programme of study, all members of staff were

approached irrespective of their roles in the school. This was because I believed this was an initiative that would affect all of those involved in the way the school functioned. From my own ideological standpoint, therefore, to select some staff to the exclusion of others would have dictated against my thinking that the delivery of citizenship education within a school community involves all its members. To ignore certain staff would also have been unprofessional, and would have fed into any misconceptions that might have been forming over whose role it was to deliver this initiative. The interviews that had already taken place with ten teachers had indicated that a threat of the citizenship initiative was perceived to be one of overburden, which could in turn reduce staff willingness for involvement. Hence, from a professional point of view, to select certain staff to complete this questionnaire at the expense of others might have unwittingly given false messages about future responsibility for the delivery of the subject. Moreover, from a methodological perspective, it would have led to biased and incomplete sampling. Responses were received from 51 members of staff, representing a response rate of 64%.

Since I have asserted above that all members of the school community are involved in citizenship education, it might follow that all of the students in the school should have been invited to complete the questionnaire. I did not choose to do this for the following reasons. On grounds of manageability, decisions had already been taken to limit the delivery of any explicit measures of citizenship education to the students of Years 9 and 10; they were therefore the principle stakeholders within the student community. While the students of Years 11, 12 and 13 might have views on this issue, I was very aware that they would be expressing views on an area that was not planned to impinge explicitly on their curriculum. This is not to claim that their views did not matter to me. In fact I was to spend much time, on an informal basis, discovering the views of such students. Instead, I restricted the exercise to students of Years 9 and 10 so that I could single out the views of the group that would receive explicit delivery of citizenship education.

Each year group contained 272 students. In the cohort researched at the outset of this initiative, completed questionnaires were received from 206 students from Year 9 and 216 from Year 10. When a summary of the results from these questionnaires was given

to these students and qualitative comments on these results requested, I received short, written responses from 161 Year 10 students and 118 Year 9 students.

The sample of parents chosen linked directly to the sample of students selected. This was because I wished to understand the views of the parents of the students who would be exposed to the citizenship initiative. I was also interested to see if there would be any correlation between their views and those of their children. Munn & Drever (1996) state precision is vital when defining a sample. For example, in sampling parents, it should be evident whether such parents are chosen by virtue of their roles within the community or as parents of the students. The list of parents that was drawn up for this research exercise was constituted on the basis of these individuals being parents of the students on the school roll at that time, not because they were members of the community. However, most of these parents were members of the community in which the school formed a part. As such, these two roles are not necessarily mutually exclusive, and where they do interconnect, it would be difficult to expect these parents to knowingly separate these roles when completing the questionnaire I had devised. I therefore had to expect some interplay of views in their responses. Admittedly, it is possible to question what is understood by the term 'community' and accept that this has different meanings for different groups. Moreover, since some of the parents did not live within the catchment boundaries, critics might assert that any input of views from the perspective of community offered by them would not be pertinent to that of our school community, since they made no direct contribution to it, and that using their data could potentially skew my results. I am unconvinced by this argument, however, because it is not impossible for parental views on the community to impact on those of their children who were indeed crossing the catchment boundaries to function within, and impact upon, our school community. 360 parents chose to complete this questionnaire, representing a response rate of 66%.

Since the role of a governing body can be instrumental in shaping school policy, I invited the governing body to complete this questionnaire. A Headteacher takes to a governing body his recommendations for policy and offers explanation for his intended financial management. From such discussions emerges the shape of future strategy and the attitudes of the governing body are inextricably woven into this. Up to this point I

had discussed citizenship education with only one member of the governing body – its chairman – and then only within the constraints of the interview held for my position as Citizenship Coordinator. In his response to my enquiry over his views on the introduction of citizenship education, I had sensed an intimation of reluctance for the initiative, which was not encouraging. However it would have been completely inaccurate to have made assumptions on that slender basis, and to have judged the whole of the governing body likewise. A more rational approach was to invite all of the members to state their views using the same framework as other stakeholders. Hence, in attempting to gather the views of the whole governing body I hoped to ascertain its commitment to the measure. Nine members of this body (out of a total of twenty) responded to this questionnaire.

### **3.2.7 The questionnaire schedule**

The basic structure of *Questionnaire One* can be seen in Figure 3.1. The format of the questionnaire to all groups followed the same pattern, although the language employed in the version completed by the students was, where deemed relevant by both my three teenage critics and me, modified for accessibility. Each aspect of the programme of study was singled out for rating. Since the Citizenship Orders had carried with them an optimism that their implication might lead to a more politically active citizenry, I separated out for judgement two of the statements within one of the themes listed in the element of knowledge and understanding. As a result, the questionnaire listed the electoral system and the importance of voting as individual items, rather than as part of the same point. I feared that if they remained conflated, an important distinction might be lost. To learn about the electoral system could lend itself to knowledge about processes and structures, but not necessarily about the values behind participating in this system. In doing so, such lessons would possibly provide little more than a framework for education about citizenship, as opposed to education for citizenship. To understand the *importance* of voting, however, is far more value-laden and could draw closer to the ultimate learning outcomes to which the explicit teaching of citizenship education aspires. In stating them as separate entities I hoped to identify the extent to which participants' responses to each of these parts differed. If students are to develop the attributes that will help them make a difference to the lives of others, then the Government would argue that this can be done through appreciation of the importance of voting. It was of interest to me, therefore, to see if the findings from this

questionnaire would be in keeping with this. If they were, this might offer hope for the development of a programme of citizenship education that targeted this theme as one that could offer meaning to students; if it did not, then this would undermine hopes for

<b>The Study of Citizenship at Meadowvale High School</b>					
<b>Please tick the box that best describes your view on each of the topics.</b>					
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
<b><i>Knowledge and Understanding</i></b>					
<i>Students need to learn about:</i>					
The characteristics of different governments					
The electoral system					
The importance of voting					
The work of community-based groups					
The importance of resolving conflicts fairly					
The significance of the media in society					
The legal and human rights and responsibilities underpinning society					
The services offered by central & local government & how they are financed					
The world as a global community & the implications of this					
The diversity of identities in the UK & the need for mutual respect and understanding					
<b><i>Skills of Enquiry and Debate</i></b>					
<i>Students should be able to:</i>					
Think about & investigate topical political, spiritual, moral, social & cultural issues					
Justify orally and in writing a personal opinion about such issues					
Contribute to group and exploratory class discussions, and take part in debates					
<b><i>Skills of Participation and Responsible Action</i></b>					
<i>Students should be able to:</i>					
Consider other people's experiences & explain views that are not their own					
Decide and take part responsibly in both school and community-based activities					
Reflect on the process of participating					
Please feel free to add any comments overleaf.					

**Figure 3.1 Questionnaire One**

the success of a programme for citizenship education at Meadowvale High that focused on political literacy. Moreover, since I had already decided to test by quasi-experimentation within my own classroom an exemplar QCA unit of work on the importance of voting, to gather findings on this issue from a wider sample within Meadowvale High added breadth to this research strand.

To assess participants' views, I used a five-point Likert scale. I favoured this method for the reasons that attract other researchers: it offered participants a flexible response to ease differentiation; it offered me, as the researcher, a ready means by which to generate quantitative data from a cross-section of participating groups, data that could then be compared across groups. This is not to claim, however, that in employing this method I expected all respondents to infer the same degree of intensity from each category, nor that I could be certain that the boxes that were ticked were a completely accurate interpretation of their views; such are limitations of Likert-based questionnaires.

While offering a flexibility of response, this rating scale also restricted respondents to given categories. To circumvent this constraint, parents and governors were invited to add their own comments at the end of the questionnaire. At the initial stage I did not include this in the students' questionnaires because I wished them to focus on one aspect of the process, rather than two. Qualitative views from the students were invited at the second stage, which provided feedback on the original data they had been generated. My desire to receive qualitative feedback from staff was verbalised openly with the issue of the questionnaires.

### **3.2.8 Issues of protocol and ethics, 2002**

Cohen *et al* (2002) are very explicit in outlining a code of ethics for use in questionnaire research and attempts were made to conform to this. In discussing 'informed consent' they define this in terms of four elements: competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension. In keeping with this, I would like to open this section with a consideration of the ways in which I attempted to handle these four elements with regard to the participants of these questionnaires. Cohen *et al* continue: 'Competence implies that responsible, mature individuals will make correct decisions if they are

given the relevant information' (2002, p.51). The covering letters that accompanied the questionnaires issued to parents (a copy of which went to governors with an appeal for them to complete this questionnaire also), as well as that issued later to parliamentarians, all attempted to include the information relevant to completing this questionnaire knowledgeably. The parental letter can be seen in Figures 3.2.

A less formal style was used in the written information to staff and students, but once more the same factual information was included. *Questionnaire One* could be described as operating under something akin to controlled conditions because the completion of this was carried out by all students simultaneously during a specified tutorial period officiated by their form tutor. Despite this, no individual was placed under any pressure to complete this questionnaire, thereby addressing issues of voluntarism. Anonymity was also offered, but when students were given feedback on their initial responses, they were invited to provide a qualitative response to this. I chose to leave a space for the name of the students should they decide to waive this option on the grounds that it might have proved useful to follow-up these written responses at a later stage.

Despite the fact that both the original guidelines for ethical research published by BERA in 1992 and the subsequently revised guidelines of 2004 emphasise the importance of total transparency towards participants, it was not possible to completely fulfil the requirements for 'full information' (fully informed consent) or 'comprehension' (the participants' full awareness of the nature of the research exercise). This was because these questionnaires were issued at an exploratory stage when I could not truthfully anticipate exactly how these data would impact upon the next stage of the research exercise. I did clarify to participants that data were being gathered with the intention of informing and shaping practice (in keeping with BERA, 2004:11, p.6). In addition, no matter how transparent a researcher might be in trying to explain to a student that she is gathering information as part of a doctorate, this is hardly a situation to which a student between the age of 14 and 18 years can relate. In this way, it would be more reasonable to state that I was working closer within the understanding of 'reasonably informed consent' (Cohen *et al*, 2002 p.51) than informed consent.

3 October, 2002

Dear Parents,

Citizenship Education and what it will mean to us.

As from September 2002, the teaching of Citizenship has been added to the National Curriculum and we have a statutory requirement to deliver this subject at Key Stages 3 and 4. Citizenship is concerned with helping your son/daughter to develop balanced views about a range of issues that are relevant to his/her life both at the moment and in future years. It does not seek to urge particular political opinion on your son/daughter, but rather it seeks to encourage political awareness so that informed decisions can be made. It is intended to be an active subject, one in which your son/daughter can see that he/she can and does make a difference to people's lives.

To develop understanding of this, the government has listed specific topics for study. Schools can, however, choose the balance of treatment that is warranted on these topics, dependent upon the needs of their area.

There are three strands to the Citizenship programme:

1. To make students more informed about the world in which they live.
2. To develop students' skills in debate and enquiry.
3. To encourage active involvement in the community [local, national or international].

At Meadowvale High School we already cover many of the skills and some of the content linked with Citizenship, so although Citizenship can be considered to be a new subject its introduction has also become an opportunity to formalise some of the work that we are already doing. Citizenship will be delivered within subject areas across the curriculum and on occasion there will be specified Citizenship Days to allow us to cover themes not covered within normal curriculum time.

One of the underlying concepts of Citizenship is teamwork. This being the case, it seems fitting that both you as a parent and your son/daughter [as well as staff and governors] should be involved in the process of deciding what emphasis we should give to the various strands of the content specification. Your son/daughter will be given the chance to voice his/her views on this in school, while a questionnaire has been attached to this letter to allow you the same opportunity. In this way, we will be in a better position to deliver the programme that parents in this area believe is needed. I would be grateful, therefore, if you would complete this questionnaire and return it to me in the enclosed envelope at your earliest convenience.

If you wish to discuss this matter further, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours faithfully,

E. M. Allen [Mrs]  
[Citizenship Co-ordinator]

### **Figure 3.2 Letter to parents**

Since there was no way in which I would have entertained any risk to any of my participants as a result of the assistance they offered to my research exercise, I was satisfied that reasonably informed consent would be ethically acceptable to this project.

Nevertheless, in endeavouring to honour the principle of full information, feedback on the data gathered from the questionnaires - together with the developments that had ensued partly as a result of these data - were published in the school newsletter that is distributed to the parents, students and governors each term; readers wishing further details were invited to contact me.

The issue of beneficence was addressed in the questionnaires introduced at the outset of the research exercise within the written information given to all participants, as demonstrated in the introductory paragraph of the letter I sent to parents (See Figure 3.2(a)). Establishing the benefits of the completion of these questionnaires to teaching staff was a more difficult task. Conscious of the comments I had collected earlier in the staff interviews that acceptance to this initiative might be hampered by fears of the unknown, and still very aware of the disturbing lack of preparation evident in our school prior to the implementation of citizenship education in September 2002, I was very keen to provide staff with as much information about this initiative as they needed once that I was in a legitimate position to do so. Consequently, I strongly believed that to issue questionnaires to staff in an impersonal way would have done little to improve upon what I considered to be the shortcomings of the past. By contrast, therefore, I launched these questionnaires to teaching staff at individual year meetings of tutor teams in September 2002. This allowed me (with the supporting presence of an Assistant Headteacher) to outline the principles of the initiative, how we anticipated it would affect our school within the next year and answer any questions that staff wished to pose. I also provided a written explanation of these points so that staff could refer to them when completing their questionnaires. Offering staff the opportunity to express their views on the impending delivery of citizenship issues was an appeal to collective responsibility for whole-school matters and an opportunity to recognise the importance of staff opinions (a frequent staff-room protest). Aware that some staff would not necessarily respond to this, together with the cynicism that others might feel towards the initiative, one benefit mooted to staff was the possibility of additional funding to departments for the introduction of citizenship-driven themes within subject areas. In a school where inadequate funding was a constant complaint, the appeal to such a benefit might seem shallow albeit functional, but in fact Ely (1990) would support the concept of reward as a necessary condition for change in an educational environment. The written introduction to the questionnaire itself echoed the point I had made about

adapting the initiative to suit the needs of the students at our school, rather than jumping through a government hoop: *'Schools have flexibility in deciding what emphasis they want to put on each of the three strands. To reach a decision that best suits us, I would be grateful if you could please complete the following questionnaire.'* Some staff completed the questionnaires within the timeframe of the meeting at which they were issued and returned them to me the same day; others were completed at a later stage. Questionnaires were distributed to non-teaching staff on a one-to-one basis.

The introduction to the questionnaire issued to governors was prefaced in a similar way to that of the staff, with the intention of emphasising that input into this questionnaire would yield benefits for the school: *'As you are aware, citizenship education is now an entitlement at Key Stages 3 and 4. Below is a brief outline of the citizenship programme. Schools have flexibility in deciding what emphasis they wish to place on each of the three strands. In reaching a decision that best suits us, your views will be most welcome. I would be grateful, therefore, if you would please complete the following questionnaire. Your responses will be placed alongside those of the staff, parents and students, all of whom will also be given the opportunity to complete this questionnaire.'*

The wording that introduced the student questionnaires completed in September 2002 was less formal, in keeping with the needs of the audience: *'We want your views! As from this year we will be studying a new subject called citizenship education. You will find out more about this in time. Some of this will be covered within your normal lessons and some will be covered by special citizenship days. Below is a brief outline of the citizenship programme. Schools can choose what emphasis they want to put on each of the following areas. By completing this questionnaire you will be able to influence what we do, so your views are very important.'* I was fortunate in that, as a mother of three teenage children during this research period, I was able to pilot all student-centred materials with them, regardless of whether or not they were directed towards issues of beneficence. Since two of these teenagers were sixteen years and one of them fourteen years when this questionnaire was in its draft stage, they were adequately equipped to comment on its structure and suitability for other students at Key Stage levels 3 and 4. Therefore, in providing feedback to students on the data, an

exercise that also invited further comment from them, care continued to be taken to ensure that the language level was apt, as can be seen in the examples found in Appendix 4.

Excel spreadsheets were used to collate the quantitative data gathered. The completion of *Questionnaire One* by students placed the monitoring of students during this task in the hands of individual tutors, which is not necessarily an ideal situation; but then the equivalent questionnaire completed by parent, staff and governors could not be overseen by me either – such is a shortcoming of questionnaires. The circumstances in which the responses are gathered are therefore beyond the control of the researcher.

Reporting back the results of these questionnaires varied in form. I used the medium of the termly-produced school newsletter, issued to all parents and governors, to facilitate feedback on *Questionnaire One*. Readers were offered the opportunity to contact me for further details, if required, although none chose to do so. As already discussed, the students of *Questionnaire One* received a bar chart of the results of their year group, with invitations to comment further on these – which many did.

### **3.3 Phase Two: Citizenship through History - quasi-experimentation, 2002**

#### **3.3.1 Introduction**

The initial objective of the research project had been to ascertain the needs of the school in which the sample was drawn. In the responses to *Questionnaire One*, knowledge and understanding of the importance of voting had fared well in the perceptions of students and parents; moreover it was not unnatural that I should muse over the issue of political literacy by virtue of my position as a history teacher and also the Citizenship Coordinator. I therefore moved on to question the extent to which Meadowvale High could, either by its current approaches or by any modified approaches, act as a forum for political literacy, community involvement and social responsibility. There is much support in the literature for the role that history lessons can play in the delivery of citizenship education (e.g. Arthur *et al* 2001; QCA, 1998; Edwards & Fogelman, 1993; Entwistle, 1996; Fogelman, 1991) and this was a view I had intuitively adhered to long

before any of these listed authors ever reached press. Hence a new research question emerged:

- To what extent can the study of history at KS3 provide a stimulus for a sense of responsibility towards others?

As already discussed, the instruments used for collecting data on the first research question were semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and open-ended written responses carried out during the research period. A reliance on one instrument for data collection weakens any claims to validity, hence the use of interviews and written responses. By ensuring that both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered, an attempt to secure a degree of methodological triangulation was addressed. However, to strengthen the research process further, the strategy employed for answering this research question was quasi-experimentation. A restriction of quasi-experimentation is that it cannot prove theories, although it does have the ability to probe. While ideally true experimentation would have been a more scientific method for evaluating change, in education this is not always possible. A teacher researching in her own classroom is faced with intact groups and cannot create randomly assigned and comparatively matched students for the benefits of this type of research. Campbell and Stanley (1963) have discussed the weaknesses of quasi-experimentation, and in light of the evidence they have produced a pre-test post-test design was adopted as the least flawed research style. Nevertheless, great care had to be taken in the choice of the experimental and control groups, for non-equivalent matching would have negated the research results. Pre-tests and post-tests (which had been previously piloted) were used to evaluate the success of the experiment, and a summative assessment in the form of an essay was also given to the experimental group as a means of triangulation.

### **3.3.2 The sample**

A total of 109 Year 9 students constituted the sample used within the history lessons of this research. This sample was a subset of the year group as a whole and therefore provided results that offered potential generalisability for the year group as a whole. Care was taken to minimise threats to validity by incompatible groupings. On entry to the high school allocation to all class groups in Year 9 is primarily based upon

aggregated Key Stage 2 levels in science, maths and English. Admittedly, other variables always do play a part: gender balance is a factor, some attention is paid towards forming classes that represent an approximate mix between students of the two main feeder schools and advice is heeded on the need to keep certain individuals apart. In search for external validity, I studied the transfer levels of four classes I taught and, in a bid to minimise threats to internal validity, bore in mind the timing of all of these lessons throughout the week. Such considerations led to the creation of two experimental groups whose lessons were taught back to back on the same days and would therefore have no opportunity to discuss their lesson experiences with their peers. The remaining two classes became the control groups. The compatibility of the groups, based on the aggregated levels at Key Stage 2, was established by a Mann-Whitney test, which accepted the null hypothesis that there was no significant difference between the two sets. This was also seen when tested against teacher assessment of the two groups arrived at by analysis of ongoing work submitted in the first term of Year 9. These results can be seen in Tables 3.2 (a) and (b).

Aggregated levels at Key Stage 2	Number of students	
	Control groups	Experimental groups
3	4	6
4	30	28
5	20	21
Test statistic	0.100	
Conclusion	Accept $H_0$	

**Table 3.2(a) Key Stage assessment of group compatibility, 2002**

Teacher assessment	Number of students	
	Control groups	Experimental groups
4	7	5
5	22	28
6	19	11
7	6	11
Test statistic	-0.124	
Conclusion	Accept $H_0$	

**Table 3.2(b) Teacher assessment of group compatibility, 2002**

### 3.3.3 Ethics in experimentation

Informed consent is a key issue in social science research and discussion of this – or at least a state of reasonably informed consent – is raised in section 3.2.8. The BERA ethical guidelines of 1992 (later revised in 2004) urge voluntary informed consent to be a part of research studies, and although the legitimacy of deception has been convincingly argued by Peter Foster (1999) both the experimental and the control groups were aware that they were part of a research programme. None of the groups pursued the reasons for this and no student offered any objection to being involved. Parents of the experimental groups were involved also, by virtue of a homework exercise that required their views on voting. It was made clear on this homework information sheet that the results of views offered would be a subject for further discussions. At no time was any attempt made to probe the political persuasions of any person.

Neither group, however, was aware of its own status within the exercise. Herein we can feel a tension in ethical issues for the classroom researcher. While it is expected that a teacher will state her learning objectives at the start of a lesson, to highlight these in relation to the research exercise might have proved detrimental to the results. Cognisance of being labelled as being either part of an experimental group or a control group would have turned a set of lessons into a talking point outside the classroom which could have affected the way in which the students approached the lessons. Since care had been taken to select classes whose lessons occurred at times that strengthened the case for internal validity, it could have been self-defeating to make public the exact

nature of the groupings at that stage of the research. Peter Foster raised this dilemma at the 1996 British Educational Research Association (BERA) conference, and the revised Ethical Guidelines for Education Research published in 2004 acknowledges this stating, 'Researchers must therefore avoid deception or subterfuge unless their research design specifically requires it to ensure that the appropriate data is collected...In any event, if it is possible to do so, researchers must seek consent on a post-hoc basis in cases where it was not desirable to seek it before undertaking the research' (BERA, 2004:12, p.6).

On completion of the quasi-experimentation, the format of the differing lessons and the data that had been generated were openly discussed with both sets, thereby conforming to the above guidelines.

### **3.3.4 The schedule**

The first example of experimentation in history took place in November and December 2002 with feedback to the students in January 2003. The procedure for this experiment began with a pre-test in both the control and experimental groups. The questions posed mirrored quite deliberately those conducted by a MORI poll of 2002, which aimed to identify the attitude of young people to politics. This decision was taken to allow me to place my findings alongside those of 2686 other young people and measure any correlation. The format for the pre-test and the post-test required students to respond, on a five point Likert scale, their level of agreement to the following statements:

- Voting is not important
- How people vote makes a difference in the way England is run
- It will be my duty to vote when I am older
- Politicians are all the same

By using these statements I was attempting to gauge the extent to which the knowledge and understanding gained through the various stages of this exercise helped to shape the thinking of students. I was focusing on the significance of the power of politics as a tool

for change and gauging the students' sense of commitment to this concept. In doing so I was assessing the degree of responsibility that students believed this could engender.

QCA provided two suggested schemes of work for Key Stage 3 students of history and one of these schemes *unit 12: Why did women and some men have to struggle for the vote in Britain? What is the point of voting today?* (see Appendix 2) provided the framework for the lessons covered with the experimental groups. The control group continued with the programme of study used in previous years. Both groups ended these units of work with a post-test.

The introduction of this unit of work was timed to follow on from a study of the problematic living and working conditions of working class people in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Students had been quite appalled at the contrasts that could be drawn with current conditions. The teacher's guide to this specification emphasised flexibility of use and adaptation as seen fit; as a consequence, the scheme of work was followed as suggested but with four amendments:

1. To establish the inequalities of enfranchisement in 1831 each student randomly selected the character card of someone living in 1831 and then assumed that persona for the next three lessons. *Citizenship: A Scheme of Work for Key Stage 3 – Teacher's Guide* (QCA 2001, p.14) states that students are more likely to become active citizens if they take responsibility for their own learning. This is explained as being possible through a number of opportunities including exploring and discussing 'the varied attitudes and values underpinning issues encountered in society, considering other people's experiences and thinking about, expressing and explaining views that are not their own, for example through debates, simulated activities or role play'. Hence a decision was taken to personalise this aspect of the unit to enable students to become more actively involved in the lesson.
2. Unit 12 of this QCA scheme of work, as it stood, was very lengthy. In an attempt to cover all aspects of it within a four-week period, sections five to eight were

modified in style. Each class was divided into four groups, each group having the task of researching one particular aspect of development and delivering a presentation to the rest of the class. The four themes were:

- The reasons behind the 1832 Reform Act and what it did/did not achieve;
- The rise and fall of the Chartists;
- The reasons behind the changing attitudes of politicians in the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century and the effects these had;
- Attitudes towards women and their struggle to gain the right to vote.

This approach also provided opportunities for students to develop skills of participation and, through peer marking, enabled them to reflect on the part others played in this process.

3. Section 10 (*What is the point of voting today?*) was modified in two ways. To investigate some of the issues relating to voting today students interviewed adults at home on their attitude to voting. Each student asked two adults whether or not they had voted in the last general election, local election and European election and sought explanations for their decisions. These reasons provided the basis for a class discussion, and some students drew bar charts on the whiteboard to illustrate the number of voters for each election. This modification was made to provide an opportunity for students to reflect on this theme in relation to their own background and that of their peers, thus widening their understanding of the issues within an environment to which they could identify. The second alteration was to add an exercise designed by Tishman and Andrade (1997) that had encouraged critical thinking in research I had conducted in 2001. What posed as a simple game was in fact a thought-provoking exercise that allowed students to explore the concept of voting by analysing its purposes and its effectiveness in action (see Appendix 3). This exercise also provided a foundation for the summative assessment essay.
4. The essay suggested in section 9 of the scheme of work (*Why did women and some men have to struggle to get the vote? What is the point of voting today?*)

was used as one means of assessing the unit as a whole. For this reason it was carried out at the end of the experiment; discussion of the issues for study in section 10 was completed in advance of this and suggestions for including reference to section 10 were made when the assessment exercise was set, as indicated by the following instructions that were issued:

*'In the 2001 general election in this country only 59% of the adult population voted. This was the lowest turnout since 1918. There were a number of reasons for this.*

*We have seen how and why Parliament was reformed during the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. If it were to be reformed in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, what changes would you make to encourage everybody to vote? (E.g. changing the age of voters, the length of Parliament's lifetime, introducing proportional representation so that everyone knows their vote counts – rather than the voters of the party with the most votes; a change of priorities over what politicians deal with etc.)*

*Think about the efforts that people in the past went to get the right to vote. Remember that today countries that have only recently become democracies are very, very keen to use their votes, yet established democracies seem to take them for granted. Is it wise? If we do not vote, will the views of other people be carried out instead of our views? If we are forced to vote, would this mean that we were no longer living in a democracy?'*

In providing this introduction to the assessment exercise I was establishing a framework for its preparation. The examples offered were not intended as a step towards influencing the responses, although I could clearly see that this would be a possibility. The examples were all ones that had surfaced within our class discussions of section 10 of the unit's scheme of work and were offered merely as a prompt to memory. This assessment exercise was completed within the classroom prior to completion of the post-test. Students were instructed to style this essay as if it was a letter to their local MP. The first part of this letter assessed knowledge and understanding of political history while the second part focused on the application of this learning to the contemporary situation.

### 3.3.5 Post-experimental developments

Since the discussions emanating from the feedback on the pre-test/post-test data did not imply that students valued politicians as role models for meaningful change, this led to additional research within these groups and the search for attitudinal influences was made. This was achieved by use of attitudinal questions, the first two questions were defined by me and the choices for response were freely selected by the participants.

1. List the three most important influences in your life.
2. Which type of people do you think are good role models?

Both of these issues were attempting to uncover examples of people who have impact upon the lives of young people. By leaving the choice of responses open to the students I was endeavouring to avoid any sense of biasing their answers. However, by contrast, the response choices for my third question were partially drawn up by me and partially by the students. This was because they found the task of creating their own criteria difficult once the question was posed. I therefore suggested talent as a possible criterion and they added their remaining options.

3. What do you think are the characteristics of a good role model?
  - Talent
  - Achievement
  - Trustworthiness
  - Good looks
  - Confidence
  - Caring nature
  - Other

The fourth question was based on a poll issued by MORI in 2002 (in Citizenship PA, 1 (1) 2002) and students were given the freedom to select as many characteristics as they deemed relevant.

4. In your opinion, which of the following are the most important things that make someone a 'good citizen'?
- Respecting others
  - Obeying the law
  - Looking after the environment
  - Being a good parent
  - Having a say in what goes on
  - Volunteering to do things
  - Voting at elections
  - Other
  - None of these
  - Don't know

The data gathered from these four questions were discussed openly with the respondents. By tapping in to the sources of influence that impacted upon students I was attempting to understand more fully their thinking so that I could work with that knowledge to shape the future stages of this curriculum change within Meadowvale High.

### **3.4 Phase Three: Searching for meaning through questionnaires, 2003-2006**

#### **3.4.1 Introduction**

Questionnaires formed a major part of this research exercise and were widely used. Since a number of questionnaires were employed I have elected to include them within the body of this text at appropriate points for ease of reference for the reader. As explained in section 3.3, I initially employed this research method in 2002 to elicit from a cross section of stakeholders associated with Meadowvale High their views on the various themes of study suggested for citizenship education at Key Stages 3 and 4. These questionnaires have been referred to as *Questionnaire One*. Secondly, this method was used in 2003 and again in 2004 to gauge the impact of implicit and explicit delivery of a given theme within the domain of citizenship education. The questionnaires completed in 2003 will be identified as *Questionnaire Two (a)* and *(b)*,

while those completed in 2004 as *Questionnaire (c)* and *(d)*. This instrument was again employed to investigate attitudes to global citizenship from students actively involved in third-world projects in a period from 2004-2006, and will be referred to as *Questionnaire Three*. Again, they are subdivided: *Questionnaire Three (a)*, *(b)* and *(c)* referring to the three cohorts of 2004, 2005 and 2006 respectively. Collectively, I have termed these questionnaires: Strand 1 – the view from the inside.

In addition, this was the instrument chosen for approaching UK parliamentarians between September 2003 and March 2004 in an attempt to identify possible stimuli for active citizenship; these are titled as *Questionnaire Four*. Although this example may seem tangential, it was intended to provide additional enrichment to the main project and was a decision taken following the reflection on the findings of other elements of the research exercise. This element of the research is defined as Strand 2 – reflections from Westminster. While a questionnaire approach can also be claimed to have been employed within history classes, this formed part of the quasi-experimentation employed and has been identified within Phase Two.

### **3.4.2 The questionnaire sample – an overview**

The sampling unit within the community, approached between 2003 and 2004 to complete *Questionnaire Two*, consisted of:

- A cohort of Year 9 students in 2003 whom I taught and another cohort in 2004; the latter sample being part of the first year group to receive explicit citizenship teaching at my school. The Year 9 students of 2003 completed *Questionnaire Two (a)* and *(b)*, while those of 2004 completed *Questionnaire Two (c)* and *(d)*.

The sample responding to questionnaires issued between 2004 and 2006 was:

- Three cohorts of students across Years 11-13 who were involved in international visits commensurate with global citizenship. These students completed *Questionnaire Three (a), (b) and (c)* between 2004 and 2006.

The sampling unit beyond the community, approached between 2003 and 2004 was:

- UK parliamentarians in office in the government administration of 2001-2005 and the respondents from this sample completed *Questionnaire Four*. This sample provided details about the origin of their own political stimuli and the extent to which their secondary education played a part in this.

#### **3.4.2.1 Strand 1: The view from the inside, 2003-2006**

The cohort of students involved in assessing the implicit delivery of citizenship issues on non-uniform days - *Questionnaire Two (a) and (b)* - consisted of fifty students in their first year of their study in our school in 2003. This sample size did not approach the figures quoted by Krejcie and Morgan (in Cohen *et al* 2002) as those needed for confidence sampling, but in defence of this sample size, every attempt was made to ensure that the sample was representative of the year group as a whole – which Denscombe (2003) believes is one step towards justifying smaller sample sizes in small-scale research (while keeping the analysis limited to few subdivisions was another step suggested by Denscombe and adopted by me). These students were identified on grounds of academic compatibility with the year group as a whole – as demonstrated by the Mann-Whitney test in Table 3.3, the null hypothesis stating that there no was no significant difference between the two sets. On entry to the high school, allocation to class groups in Year 9 is primarily based upon aggregated Key Stage 2 levels in science, maths and English. This Mann-Whitney test was based on the statistics produced from the aggregated scores from these key stage entry levels, the data for which were available for 262 students in the year group and all of the 49 students involved in this exercise. Although it was not a condition of this research exercise to select students whom I taught or knew in some capacity, it was possible to allow for this due to the range of classes I taught within this mixed-ability year set. I opted to take advantage of

this so as to ensure greater control over the manner in which the questionnaires were completed. In this way I felt more confident that the data produced from them were internally valid.

Aggregated levels at Key Stage 2	Number of students	
	Year group	Research groups
3	8	3
4	95	15
5	155	29
6	4	2
Test statistic	-0.360	
Conclusion	<i>Accept <math>H_0</math></i>	

**Table 3.3 Key Stage assessment of group compatibility, 2003**

The Year 9 students involved in completing *Questionnaire Two (c)* and *(d)* in 2004 were members of two of my three citizenship classes. This sample totalled 42 students; 272 students constituted a year group. Mixed-ability and mixed gender groupings marked the constitution of the classes composed for citizenship education. Once again, as demonstrated by Table 3.4, selection for academic compatibility was achieved by means of a Mann-Whitney test which demonstrated acceptance of the null hypothesis that there was no significant difference between two of my citizenship classes and the year group as a whole. The aggregated Key Stage 2 data available for this test equated to 258 of the 272 students in the year group, and to 41 of the 42 students in the classes under scrutiny. A slight imbalance of gender was unavoidable in the sample due to the fact that the intake of that particular year was weighted towards boys.

Aggregated levels at Key Stage 2	Number of students	
	Year group	Citizenship classes
3	14	3
4	90	14
5	150	24
6	4	0
Test statistic	-0.326	
Conclusion	<i>Accept H<sub>0</sub></i>	

**Table 3.4 Key Stage assessment of group compatibility, 2004**

Table 3.5 illustrates compatibility between the two research groups that engaged with this element of the research project.

Aggregated levels at Key Stage 2	Number of students	
	Research group 2003	Research group 2004
3	3	3
4	15	14
5	29	24
6	2	0
Test statistic	-0.587	
Conclusion	<i>Accept H<sub>0</sub></i>	

**Table 3.5 Compatibility of research groups, 2003 and 2004**

*Questionnaire Three* emerged as result of unanticipated developments. I began this exercise on the understanding that I would gather research data for two years, 2002-2004. Although I adhered to this on the whole, there was one area that invited further development. In 2002, prior to the start of my own project, the geography department of Meadowvale High led a community-based visit to a remote village in Kenya. This visit appeared to have a profound impact on its participants. Therefore, in 2004 when another cohort prepared to venture to the same location I decided to investigate this as

part of my own research - this raised the issue of global citizenship in action and merited attention. For this reason nearer the close of the official period for research gathering, the groups of students involved in this project became a new sample. This was a self-selecting sample based upon the list of students who had chosen to participate and the questionnaire attempted to identify how this visit had impacted upon this group. Twenty-seven students (12 female; 15 male) out of a total of forty-two who visited Kenya chose to participate in the questionnaire issued in 2004, although only eight returned both the pre-test and post-test versions for comparison. While the completion of both questionnaires offered a fuller interpretation of student response, the nature of the questions did permit the post-test questionnaire to have some relevance even if there was not a pre-test equivalent from the students concerned. The data that this questionnaire yielded led me to replicate this exercise with subsequent groups. As a consequence this produced two further samples of completed sets of pre-test and post-test questionnaires: eight (4 female; 4 male) of the twelve students who visited the Gambia in 2005; and twelve (11 female; 1 male) of the forty-two students who visited Kenya in 2006. Therefore, although not all students completed both the pre-tests and the post-tests, data from this exercise were gathered from a total of forty seven students.

#### **3.4.2.2 Strand 2: Reflections from Westminster, 2003-2004**

One sample that critics might claim bore no direct relevance to our local community was the sampling of UK parliamentarians between September 2003 and March 2004. Although this sample might seem to be extremely disconnected with the previous samples, I believe it had a part to play in unfolding the attitudes I wished to explore, thereby contributing to the bigger picture and justifying its position in this research. The rationale behind this decision to select this sample is explained below.

The results yielded from the quasi-experimentation that had been employed within Year 9 students during the autumn term of 2002 had, to some extent, reinforced some of the much-publicised concern over political apathy among young people. It also led me to question the extent to which a school can impact upon the political socialisation of young people. This led me to a new line of enquiry: instead of attempting any further at this stage to see if we as a school could encourage political interest by suggested initiatives such as teaching citizenship through history, I wished to identify some

evidence of the extent to which schools had been significant in inculcating political socialisation in the past - hence the introduction of *Questionnaire Four*.

The Crick Report, in advocating citizenship education, aimed at ‘no less than a change in the political culture of this country, both nationally and locally’ (QCA 1998, p.7). While there is always a body politic active in Westminster, the inferences made in the run up to the formalisation of citizenship education in England and Wales were that, since commitment to politics as an agent of change was not symbolic of the attitudes of the young people as a whole, the apparent apathy of the nation was a threat to democratic stability and needed to be rectified. It would be naive to assume that Professor Crick and his team expected to revolutionise the acclaimed politically disaffected youth to the extent that in droves they became potential candidates for Parliament. It would, however, be correct to assume that a generation of politically alert young people was the anticipated consequence; in other words, embedded in this new educational programme was a wish to promote political socialisation. It is not my intention to embark upon a discourse on the reasons for political apathy at this point, but the evidence to support its existence cannot be ignored, as Nick Cohen succinctly illustrated in discussing attitudes to UK by-elections in *The Observer* on 18<sup>th</sup> July 2004:

‘The Iraq War should have blasted apathy away. It split the country down the middle and strained families and friendships. If Blair had lost both seats to the Liberal Democrats, the pressure on him to go would have increased. If he had won both, he would have been safe. Voting might have changed something. Yet presented with the findings of an official inquiry by a diligent media on the eve of the election, three-fifths of voters in Leicester and two-thirds of voters in Birmingham were too idle to walk a few hundred yards to a polling station and pick up a pencil.’

Cohen’s lamentation on the disinterest in current affairs by those under 34 years of age is hardly new, but it serves to launch this debate for two reasons: firstly it reiterates the need to search for an explanation for political motivation when awareness of current affairs does not provide it; secondly it has the potential to highlight a position mooted in this thesis that knowing about a key issue does not have as much direct impact on active citizenship as experiencing it firsthand. In other words – without of course wishing this

upon them – had the people of the English cities of Leicester and Birmingham been actively involved in the Iraq War rather than being passive observers, would they have voted in droves to register their feelings?

Causation is invariably complex. If, as Cohen exhorts, a controversial war cannot inspire 21<sup>st</sup> century British citizens to vote, what will? This research exercise did not purport to offer a magical answer to this question, but it did set out to probe into some of the factors that shape attitudes and to tentatively suggest some positive linkages, which, if fostered, might provide a stimulus for young people impacting positively upon the lives of others – something that the Government asserts can be achieved by political action. In the words of Carspecken (1996, p.26) ‘Actions are conditioned by many things, not determined.’ In searching for the view of these people I was probing for actions that might have conditioned behaviour patterns. This was attempted through the analysis of the views of UK politicians holding office in the 2001-2005 Government. Since Members of Parliament are the ultimate example of politically active citizens in the UK, any lessons that could be learnt from their experience offered potential for reflection.

A political culture is established through the acceptance of particular values, norms and behaviour patterns. Herbert Hyman, in discussing political socialisation, claims that: ‘it is true that the continuity of such patterns over time and space suggests that the individual has been modified in the course of his development in such a way that he is likely to exhibit certain persistent behaviour apart from transient stimulation to his contemporary environment (1969, p.25).’ This process – political socialisation – leads to the development of characteristics by which an individual or a group can identify itself and is value-laden. If political socialisation breeds enduring attitudes, there is validity in identifying processes that lead to political socialisation in the UK, since an enduring attitude that the Government wished to engender from the introduction of citizenship education was active citizenship. While literature aimed at identifying the stimuli for political socialisation within England is not lacking (e.g. Banks and Roker, 1994), the emphasis does seem to lie in the field of American research (e.g. Smith, 1999; Rosenthal *et al.*, 1998; Simon and Merrill, 1998). This gave added impetus to a research focus that explored the origins of political socialisation in the UK.

How then do individuals learn political norms, values and behaviour patterns? Opinions in general can be formed from varying influences, for example family, school, the media, events and/or the impact of social or economic groups. Does the same apply to attitudes towards political socialisation, or is one factor (school) more significant than another? This was a question that underpinned this strand of the research exercise and led to the selection of a specific sample in the search for possible answers. It was important to conduct this research exercise with a group of individuals for whom it was evident that political socialisation had indeed led to active citizenship. For this reason, a sample that collectively could be defined as politically active was indeed the incumbent parliamentarians of the UK at the time of the research. Moreover these individuals were representative of the Government that had debated and then introduced citizenship; some indeed continue to be interested in its progress. As parliamentarians, these people not only acquired political orientations of their own, but they also play a significant part in wanting UK society to transmit political values.

This curriculum innovation is part of the national educational agenda and, as long as it has a place there, the motivations of those who insist on, follow and shape its implementation, must surely bear relevance. Initiatives such as ‘MPs Back to School Day’ are proof of the wish of ministers to raise the profile of political literacy in education; references to citizenship education in Hansard debates continue to be plentiful, with many of these references being attributable to parliamentarians who participated in this survey. This reflects an ongoing interest of members to the progress of this government policy and provides additional validity for the involvement in this survey of such high profile and very busy individuals. Take, for example, the response of the (then) Lord Privy Seal, Mr. Peter Hain, to Gisela Stuart, Labour MP for Birmingham, Edgbaston in March 2005: ‘I am pleased to hear that my hon. Friend is engaging with young people in citizenship education projects in her constituency because, as the Modernization Committee recently reported to the House, the gap between our parliamentary democracy and our younger citizens is a big problem’ (HC Deb 10<sup>th</sup> March 2005 c1690WH). An extract such as this confirms the ongoing concern over a lack of political awareness and involvement by young people (despite the introduction on citizenship education in 2002), a recurring lament by politicians in the literature associated with citizenship education. Subsequent Hansard debates (e.g. HC Deb 23 March 2006 c141WH) bears out this anxiety.

The Labour Government of 2001-2005 wanted young people to be politically active and supported citizenship education accordingly. However, what instils an interest in politics into some individuals but not into others is quite another matter and not automatically one that can be expected to be achieved by a new education programme. This research set out to probe this issue by focusing on those who, by their chosen profession, were clear examples of people who had indeed developed such a commitment. David Blunkett, the former Minister for Education responsible for the introduction of citizenship education, claimed in 2001: 'The civic republican tradition of democratic thought has always been an important influence for me' (2001, p.19). Why was this so? What provided the impetus for this view? Was it a tradition that had been instilled into Mr. Blunkett at school or did it trace its origin from some other aspect in his life? The answer to such questions is important if we are to establish a framework for political stimuli. Without one, the hopes of success in the citizenship initiative remain vague. The impact of ministers such as Mr. Blunkett in shaping the citizenship initiative cannot be denied, so the use of this research instrument can be justified in that it offered potential to probe factors influencing the thinking of those whose actions led to the introduction of – and continuation of - education for citizenship. While sadly Mr. Blunkett declined to engage with this research (on the grounds that he believed his attendance at a school for blind children might skew my data), other colleagues did and the findings produced from this exercise provide insight into experiences and attitudes that might have the potential to relate to others.

Establishing the relevance of this sample was easier than guaranteeing returns from it or the reliability of the responses. It could be argued that any survey that is based on such a select group of influential people cannot by definition be representative of the wider population. It was never my intention to suggest otherwise. Instead I wished to seek from this non-probability sample some potential inferences and from this a valuable understanding that could perhaps enrich the larger research picture under investigation. Table 3.6 identifies details relating to the respondents.

Recipients	659
Nil response	279
Total responses received	380
Written refusals to partake	77
<b>Completed, anonymous respondents</b>	<b>181</b>
<b>Completed, named respondents</b>	<b>122</b>
<i>Labour</i>	73
<i>Conservative</i>	37
<i>Liberal Democrat</i>	10
<i>Democratic Unionist</i>	2

**Table 3.6 Responses from UK Members of Parliament**

A survey can employ a number of methods and although a postal questionnaire can be limited as an instrument of research because of its potentially low yield of responses, it was the only possible choice for this exercise. Securing the attention of important people is not easy and to establish data that were sufficiently wide to draw inferences necessitated a large sample. For this reason the total population of 659 MPs was targeted. While there was no guarantee that a postal questionnaire would produce a response rate of significance, there was in truth no other method that could be employed to promise a stronger yield from such high profile individuals. Despite this, the completed questionnaires, both anonymous and named, totalled a pleasing response rate of 44%.

### **3.4.3 The questionnaire schedules**

In keeping with the format used for the discussion on the samples employed for these questionnaires, this sub-section will also consider the questionnaires in two categories: those conducted within the community and those beyond the community. The text for each questionnaire has also been incorporated within the body of these sub-sections for ease of reference.

### 3.4.3.1 Strand 1: The view from the inside, 2002-2004

UNICEF works to make a difference in the lives of people. It was fitting therefore to use issues linked to this organisation to gauge if any study of UNICEF could impact on how students respond to others in society. The pre-test and post-test schedules for *Questionnaire Two (a)* and *(b)*, completed in 2003, can be viewed in Figures 3.3 and Figure 3.4. Questions 1 to 3 in both schedules aimed to assess levels of factual understanding. While it could be argued that a failure to answer question 1 correctly negated the rest of the exercise, it is also possible to claim that the nature of the questionnaire could elicit a general, if not specific, level of understanding about the subject matter and was therefore worth pursuing regardless of the outcome of these three questions.

While it is also possible to argue that correct answers offered to questions 2 and 3 could be based on speculation rather than on understanding, I was interested in including these questions nonetheless. This was because I believed that the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child should (and would) become central to any study of rights and responsibilities within an agenda for citizenship education and therefore deserved identification and exploration. It was always my intention to seek clarification on the students' approaches to these two questions as part of the feedback session. Admittedly, failure to answer the previous questions correctly could undermine the confidence of students to respond to question 4. This question intended to probe the extent to which students were aware of the basic principle that children everywhere have rights.

Question 5 focused on the theme of the 2003 UNICEF Day for Change. It was divided into three parts for the following reasons: part (a) aimed to identify whether students had any awareness of third world issues; part (b) wished to establish whether or not students could link the work of UNICEF with the third world; part (c) touched on the concept of shared, community responsibility within a global perspective.

Question 6 in the pre-test was deliberately exploratory. It provided the means for immediate quantitative and qualitative data on the traditional framework provided by

the school for highlighting potential citizenship issues. It was hoped that the results of the post-test data would act as a form of verification for the responses given to this question. Questions 6 and 7 in the post-test were also purposefully exploratory so as to gain feedback on the methods used to identify the details associated with the Day for Change. Question 8 permitted students to review the response they had previously made to question 6 in the pre-test; it also allowed me to measure their response alongside the degree to which their previous questions indicated understanding of the Day for Change.

<b>UNICEF 2003</b>	
1. What does UNICEF stand for? (A)	_____
2. Have you heard of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child? Yes/No. (B/D) If yes, name one of the rights this charter says children have. (C)	_____
3. How many rights do you think are on this charter? (E)	_____
4. UNICEF thinks it is important for children worldwide to know about the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Why do you think this is the case? (F)	_____
5. This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Cambodia and Tanzania. (a) Why do you think this is so? (G)	_____
(b) What do you think UNICEF might be doing to help these people? (H)	_____
(c) Do you think you could do anything to help UNICEF help these people? (I)	_____
6. Is a non-uniform day a good way of making you think or talk about problems elsewhere in the world? Give a reason for your answer. (J/K/L)	_____ _____

**Figure 3.3 UNICEF pre-test 2003**

### UNICEF 2003

1. What does UNICEF stand for? (A)  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Have you heard of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child? Yes/No.  
(B/D) If yes, name one of the rights this charter says children have. (C)  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. How many rights do you think are on this charter? (E)  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. UNICEF thinks it is important for children worldwide to know about the UN  
Convention on the Rights of the Child. Why do you think this is the case? (F)  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Cambodia and Tanzania.  
(a) Why do you think this is so? (G)  
\_\_\_\_\_  
(b) What do you think UNICEF might be doing to help these people? (H)  
\_\_\_\_\_  
(c) Do you think you could do anything to help UNICEF help these people? (I)  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. Was the assembly delivered by the Year 12 students a good way of finding out  
about the work of UNICEF? Yes/No. Give a reason. (M/N/O)  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. Did you take notice of the posters on UNICEF that were around the school?  
Yes/No. (P/Q)
8. Was today's non-uniform day a good way to make you think or talk about  
problems elsewhere in the world? Give a reason for your answer. (R/S/T)  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Figure 3.4 UNICEF post-test 2003**

Figures 3.5 and 3.6 give details of the schedule employed for the pre-test and post-test that constituted *Questionnaire Two* (c) and (d, completed in 2004). Question 1 of this pre-test schedule mirrored that of its 2003 version. This was because the starting point for any assessment of understanding on this organisation began with a measurement of

any prior knowledge of its existence. Question 2 also echoed that of the previous version, while making allowance for the change of geographical focus selected by UNICEF. The rationale for using this three-part question has already been explained. Question 3 shared the basic theme of questions 6 and 8 in *Questionnaire Two (a) and (b)*.

The schedule for the 2004 pre-test was streamlined for a number of reasons. The data resulting from the 2003 version indicated that supported knowledge of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child was non-existent in all cases except one. Where some students had indicated that they were aware of the charter, their inability to support this with any reference – no matter how vague – was unconvincing evidence of their understanding. Moreover the informal discussions that surfaced in the feedback session reinforced this point, as well as confirming my earlier doubt that guesswork had largely informed the responses of those who had attempted to answer question 3 in the 2003 questionnaire. As a consequence of this, I introduced the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child as the key theme to be covered in the first unit of work devised for explicit delivery of citizenship education for the Year 9 students of 2004-5. While I could have maintained questions 2, 3 and 4 from the 2003 schedule as a test of understanding of the Rights of the Child, this was no longer the focus of this investigation (even though it had been shaped by it). The second unit of work devised for explicit delivery focused on UNICEF, which provided an element of continuity with the research completed in 2003 as well as with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child studied in the first term of 2004; it also offered an ideal subject for study in anticipation of the ‘MP Back to School Day’, an occasion on which I had arranged for our local MP to visit Meadowvale High. Ever conscious that I was searching for meaningful delivery of citizenship education – trying to find ways in which I could shape the dispositions of students - I was at this stage more interested in assessing the learning outcomes of the unit of work I had devised around the study of UNICEF’s work in Ghana and Vietnam. This questionnaire would therefore assess the extent to which the knowledge and understanding gained from this unit would equip students for the question and answer session that would take place on the ‘MP Back to School Day.’

## UNICEF 2004

1. **What does UNICEF stand for?** (A)

---

2. **This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Vietnam and Ghana.**

[a] **Why do you think this might be necessary?** (B)

---

[b] **What do you think UNICEF might be trying to do to help these people?** (C)

---

[c] **What do you think you could do to help these people?** (D)

---

3. **Have you any suggestions on how we can turn a non-uniform day into a useful way to make people think or talk about problems elsewhere in the world?** (E)

---

**Figure 3.5 UNICEF pre-test 2004**

In the 2004 UNICEF post-test schedule, questions 1 and 3 remained identical to those in its pre-test equivalent and acted as a quantitative measure of assessment. The introduction of question 2 offered students an open canvas on which to prioritise their learning from the unit of work studied. Whereas questions 1 and 3 sought specific responses, question 2 allowed students to make their own judgements on their learning. Moreover, I considered it meaningful to introduce question 4 into the post-test questionnaire because this offered the possibility of transferring learning about citizenship to learning through citizenship – descriptions that can be attributed to David Kerr (1999a) in his own discussion on the earlier thinking of Terence McLaughlin (1992). McLaughlin urged for maximal interpretations of citizenship education, which he saw as focusing on enhanced participation based on knowledge, values and dispositions. From my perspective, this was therefore the most important question in the exercise. The points that were raised through this question formed the context for some of the key questions posed by Year 9 students to our MP when he joined us for the

MP Back to School Day in April 2004. This involved Year 9 students delivering a PowerPoint presentation in front of this visitor, their year group and staff. This was followed by a 45 minute question and answer session.

<b>UNICEF Review, February 2004</b>		
<b>1</b>	<b>What do the letters UNICEF stand for?</b> (A)	<b>[1]</b>
<hr/>		
<b>2</b>	<b>What were the most important things you learnt from the research and presentation you did?</b> (E)	<b>[2]</b>
<hr/>		
<hr/>		
<b>3</b>	<b>This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Vietnam and Ghana.</b>	
	<b>[a] Why is this necessary?</b> (B))	<b>[1]</b>
<hr/>		
<hr/>		
	<b>[b] What is UNICEF doing to help these people?</b> (C)	<b>[2]</b>
<hr/>		
<hr/>		
	<b>[c] What did you do to help these people?</b> (D)	<b>[1]</b>
<hr/>		
<hr/>		
<b>1.</b>	<b>On April 23rd 2004 our local MP, Mr. _____, will be in school to meet Year 9 students. We will be telling him about the right to education for all people. We want him to go back to Parliament and persuade the government to do more to help children get a quality education everywhere. What do you think are the most important things we should be saying to him?</b> (F)	<b>[3]</b>
	▪ _____	
	▪ _____	
	▪ _____	

**Figure 3.6 UNICEF post-test 2004**

The method for assessing these questionnaires was in keeping with that carried out in 2003: the data were entered on to an Excel spreadsheet, one mark awarded for each correct point made among the quantifiable responses; while patterns of response were sought among the subjective responses and grouped accordingly. Feedback was both verbal and written. In discussing such matters with the students, links were made to other data these students had provided on their viewpoints to citizenship issues. In this way I was able to consider their current perspectives alongside what they anticipated to be their future views.

The rationale for *Questionnaire Three* emerged from an awareness of the positive impact that had been created by a school visit to a third world community. A school visit to the Kenyan Marich Pass in 2002 had resulted in a dramatic reaction from the students involved. On their return these students, unprompted, became highly vocal about the need for individuals to take action to help others in less fortunate positions than ourselves; their ongoing determination to raise funds to build a classroom for a village school in the Marich Pass could not go unnoticed. From this, a link was forged, developed and sustained. For me as a researcher this initiative offered a new dimension for exploration – the possible use of service learning (as a consequence of community service) as a tool for effective delivery of citizenship. Service learning has been defined by Harold Howe in three, progressively tapered forms, ‘The term service learning can be loosely defined as an educational activity, program, or curriculum that seeks to promote student learning through experiences associated with volunteerism or community service. This somewhat wordy statement might be summarised into: service learning emerges from helping others and reflecting on how you and they benefited from doing so. A still briefer statement might go back to the Bible: “Love thy neighbour” and learn from doing it’ (1997, p.iv). It would be naïve to claim that every experience (community or otherwise) leads to learning, as critics of experiential learning are keen to emphasise. However, the experiences of the 2002 cohort had indeed led to reflection on their experiences and reflective action had ensued. This therefore provided sufficient justification to further explore this situation and my interest was further reinforced by an awareness of the analysis of Perry and Katula (2001) of 35 empirical studies focusing on the relationship between service and citizenship.

**Kenya 2004****Name:** \_\_\_\_\_**1 Have you ever been to Kenya before? YES/NO****2 If NO to question 1:**

[a] What do you imagine the way of life of the people of Kenya will be like?

---

---

---

[b] What influences have led you to think this?

---

---

---

**3 If YES to question 1:**

Why do you want to return to Kenya?

---

---

---

**4 What do you hope to learn/ achieve from this visit?**

---

---

---

***Thank you for completing this***  
Please return it to Mrs. Allen

**Figure 3.7 Kenya pre-visit 2004**

Since another visit to the Marich Pass was planned for 2004, I decided to introduce a pre-visit/post-visit questionnaire to students who had elected to visit this Kenyan outpost in 2004. I was fortunate in being able to pilot the post-visit questionnaire with some of the students from the original visit in 2002; the pre-visit questionnaire, which can be seen in Figure 3.7 - and which will be known as *Questionnaire Three (a)* - was discussed with them only on an informal basis since hindsight knowledge on their part would have skewed their handling of this version of the questionnaire.

The questions in this pre-visit schedule wished to assess any prior knowledge of the situation and the sources of influence. They also sought to identify the extent to which any student re-visiting the area was still driven by any change of attitude gained two years previously. In this way I was attempting to measure the extent to which their potential learning experience might be filtered before departure through advance expectations of the situations. Sheckley and Keeton describe this as the 'search strategy' (in Schine (ed.) 1997, p.37) set up by the cognitive-affective template. Moreover, this questionnaire, in searching to identify prior perceptions, was providing the medium to explore the covert impact of socio-cultural forces. In this way it was attempting to forestall any critics of experiential learning who claim that this theory of learning does not respect the power of socio-cultural elements on learning processes.

By 2005 my thinking had taken a new direction and the pre-test questionnaire was re-drafted and issued to students who visited the Gambia that year. This questionnaire - *Questionnaire Three (b)* - was also used with a new cohort of students who visited Kenya in 2006 (evident in Figure 3.8)). The rationale behind the additional first two questions in the pre-visit schedule owed its origin to literature I had been studying in relation to both the data emanating from the quasi-experimentation strand of this research exercise together with that gathered from the views of the parliamentarians. By this stage I was pondering the extent to which individual patterns are replicated within cultural settings. Verba *et al* (1995) have claimed that non-political voluntarism and political participation are comfortable bedfellows; a tenet that Kerry and Patula assert is synonymous with citizenship (2001, p.333). In addition Perry and Katula also raise the issue of the possible impact of 'antecedents' (family socialisation and socio-

economic status). Together these factors shaped the reasoning behind the additional first two questions.

<b>Kenya 2006</b>	
<b>Name:</b>	
<u><i>Pre -visit</i></u>	
<b>1</b>	<b>Have you any previous experience of voluntary community work? If yes, briefly explain what your involvement was.</b>
	_____
	_____
<b>2</b>	<b>Has any member of your family been involved in voluntary community work? If yes, briefly explain what this was.</b>
	_____
<b>3</b>	<b>What do you hope to learn/achieve by your visit to Kenya?</b>
	_____
	_____
<b>4</b>	<b>Have you ever been to Kenya before?                      YES/NO</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>If NO to question 4:</b>
	<b>[a]    What do you imagine the way of life of the people of Kenya will be like?</b>
	_____
	_____
	<b>[b]    What influences have led you to think this?</b>
	_____
	_____
	<b>If YES to question 4:</b>
	<b>Why do you want to return to Kenya?</b>
	_____
	_____
	_____
<b>Thank you for completing this. Please return to Mrs. Allen's office (next to the common room) before the end of this week.</b>	

**Figure 3.8 Pre-test 2006**

**Kenya 2006 *Post-visit***

**Name:**

**1** In what ways was the 'Kenyan experience' different from what you imagined?

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---

**2** Are there any aspects of Kenyan culture that you think we, in England, should adopt? Why?

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---

**3** What do you think the students in Kenya might have learnt about English people from the time you spent with them?

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---

**4** What will remain as your best memory of Kenya?

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---

**5** Has this experience changed your thinking/attitudes/viewpoints or your approach to life in any way? If so, how?

---



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---



---

*Thank you for completing this.*

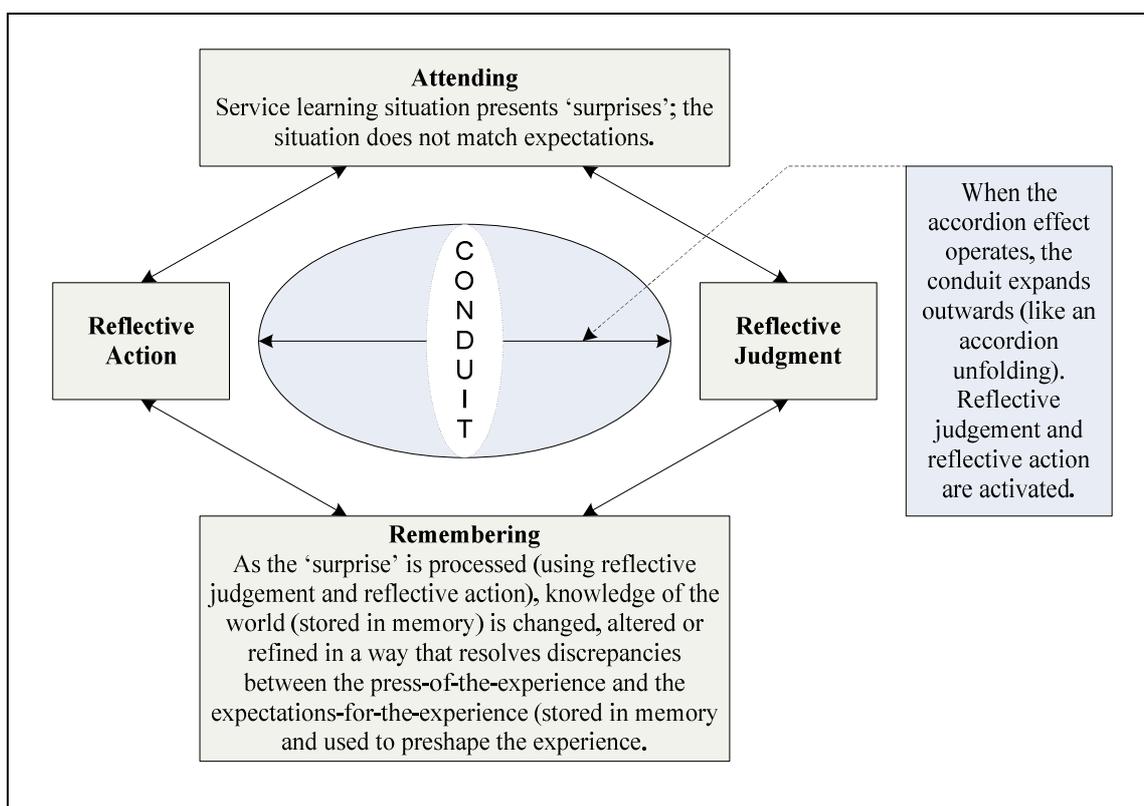
Please return this questionnaire to Mrs Allen's room in the Post-16 Centre by 6<sup>th</sup> April.

**Figure 3.9 Kenya post-visit 2004 and 2006**

As Figure 3.9 indicates, the purpose of the first question in the post-visit schedule - *Questionnaire Three (c)* - was to act as a counterbalance to questions 2(a) in the 2004 pre-visit version and question 5(a) in the 2005/6 equivalent. I was interested in

assessing the extent to which attitudes had changed as a result of the experience, either in relation to perceptions of a different culture, and this underpinned the issues raised in questions two to four.

The final question was, for me, the one that potentially carried the most significance. It had become very clear from the early discussions with the students who made the initial visit to Kenya in 2002 that student perspectives had been dramatically altered by their experience and awareness of this fuelled my interest. This also resonated with the suggestions of Sheckley and Keeton who assert that an experience that challenges the anticipated expectations of an individual creates an ‘accordion effect’ (1997, p.44). Their interpretation of this can be viewed in Figure 3.10.



**Figure 3.10 The accordion effect**

By this Sheckley and Keeton mean that information is no longer processed by the semantic memory with little cognitive effort (what they term the ‘conduit effect’), but by contrast, the learner’s construction of the experience is expanded such that reflective

judgement and reflective action are initiated. 'The more prevalent the accordion effect, the more important are contextual factors in guiding the interaction between episodic and semantic memory'. I had therefore added this strand of enquiry to my research project to gauge if the reaction in 2002 was unique to this set of students, or whether by exploring a comparable experience with subsequent groups there might be grounds to suggest that such experiences led to a depth of processing which, in turn, had created stronger models of meaning in the semantic memory. If so, this could raise discussion on the potential for utilising such experiences for effective delivery of one of the strands of citizenship, despite John Beck's dismissal of community participation as a 'soft-centred' approach to citizenship (1998, p.108). If indeed such experiences gave students the confidence to believe they could make a difference to the lives of others, then I would be satisfied that this was one example of meaningful citizenship.

While critics might assert that this small exercise lacked objective rigour, it was accessing the only students available within this case study who were in a position to provide an explanation for possible behavioural change under such circumstances. In analysing the responses to these questionnaires, I wished to identify within these small available cohorts of students 'patterns and processes, commonalities and differences' (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.9). It was not my intention to assert that from such a small sample any definitive generalisations could be made for the wider population, but any suggestions that might be identified would add an interesting layer to the picture being sketched around the effects of experiential learning among students from Meadowvale High.

#### **3.4.3.2 Strand 2: Reflections from Westminster, 2003-2004**

The use of a survey as a research strategy and a questionnaire as its instrument were chosen. This was because together they could provide empirical evidence from the past that could be both wide and inclusive. While the past might not repeat itself there are lessons to be learnt from it, and in this particular case there was much potential for this – analysis of the data that would be produced from surveying the experiences of MPs would establish a base upon which the current issue of political literacy among the young could be explored from a more knowledgeable foundation.

Conscious of the fact that the chance of securing responses was slender, a decision was taken that I was aware would leave my methodology open to criticism: the questionnaire was not piloted by any politicians. There were two reasons for this: firstly, it could not be guaranteed that a piloted questionnaire to this group would generate sufficient responses by which to measure its success. Secondly, had the questionnaire been piloted this would have reduced further the final (uncontrollable) sample size available; ever-conscious of the likelihood of a low response yield from this particular source, I was convinced that no parliamentarian would be prepared to complete a piloted questionnaire and then a second version. However, the schedule for the questionnaire was reviewed by adults interested in active citizenship prior to its circulation. When an attempt to produce responses by electronic mailing yielded only one response from twenty correspondences, this was replaced with the use of the traditional postal method.

As Figure 3.11 illustrates, the questionnaire used – both in the email and the postal variety – was deliberately short. While it is possible to criticise the brevity of this questionnaire (especially since there were many questions that could have been posed), I resisted adopting a fuller approach in the belief that it might deter responses from busy people. The first four questions were closed in structure to provide immediate quantitative data, whilst the open nature of the fifth question afforded the possibility of rich qualitative material from those who elected to complete it. Either way, completed responses would provide information for analysis, while clearly some would afford more valuable data than others.

The opening question focused on school size:

- What was the approximate size of the school you attended from 14-16 years? (a) under 600 pupils; (b) 600-1000; (c) over 1000

1. What was the approximate size of the school you attended from 14-16 years?  
a) Under 600 pupils                      b) 600-1000                      c) Over 1000
  
2. Did your secondary education play a significant role in moulding your desire to become politically active?  
Yes/No
  
3. If yes to question 2, was this due to:
  - a) The ethos of the school as a whole?
  - b) The impact of certain individuals?
  - c) Experiences within specific subject areas?
  - d) Other [please state]
  
4. If no to question 2, what stimulus led you to enter the political arena?
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
5. Please feel free to add any other comments you might like to make on the above or on citizenship education in general.

**Figure 3.11 Questionnaire to MPs**

The rationale for this stemmed from my own concern over the possible effect increased class and school size sometimes seems to have on the confidence levels of some individuals. While there will always be students who will blend successfully in any environment into which they are placed, I have – over many years of teaching - seen others dwarfed in confidence when part of a large organisation. Two of the strands of citizenship education (skills of enquiry and debate; skills of participation and responsible action) would surely prosper most readily among young people who were confident with their surroundings. Ungood-Thomas, in discussing identities sees people

as narrators in a quest. In making this journey through life, ‘... as tends to happen all too frequently with any journey, there will (also) be misleading directions, wrong turnings, dead-ends and confusion. The problem is, how can a person in quest, potentially destabilised, or actually dispersed, by erratic internal and external happenings, build a reliable sense of identity?’ (1997, p.29). If students were indeed dwarfed and therefore constrained by the size of their environment, this might be a destabilising force in developing them as active citizens. Since Aristotle believed there was an optimum size for a successful *polis*, perhaps there was an optimum size for a school – currently, the jury is still out on this (Trebilcock, 2007). I was therefore interested in seeing if the respondents to this questionnaire fell into a similar category and, if so, whether they deemed their school to have influenced their propensity for political activism. Three school sizes were offered to provide a prompt to memory. The selection of these sizes was taken after discussion with other members of staff about their own impressions (both as students and as teachers) of what constituted a small, medium and large school.

The second question struck at the heart of the exercise:

- Did your secondary education play a significant role in moulding your desire to become politically active? Yes/No

While it is possible to argue that the use of the word ‘significant’ might lead to differences in interpretation amongst respondents, I would justify its inclusion in that I wanted respondents to make a personal judgement on impact. If this impact was measurable in different ways for different people, then this was consequential for the individual concerned and also of mutual significance to the question set.

The responses to this question provided me with immediate quantitative data, which – if positive - was supplemented by the following question:

- If yes to question 2, was this due to:
  - a) The ethos of the school as a whole?

- b) The impact of certain individuals?
- c) Experiences within specific subject areas?
- d) Other (please state)

The options offered were all examples of conditions, implicit and explicit, that are capable of affecting human experiences within an educational environment, while the 'other' option gave respondents the freedom to answer the question on their terms rather than on mine.

The fourth question probed the unknown:

- If no to question 2, what stimulus led you to enter the political arena?

While it was easier to identify conditions that might influence students inside the parameters of a school, once the search for the stimuli for political socialisation was extended beyond these walls, the exercise would enter uncharted (albeit interesting) territory. In seeking responses from this question I realised that I was inviting data that would be rich but complicated to analyse.

Denscombe warns: 'It is worth remembering that there is, perhaps, no more effective deterrent to answering a questionnaire than its sheer size' (2003, p.151). So far I had borne that counsel very much in mind and I had ensured that I had been 'simple, clear and brief wherever possible' (Cohen and Manion 2002, p.261). However, it did concern me that the brevity of the questionnaire design risked losing valuable perceptions; hence the final statement:

- Please feel free to add any other comments you might like to make on the above or on citizenship education in general.

Ownership of the data was now completely in the hands of the participants, although I was well aware that this could create a platform for partisanship.

In processing the data, commonalities were found amidst a wealth of suggested factors. While these examples stood as independent variables, others lent themselves to grouping under the theme of an ‘issues dimension’. This concept takes its origin from a model formulated in 1995 by David Selby and Graham Pike who favour a four-dimensional framework for global education: dimensions based on space, time, self and issues. This framework, supported by Hicks (2003, p.271), can be seen in Figure 3.12.

<b>Core elements of global education</b>	
<b>Issues dimension</b>	<b>Five major problem areas and their solutions: inequality/equality; injustice/justice; conflict/peace; environmental damage/care; alienation/participation</b>
Spatial dimension	Exploration of local-global connections that exist in relation to these issues
Temporal dimension	Exploration of interconnections between past, present and future in relation to these issues and in particular scenarios of preferred futures
Process dimensions	A participatory and experiential pedagogy that explores values perspectives and leads to politically aware local-global citizenship

**Figure 3.12 A suggested framework for global education**

It was interesting therefore, to see the emergence of the issues dimension at this point, for not only did it later dovetail with interpretations I drew from the research I carried out through *Questionnaire Three*, but it helped to reinforce my views on citizenship education that opportunities need to be found by which people feel driven to make a difference to the lives of others. The political strand of citizenship education might be the powerful for bringing about change on a public scale, but without a commitment to change brought about by a sense of social and moral responsibility there will be little impetus inside individuals to behave in this way.

#### **3.4.4 Issues of protocol and ethics, 2003-2006**

The manner in which I approached issues linked to the ethics of research through the use of questionnaires has already been discussed in section 3.2.8. The following discussion therefore relates to additional ethical matters significant only to

*Questionnaire Two, Three and Four*, as well as to the procedural issues pertinent to these specific questionnaires. The questionnaires issued to students between 2003 and 2006 were all accompanied by verbal explanations of the purpose of the exercise. In this explanation, I began by outlining the nature of my research to date; I then indicated the potential offered by their contribution. None of the people approached were pressurised to complete these questionnaires or any particular parts of them, addressing issues of voluntarism. Verbal encouragement was given to all students to return their completed questionnaires, but no element of compulsion was employed – as perhaps the disappointing level of response to the 2006 Kenyan questionnaire was to indicate. The questionnaire issued to the parliamentarians was accompanied by a letter, which reflected my current thinking at the time of writing, and provided a guarantee to confidentiality. This letter can be seen in Figure 3.13.

Date

Dear

I am a research student at the Department of Education, Communication and Language Sciences at the University of Newcastle working towards a PhD in education. I am currently investigating the possibility of causal links between school size/structure and a propensity for active democratic participation in adult life. As you are aware, citizenship education is a new and evolving subject in the school curriculum. In order to contribute to the literature on curriculum development and change in this subject, I wish to explore its influential facets and I believe that the background educational experiences of current Members of Parliament would be a valuable source of data in this study. I am focusing my research on citizenship education at Key Stages 3 and 4.

I would be extremely grateful, therefore, if you could take the time to provide me with the following information. To answer questions 1-3 please **underline** the appropriate choice. Question 4 requires a brief comment. Please then return to me in the envelope enclosed.

I realise that I am not one of your constituents, but I would very much appreciate your input on this matter. I have endeavoured to make this questionnaire as brief as possible in the hope of securing responses. All responses will of course be confidential, in accordance with research ethics.

Thank you – in anticipation of your help.

Yours sincerely

Eileen Allen

**Figure 3.13 Letter to parliamentarians**

This range of questionnaires was completed by various groups under different circumstances. *Questionnaire Two* was completed by students within my own classroom. Critics might claim that this situation challenges my earlier claims that no student was compelled to participate in this exercise. While I accept this situation meant that all students in specific rooms at particular times were invited to complete these questionnaires, some were returned blank and no action was taken on this. While *Questionnaire Two* was completed under my supervision, *Questionnaire Three* was not - students completed these in their own time and this lack of monitoring could have implications for quality control. The data produced by both *Questionnaire Two* and *Questionnaire Three* were examined for patterns of recurrence. The post-test questionnaire that created the second part of *Questionnaire Two* was marked out of ten - this was purely in response to requests by the students themselves because they told me this measurement would be an indicator to them of how much they had learnt. Within *Questionnaire Four*, the pre-grouping of the options offered as part of the research design made an Excel analysis of the nominal data straightforward; but the procedure for analysing the qualitative data was less so due to its open-ended structure. The process began with utilising the raw data – examining these for recurrences of words, ideas and events – and then inter-rater reliability was sought by opening these findings to the inspection by others within the academic field at workshops held at a postgraduate conference at the University of Newcastle.

The students completing *Questionnaire Two* (d) used the mark they were awarded out of ten as the basis for a class discussion on this matter. Students completing *Questionnaire Three* chose to use the data produced as the theme for an assembly to their peers. There was little feedback to the respondents of *Questionnaire Four*, largely because so many of them were anonymous. There was, however, some informal feedback to two parliamentarians.

### **3.5 Summary**

This chapter has identified the various elements of this research design. In doing so it has explained the rationale for the research methodology within its contextual setting and its instrumentation. It has also explained the principles underpinning the interview and various questionnaire schedules as well as the programme of study used for the

quasi-experimentation. Issues of protocol and ethics have been discussed. This chapter has also raised the issue of complexity in endeavouring to conduct practitioner research within a case study environment and has given some indication that the dilemma that this generated has impacted upon the development of the research process. I have identified the potential problems associated with my own role as practitioner and researcher within the same environment and the effect of this will be discussed in Chapter Six. In sweeping a broad brush across the research canvas by use of a hybrid strategy and the use of a diverse sample I have attempted to reduce criticisms based upon the limitations of the case study as a research method in education and to justify the rationale for adopting a mixed methods paradigm, whilst also clarifying such an approach added up to a coherent project.

## Chapter 4 Findings

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the findings gathered from the various strands of this research project. Following this introduction, section 4.2 focuses on the data gathered from Phase One, providing examples of the responses offered by the interviewees as well as presenting the findings from the first wave of questionnaires. A summary of the findings from Phase One, submitted as an example of a Best Practice Research Scholarship (reference number S1072), was published online in 2003 by <http://www.teachernet.gov.uk/research/> a website developed by the DfES. Data produced from Phase Two, the quasi-experimental element of this project, can be seen in section 4.3. This is represented quantitatively by use of Mann-Whitney tests and bar charts and qualitatively through extracts taken from comments made by students. The quantitative data from this experimental strand of the project have been published in *Educational Studies* (Fryer, 2004). Responses to the questionnaires, the focus of Phase Three, are illustrated in section 4.4 both in quantitative form by means of bar charts and in qualitative form by use of quotations offered by a variety of respondents. While the findings reported in this chapter are embedded within extant literature, such references are present in outline only and will be developed more fully in the discussions that constitute the following chapter.

The objective of this research was to find ways in which citizenship education could be delivered in our school in a way that was meaningful to the development of the students as individuals in society. To me, this meant finding ways in which they could feel equipped to make a difference to the lives of other people. This concept was therefore at the heart of all of my thinking and discussion of this will exist both implicitly through the findings relevant to each research question contained in this thesis and explicitly in the following two chapters.

### 4.2 Phase One

#### 4.2.1 Setting the scene - staff interviews, 2002

Interviews provide the means by which participants can 'express how they regard situations from their own point of view' (Cohen *et al* 2002, p.267). This was precisely my reason for engaging this method and the findings below illustrate that this objective

was achieved. To assist the reader through this phase of the research data I have pre-empted each set of responses with the question that initially prompted them. Where I have included examples of direct quotations from these responses, I have embedded them within the text; elsewhere, responses that demonstrated commonality have been summarised for ease of reference.

The initial question was based on the stimulus material I gave to interviewees: a statement of purported contributions of citizenship education which can be seen in Chapter Three.

Q1 Do you agree that each of the claims above should be part of a school's responsibility to its students? If so, why? If not, why not?

All ten respondents concurred with this. Staff commitment to the benefits of an education in citizenship was already evident in the literature (Torney-Purta *et al* 2001), so unanimous support was not surprising. In qualifying their answers, two interviewees commented on the need for schools to develop the whole child. According to one respondent, 'Society cannot rely on parents and, on the whole, students cannot assimilate this by themselves. Also, school isn't just academic and society needs well-rounded people' (Teacher 1, female, Subject Leader). Such comments mirrored those later reported by Leighton (2004) and Hooghoff (2007). While this respondent lacked faith in parents, two others felt that parents needed to play their part in developing these skills and that the degree to which it was part of the school's responsibility was dependent upon the balance that was achieved in the partnership of responsibility between parents and school. One lamented that it was a sad indictment on society that this needed to be formalised, while another insisted that these aims would be better achieved through attitudes within our school rather than through the formal curriculum. Such views retrospectively echoed those that had been voiced by delegates at the conference of the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA) in January 1996, the concerns of whom led to a recommendation to institute the National Forum for Values.

In responding to this question concerns were aired e.g. anxiety over the priority that the school might give to this and the resulting pressure on other areas of school life. One respondent asked, ‘How can we balance it all?’ (Teacher 9, male, Head of Year).

Concerns such as these had been voiced in the literature preceding this initiative (Beck 1998) and were to surface in subsequent studies by other researchers. Another questioned, ‘Are we to be held responsible? How can we ensure against political bias?’ (Teacher 4, female, Subject Leader) Such a fear resonated with the invective launched against citizenship education by Tooley (2000). Although these concerns more accurately belonged to responses to the second question, they are reported at this point since they were received as part of the discussions to the opening question.

Q2 Do you think any of these aims will be more difficult to achieve than others?  
If so, why?

Four main themes emerged in the responses to this question: finding curriculum space; staff competency and confidence; responses to specific areas of study; student attitudes and skills. Interviewees with responsibility for subject delivery were concerned about the logistics of either timetabling citizenship as a separate subject or finding space for delivering elements of it within existing subject areas, ‘Where is the time going to come out of an already bursting curriculum?’ (Teacher 10, male) Assessment also featured in their responses, ‘How can you measure attitudes objectively, meaningfully and in a way that can be reported?’ (Teacher 7, male) Securing assessment criteria that satisfies the demands of all players within any subject area can often be a thorny issue; it is not surprising therefore that concerns arose over such a subject as citizenship education and, as Gerrevall (2002) has intimated, requires much deliberation.

The question of staffing citizenship effectively also featured as a potential problem in achieving the aims of citizenship education through school. Two respondents felt that some staff would feel they lacked competence in areas such as the economy, democracy and controversial issues of a national, religious or ethical nature, while another added, ‘We could end up doing lip-service to the more challenging areas due to an inability to

do them properly' (Teacher 6, male, Head of Faculty). This was in keeping with findings later published both by Oulton *et al* (2004) and Leighton (2004).

While concerns over the teaching of the economy featured in half of the responses, interviewees spoke at greater length about their doubts to achieve success in delivering spiritual issues. It was felt that the school did not value this enough and that since not enough space for it had been created in the past, this would impinge upon future attitudes. Mention has already been made over assessment in general, but this surfaced again in discussion over how it could be adequately achieved within the remit of issues of a spiritual nature.

Other concerns related to the skills and perceptions, e.g. 'Whole class discussions tend not to happen. It ends up being the same people joining in all of the time' (Teacher 2, female, Subject Leader). Comments such as these throw up images of the passive student who can so easily grow into a passive citizen or of the student unmoved by the prevailing pedagogy. Another said, 'It will be difficult to convince students that they can play an effective role in society,' (Teacher 9, male, Head of Year) while a third called for an ideological shift: 'Values are hard to teach. This needs a change of mindset in schools – from content to attitude' (Teacher 6, male, Head of Faculty). Clearly the task ahead of me would not be an easy one. Such responses remind us that classroom experience needs to connect with the world of the student if it is to impact upon that student's value systems and learning processes (Dewey, 1916).

Q3 Values are seen as being very important in citizenship. What are the values that you believe we, as a school, should send out?

Seven out of ten respondents built their answers to this question around one word: respect. This related to respect for other people, their property and their views. There was a general feeling that there were students at the school who were self-centred and needed to develop courtesy for one another so that they could learn to cope with new situations flexibly. 'Society has lost huge amounts of values previously seen as important, such as good manners,' claimed one member of staff (Teacher 1, female, Subject Leader), while another replied, 'Respect and fairness. The type of students we

need to instil this into merely come to school for its social activities. They are wrapped up in their own set of values and citizenship education could try to close the gap between these differences' (Teacher 9, male, Head of Year). The three respondents who did not use the word 'respect' in their answers called for consideration, courtesy and care. Such responses were firmly in keeping with the philosophy of Ungood-Thomas who wrote, 'Respect for persons is the first virtue of the personal school' (1997, p.5). It was reassuring, however, that when students themselves were approached they also acknowledged the need for individuals to respect others.

Q4 Are values currently echoed in:

- The opportunities for responsibility that we give to students?
- The way the school environment is maintained?
- The rules and discipline we employ?

Only two members of staff believed we provided sufficient opportunities for students to develop a sense of responsibility. The work of the school Charity Committee was quoted as an example of group responsibility, as were the efforts made in assemblies and PSHE lessons to echo such values, albeit these lessons being qualified by another respondent as tending to highlight what students can do on an individual basis rather than as part of a team. Other staff felt that we operated on a conveyor belt of instructions to students so that when students were given responsibility they were uncomfortable because they were not used to it. Indeed such responses seemed to confirm Crick's view on the shortcomings of some schools, 'Schools need to consider how far their ethos, organisation and daily practices are consistent with the aim and purpose of citizenship education, and affirm and extend the development of pupils into active citizens' (in Citizenship PA, 2002, p.6). Individual departments were seen to be value-driven than others. The drama department, for example, was cited as keeping values central to its curriculum and this was supported by reference to a recently completed issue-based production that promoted the idea that 'destiny does not happen and that people can change things' (Teacher 5, female, Subject Leader).

The overall response to the focus on the school environment was negative, 'It's a depressing building with few displays, so there's not much incentive. We need to

provide more displays to give students pride in their achievements and in the environment' (Teacher 10, male). Although some felt that Meadowvale High did the best it could under the circumstances, responses were not positive. While the concept of environmental education encompasses a much wider canvas than this example, the conflicting messages that are emitted by environmental neglect do have, in the thinking of Smyth (1996), the potential to confuse and to undermine the importance of the role of the individual in society. Passive acceptance of the status quo can of course lend itself to passive citizenship.

Seven out of ten respondents felt that values were evident in the rules and discipline we employ, although there were reservations in that there was not a whole-school approach and the feeling that priorities were lost with preoccupations over 'petty rules such as a preoccupation with shirts being tucked in' (Teacher 3, female, Head of Faculty). Two respondents replied negatively on the grounds that students were not involved in the decision-making of rules and disciplinary measures. One commented, 'Students don't seem to be able to transfer the attitudes they have towards us to visitors. We don't seem to be able to get them to treat outsiders in the same way, so the values we employ in our rules and discipline don't seem to work outside this framework' (Teacher 5, female, Subject Leader).

Q5 Are the values you identified reflected in the relationships that are evident in the school, e.g.:

- Students to each other?

The staff interviewed felt that positive values were reflected in most of the peer relationships that were evident, although '...like any slice of life it's not among them all' (Teacher 6, male, Head of Faculty). Specific limitations were noted, 'In P.E. the weaker students are helped a lot by others, but this relationship is not sustained once the same students are outside this situation – even as soon as they are back in the changing room' (Teacher 7, male).

- Students to staff – both teaching and support staff?

The responses to this question were uneven. While one respondent described this relationship as ‘excellent’ (Teacher 5, female, Subject Leader), others held reservations. Inconsistencies were explained by student reaction to status awareness (support staff receiving less respect than teaching staff). One member of staff, with a particular interest in curriculum support, suggested, ‘There are pockets of no self-worth. Where problems of low esteem are not seen by teachers, the students lose respect for those teachers’ (Teacher 2, female, Subject Leader).

- Between teachers themselves?

Again the responses were uneven. Opinions were divided, with some staff asserting that on the whole the values seen in relationships between staff were acceptable, while others claimed this varied between faculties and that differences in work values were evident, according to one faculty head. Two respondents were very critical, ‘There are elements of bullying’ according to one very established member of staff (Teacher 1, female, Subject Leader) and, ‘There are walls to be knocked down’ added the youngest member of this panel (Teacher 7, male).

- Between teachers and the senior management team?

Only one respondent was positive at this point; others saw this relationship as problematic and not reflecting the values they would like the school to proffer. There was recognition that differences in perceptions of job specifications at times caused unpleasantness between these groups, although some felt that this was probably the situation in other schools too. However, others were much stronger in their comments, bemoaning a lack of staff respect for members of the senior management team. One faculty head (Teacher 3, female) commented, ‘There is a gulf between us and them. They are divorced from the classroom and do not understand the time we need to prepare,’ while a department head (Teacher 4, female) voiced, ‘Recognition of staff is missing and this harms the values of the school. Communication has not been good and this also affects the values.’ Interestingly, four interviewees used as an example the lack of communication so far witnessed over the introduction of this potentially value-laden innovation, quoting it as a missed opportunity to draw the staff together in an initiative that would have whole-school impact. To these respondents this registered a lack of interest in communicating shared value systems.

- Between teachers and support staff?

Opinions were divided on this issue. While five respondents agreed that respect was evident in relationships between teachers and support staff, five felt that while some support staff were valued, others were not. It was believed that this gave mixed messages to the students and therefore affected student attitudes to such support staff.

- Between support staff and the senior management team?

Eight interviewees stated that they did not feel equipped to answer this question because they had not observed interactions between these two groups. They attributed this to the differences in job remits between these people, exacerbated by the tendency for members of the senior management team to spend most of their time within the boundaries of their own offices. Those respondents that did offer replies to this question were dismissive, 'Support staff are kept in the dark' claimed one respondent (Teacher 8, male, Head of Faculty), while another retorted, 'Support staff – does the SMT know they exist?' (Teacher 2, female, Subject Leader)

- Between the Headteacher and students, teachers, support staff, parents and the community?

Interpretations of the values reflected in relationships led by the Head were stronger among staff who had worked with him more closely. These teachers saw him as supportive, although the strategies he used could be isolationist. He was seen as driven by the parents not by his staff and that although he reacted to people, he did not look around the school to identify issues. There was consensus that the Head could do more to publicise examples of the school's contributions to the wider community. One member of staff, completing his second year in the school, considered the Head to have too narrow a focus, leading him to lose sight of other issues.

Q6 Is the relationship between the school and the parents and the community mutually supportive?

The interpretations of relationships with parents ranged from 'good on the whole' (Teacher 6, male, Head of Faculty) to 'mostly tolerated' (Teacher 8, male, Head of

Faculty). Relationships on an individual basis were deemed as more successful than as a group, with the school being seen as 'the servants of the community rather than as part of it' (Teacher 9, male, Head of Year). One faculty head believed that relationships were soured by parental expectations of academic success that were unrealistic.

Q7 What do you foresee as being the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in introducing citizenship education into our school?

Three respondents believed that, if it worked, one of the strengths of introducing citizenship education would be to improve young people's roles as citizens, making them more responsible in the way in which they related to each other, improve their self-worth and help them to realise that they do play a part in society. Some respondents commented on the advantages of the staff expertise available within our school, while one respondent believed that the impressive record the school had for its charity work provided a strong foundation on which to build other activities related to the consideration of other people.

There was complete consensus that the biggest weakness would be a lack of time, both for creating a space in the curriculum model for this initiative and in delivering its aspects adequately. Staff dislike of change was discussed, as well as possible perceptions of lack of expertise to deliver aspects of the programme of study. Respondents also believed that the successful introduction of the initiative would be weakened through lack of awareness among staff of what citizenship education meant. It was thought that this would lead to misconceptions (e.g. fear of indoctrination) that would dictate against its acceptance. Extant concerns in the literature reinforce attitudes such as these (Garratt, 2000, Barbalet, 1998).

The opportunity for a broader curriculum was identified 'at a time when values in society seem to be breaking down' (Teacher 5, female, Subject Leader). It was felt that this initiative would offer the opportunity to rethink the involvement of PSHE in considering the individual as part of a community, provide a boost to extra-curricular events as well as offering a new dimension to the less-academic student.

Overburdening busy staff was clearly interpreted as the main threat to introducing citizenship education into Meadowvale High. This would be exacerbated by staff shying away from involvement, perceiving themselves to be unqualified to deliver it; a lack of training support serving to compound this. Some respondents believed that the successful implementation of citizenship education would be hampered by certain staff members viewing it as yet another government initiative that had not been thought through properly.

Q8 Would you agree that a manageable agenda for citizenship education at our school could be:

- To raise awareness of current affairs and global issues?
- To help students to realise that they, as individuals, can make a difference to the world in which they live?

All respondents supported the suggestion that an aim of citizenship education should be to raise awareness of current affairs and global issues. While the second suggested aim was supported, it was considered difficult to teach and questionable as to whether such an aim could be measured. It was suggested that it would be opportune to raise the focus of community links as an exploratory step towards this.

Q9 Are there any other comments you would like to add?

Three new points emerged. Firstly, it was suggested that the introduction of citizenship education could be the vehicle for introducing older students to work with younger ones. Secondly, it could be used to forge a link with religious studies – perhaps increasing the time allocation to this subject in Year 9 to two hours per week. Finally, it was commented that the launch of citizenship education was a chance for Meadowvale High to emphasise its chosen values so that students were aware of what was acceptable and what was not acceptable and the reasons for these decision.

To summarise, therefore, the responses above were the observations of ten members of staff from across the school. While each respondent provided his/her own understanding of the prevailing situation at Meadowvale High and the possible

advantages and disadvantages of the years ahead, each interviewee shared a commonality in supporting the principle of the pending initiative and some hope that it would act as a vehicle to develop young people in ways that could benefit both themselves and society. While the interview schedule had given the values dimension a strong stance, it was apparent that respondents also viewed this aspect of the profile of citizenship education both justified and problematic. Concern was also widely expressed over the availability of time and resources together with the dilemma that could be awaiting Meadowvale High based upon staff perceptions of the initiative. This soon proved to be more accurate than I had envisaged at that time.

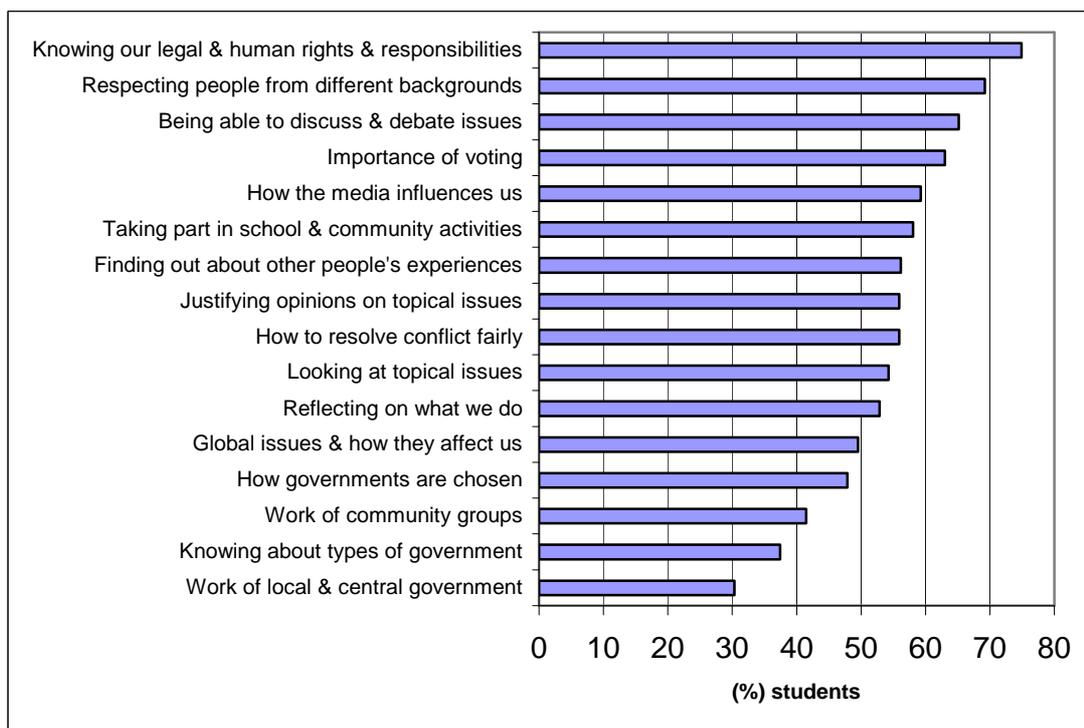
#### **4.2.2 Developing the scene – Questionnaire One**

*Questionnaire One* gathered data from a cross section of stakeholders (students, staff, governors and parents) and began in autumn 2002 in keeping with the introduction of citizenship education in England. Its aim was to identify the priorities that Meadowvale High should take when devising any programme of study for citizenship and engage stakeholders as partners in this process of curriculum innovation.

Some of this data collection ran concurrently with – albeit separately from - the quasi-experimentation. The views gathered from the stakeholders on a citizenship education programme of study (*Questionnaire One*) can be seen in Figures 4.1 to 4.4. All views are expressed as a percentage and relate to the key aspects of the Key Stage 3 and 4 programme of study for citizenship education. The variation in the wording used for the student questionnaire reflected an attempt to make this more accessible to its audience, as outlined in the previous chapter.

#### **Students' Questionnaires**

The findings from the survey of Year 9 and those of Year 10 were collated to produce the results that can be seen in Figure 4.1. The bar charts originally created to illustrate the separate responses of each of these year groups can be viewed in Appendix 4.



**Figure 4.1 Results of student questionnaire**

As Figure 4.1 illustrates, there was strong support for a programme of study that focused on a rights and responsibility agenda. In keeping with the findings from the staff interviews, respect for others was considered a highly important value to study. Media relevance fared well as did the importance of voting, yet paradoxically the wish for knowledge about different types of government did not, and the work of local and central government – in keeping with the findings from some of the other stakeholders – gained a somewhat unenthusiastic response. Following feedback on these data to the students, written responses were invited on what themes/issues students independently thought were needed to know so as to become informed citizens (Appendix 4). Some students responded with themes that belonged in the domain of PSHE – evidence surely of the lack of clarity students had at this stage over the difference between PSHE and citizenship education. The vast majority of the remaining responses reinforced the value of the existing themes, either by listing the themes as worded on the bar chart or by passing comment on their relevance. The following two extracts from Year 9 students and the subsequent two from Year 10 students are included because they offer a wider commentary:

‘I think all of the themes are important but some of them are not important for Year 9. Another theme we could be learning about what we can do to make an impact on our community/country.’ (Female student, Class 9S)

‘The law is important. (Teens might break the law without meaning to or knowing it!) First aid. Teens are always at clubs and if a druggie falls unconscious they will need to know what to do. Information on global issues (Iraq, terrorism.)’ (Male student, Class 9L)

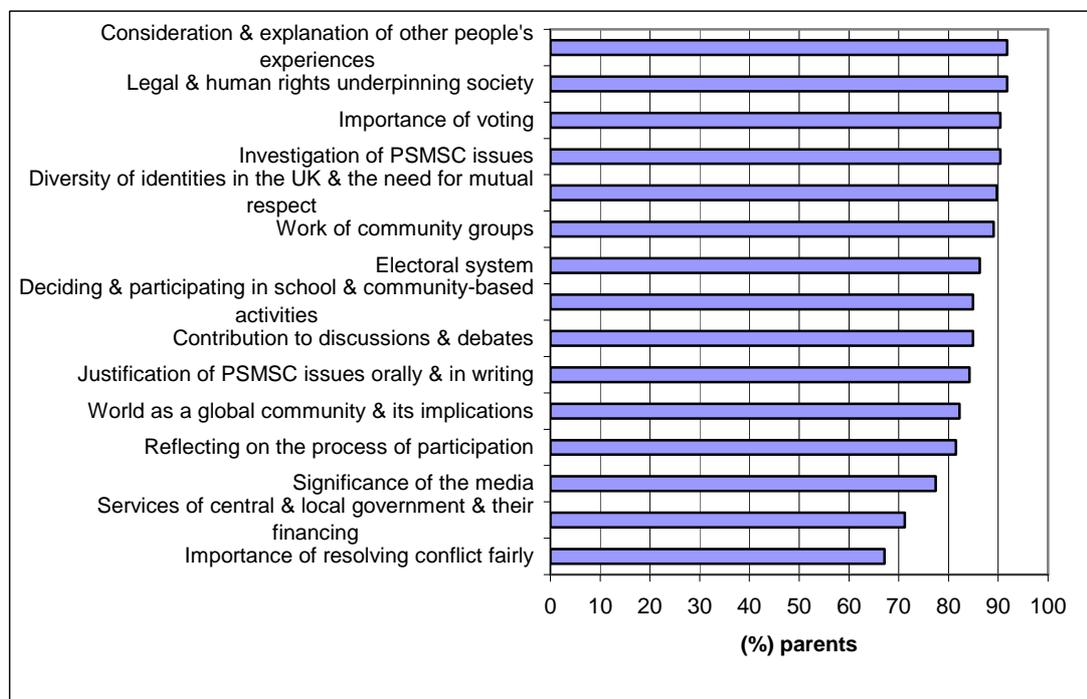
‘I think the work of community groups should be moved above the ‘importance of voting’ because voting is only important if you believe in the politicians etc but working for community groups allows interaction in people.’ (Female student, Class 10T)

‘Teenagers should learn about the world by respecting people from different backgrounds. This I think is the one thing teenagers should learn about if they want to understand because everyone’s different and it’s worth respecting all people. This helps you in all your life to get jobs etc by respecting people you will be more successful because if you don’t respect people, people won’t like you and therefore won’t give you jobs etc. That’s why I think this is the most important.’ (Male student, Class 10T)

### **Parents’ Questionnaires**

The findings from the parents’ questionnaire are collated in Figure 4.2. In keeping with the responses of their offspring, there was agreement both for an agenda featuring rights and responsibility and also a mutual lack of priority for a study of the work of local and central government. However, consideration of other people’s experiences ranked higher in the priorities of these parents, while somewhat incongruously the need to know how to resolve conflict fairly ranked lowest. Nevertheless, on balance, the spread of percentages was not as wide and therefore less vocal within the findings from this set of stakeholders. A number of parents included written comments with their completed questionnaire. These were in keeping with the view that this initiative was one marked

by dissension. The following examples are taken from the responses from both year groups.



**Figure 4.2 Results of parental questionnaire**

‘I congratulate you (sincerely) for your consideration towards parents in this matter. However, I find it lamentable that imposed upon you is a duty which clearly lies within the domain of parenthood. What our political leaders have chosen to label ‘citizenship’ was known to my parents, your parents and their parents as bringing up your children to be decent people – and telling them how they could help change things that were wrong. If ‘citizenship’ becomes a doctrine, our society will remove the unfettered and spirited individuality which gave us the likes of Ellen Wilkinson, Tony Benn and Keir Hardie – and provide us instead with a generation of feeble-minded careerists: the kind of people who are responsible for turning your job into an exercise of box-ticking democracy. With sympathy and support \_\_\_\_\_’ (Year 9 parent, no.1)

‘Quite what the relevance of learning what services are offered by local and national government and funding is a mystery to me. I think that the education offered by ‘good’ schools where positive spiritual and moral development policies

are apparent throughout the curriculum will mean that pupils are already encouraged to be aware about society and being a positive citizen will be a natural part of this development anyway.’ (Year 9 parent, no. 2)

‘English culture is important – much is made about understanding different cultures in this country, which is good, so long as students have a clear understanding of national culture.’ (Year 9 parent, no. 3)

‘ I would like to see an understanding of the role of family and parents in society, plus consideration of what contribution individuals can make to society through work, financial contribution, community involvement, neighbourliness etc. What is the concept of being British? - Pride in our country and its heritage.’ (Year 9 parent no. 4)

‘Why not hand this out to the children to take home and take back in. When you add it all up – it is like the above – a waste.’ (Year 9 parent, no.5)

‘Once again the education system sets off on another wild goose chase. Students are going to be attending lectures/discussions which will do nothing for academic study. This decline in academic achievements, despite what the exam results would like to let people believe, is more than obvious. Every day I come into contact with teenagers behind the till who (sic) cannot add up with (sic) the electronic aid, cannot give change without the machine telling them how much. Rather than add citizenship to the national curriculum get back to basics and teach them something useful!’ (Year 10 parent, no.1)

‘Couldn't this be delivered through RE lessons? Or linked to English lessons and planned for accordingly? Personally, I believe the children are hard pressed with the National Curriculum. Some aspects might prove stimulating for them. BEST OF LUCK!’ (Year 10 parent, no. 6)

‘I only disagree with these two issues (personal opinion and group discussion) because I wonder whether some of the students would think more deeply about some of the topics if they had the space to consider them without the pressure of

having to say something which would not necessarily reflect their true opinions. Also when there are many new concepts to consider they may not be clear as to what their "personal opinion" is. However I would see great value in creating an atmosphere where as many of them as possible would contribute to a discussion and many different views are considered.' (Year 10 parent, no. 14)

'I do not think that any child should have to discuss anything in a class situation. Pupils giving their opinions in front of class mates are often ridiculed!' (Year 10 parent, no. 20)

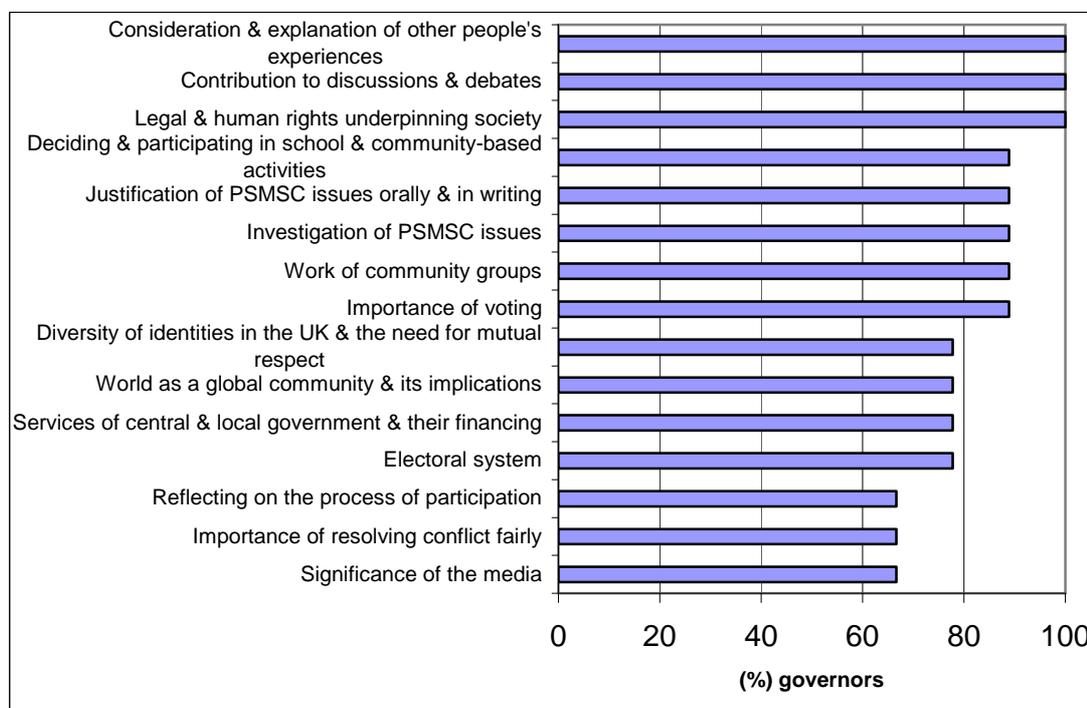
'These comments are specific to 'Consider other people's opinions etc.' Not all 12-16 yrs are able to explain their views and may not want to stand up in front of their friends to talk about issues that they are not fully involved in. These comments are specific to 'Decide and take part in etc.' This would depend on the community-based groups discussed, and the age of the child.' (Year 10 parent, no. 85)

'I think the skills will benefit the students but feel the politics side is only going to be successful if the students are interested in them.' (Year 10 parent, no. 119)

### **Governors' Questionnaires**

As Figure 4.3 illustrates, the results that emanated from the questionnaires completed by the governing body revealed complete support for three of the proposed zones: consideration and explanation of the experiences of others, contribution to discussions and knowledge and understanding of a programme of study focusing on rights and responsibilities. It is interesting to note that the first and last of these three choices also figured prominently in the findings gathered from the parents' questionnaires. However, despite this, the overall shape of these responses was somewhat different in places from those previously reported. For example, the governors favoured a stronger emphasis on knowledge of the work of community groups than the students did, and these governors supported a study of the work of local and central government more positively than either the students or their parents. In keeping with the parents, nonetheless, the governors rated the need for knowledge on how to resolve conflicts fairly as the least

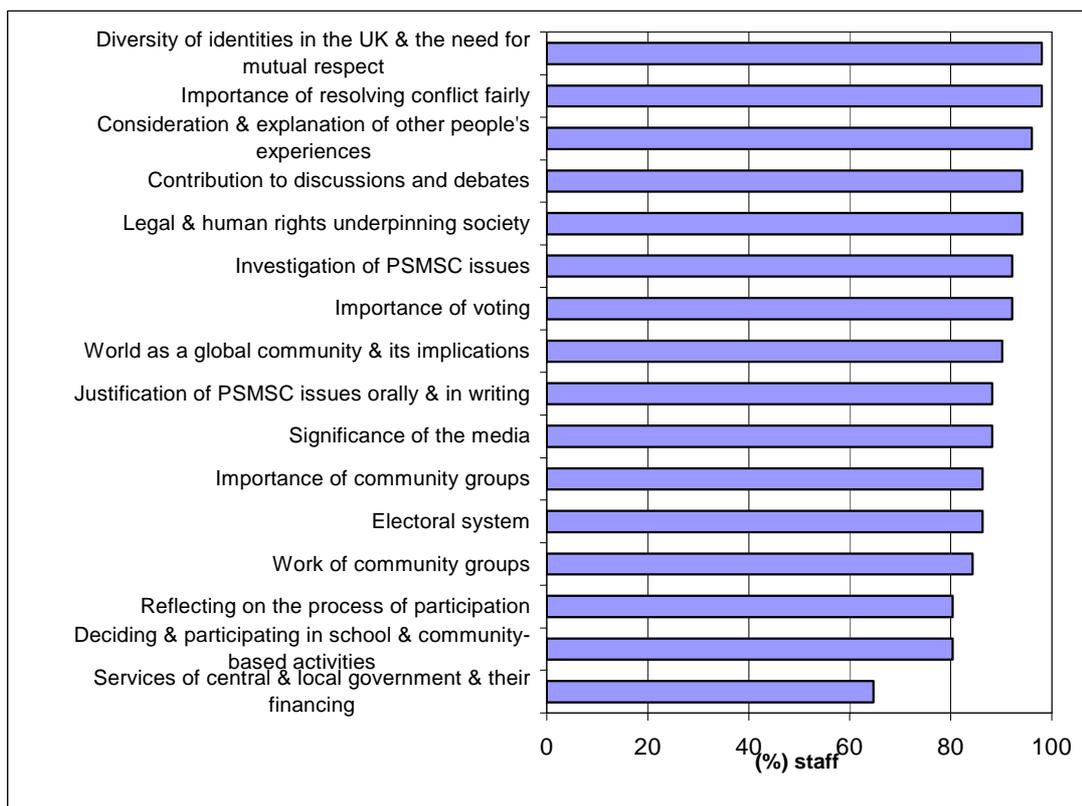
significant disposition. This lowly position in the governors' responses was shared equally with that of the role of the media and that of reflection on the process of participation, neither of these being choices to which parents had responded with great accord either. No additional written responses were offered by this group.



**Figure 4.3 Results of governors' questionnaire**

### **Staff Questionnaires**

The data gathered from the questionnaires completed by the staff at Meadowvale High can be viewed in Figure 4.4. It is easy to see the correlation between the findings gathered in the staff interviews and the prominence to the need for respect that surfaced within the data gathered from this exercise. There also appeared to be mutual agreement between staff and students on the significance of knowing how to resolve conflicts fairly – in contrast with the data gathered from parents and governors. Skills of enquiry and debate, symbolised by contribution to discussions also shared a position of importance, in keeping with the data from the students' questionnaires.



**Figure 4.4 Results of staff questionnaire**

While the staff findings appeared to rate a skills and dispositions agenda to some degree as more relevant than one based on knowledge and understanding, in keeping with the findings from students and parents, they seemed unmotivated by the need to pursue a programme of study that featured the services of local and central government. Also in keeping with other stakeholders, the role of reflection did not fare very well in relation to other options. No additional written responses were received from members of staff.

### **4.2.3 Summary**

Phase One produced both qualitative and quantitative findings that generally appeared to support the need for, and aims of, this curriculum innovation and many of its designated themes for study. In keeping with the wider picture of dissension discussed in previous chapters, there was evidence of concern about this initiative *per se* and how it could or should be delivered. While there were some broad commonalities among the findings, the individualities suggested to me that the introduction of this subject would present a number of challenges within Meadowvale High.

## **4.3 Phase Two**

### **4.3.1 Citizenship through History - quasi-experimentation**

In embarking upon a period of quasi-experimentation in November 2002 I was attempting to gather data to answer the following research question:

- To what extent can the study of history at KS3 provide a stimulus for a sense of responsibility towards others?

The answer to this question was initially formed by means of the quantitative data produced from the quasi-experimentation and can be viewed in Tables 4.1 to 4.3(d). However, this exercise also produced qualitative data resulting from the post-experimental discussions. This development was brought about because the nature of the findings begged additional questions, namely:

- Who is the greatest influence in your life?
- What are the characteristics of a 'good citizen'?
- What are the characteristics of a good role model?

The results from this additional enquiry are illustrated by use of pie charts in Figures 4.5 to 4.7.

Table 4.1 identifies the key findings from this research exercise. Students' work in history and the experimental work produced from the citizenship in history exercise were assessed on a key stage level and evaluated by means of a Mann-Whitney test. These findings indicated that, at the 1% level, there was no significant difference between the results produced from both exercises. While superficially this might give some impression of parity, I was unconvinced. The post-test written exercise assessed knowledge, understanding and application of political history to contemporary issues. Examples of students' written work assessed as part of the citizenship in history exercise can be found in Appendix 3. While responses to the first part of the essay were stronger than those made to the second, some logical and relevant suggestions were

made. Some commented on the potential of involving sports personalities in campaigns since young people related to them (a stance supported by the research findings on students' sources of influence); others wrote of the need for a Minister for the Youth with a specific agenda that would appeal to this section of society.

Key stage level	Number of students	
	History assessment prior to experiment	Citizenship in history assessment exercise
4/5	12	16
5/6	28	31
6/7	15	8
Test statistic	1.375	
Conclusion	Accept $H_0$	

**Table 4.1 Quasi-experimentation findings**

As part of this investigation, research was carried out to understand further the attitudes of the students involved in this exercise. Firstly, their attitudes to politics were probed. The statements that can be seen in Table 4.2 were taken from the March 2002 MORI poll, which aimed to assess the attitudes to politics of 2,686 students aged 11-16 years. The findings of the MORI poll are in *italic* and the school figures of 109 sample Key Stage 3 students are in **bold**. All figures are expressed as a percentage. While the students engaging with this research appeared to be more positive towards the importance of voting than those surveyed by MORI, paradoxically they appeared less certain about their own future 'duty' to vote.

The results in Tables 4.3 – 4.6, the themes of which echo the statements above, relate to the students from the experimental and control groups participating in the quasi-experimentation and have been analysed by means of Mann-Whitney tests. These tables demonstrate that the teaching of this unit of work had not significantly modified the thinking of the experimental group over and above that of the control group on the values inherent in matters political. Thus this experiment seemed to indicate that the

students' sense of responsibility to others, as defined by use of a political vote to influence affairs, was not altered in any significant way by the end of this unit.

Statement	Strong or broad agreement		Neither agree nor disagree		Strong or broad disagreement		Do not know or view not stated	
Voting is not important	17	<b>9</b>	25	<b>30</b>	50	<b>61</b>	8	<b>0</b>
The way people vote makes a difference to the way in which England is run	66	<b>63</b>	16	<b>24</b>	9	<b>12</b>	9	<b>1</b>
It will be my duty to vote when I am older	57	<b>40</b>	22	<b>40</b>	12	<b>18</b>	9	<b>2</b>
Politicians are all the same	24	<b>29</b>	24	<b>36</b>	31	<b>32</b>	20	<b>3</b>

**Table 4.2 Overview of student attitudes to politics**

Voting is not important	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group
Strong or broad agreement	4	6	5	5
Neither agree nor disagree	18	15	18	15
Strong or broad disagreement	32	34	31	35
Do not know or view not stated	0	0	0	0
Test statistic	-0.082		-0.512	
Conclusion	Accept $H_0$		Accept $H_0$	

**Table 4.3 Student attitude: the importance of voting**

The way people vote makes a difference to the way in which England is run	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group
Strong or broad agreement	35	34	34	42
Neither agree nor disagree	12	14	10	8
Strong or broad disagreement	7	6	10	5
Do not know or view not stated	0	1	0	0
Test statistic	-0.245		1.294	
Conclusion	Accept $H_0$		Accept $H_0$	

**Table 4.4 Student attitude: the impact of voting**

It will be my duty to vote when I am older	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group
Strong or broad agreement	22	22	19	24
Neither agree nor disagree	19	25	20	27
Strong or broad disagreement	12	7	15	4
Do not know or view not stated	1	1	0	0
Test statistic	0.439		1.742	
Conclusion	Accept $H_0$		Accept $H_0$	

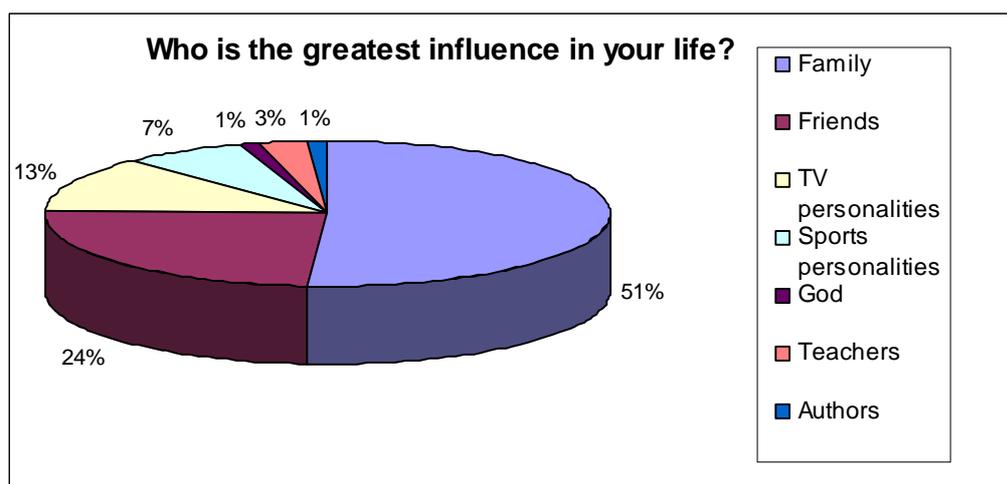
**Table 4.5 Student attitude: voting as a sense of duty**

Politicians are all the same	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group
Strong or broad agreement	18	14	17	5
Neither agree nor disagree	19	20	20	24
Strong or broad disagreement	15	20	16	21
Do not know or view not stated	2	10	1	5
Test statistic	-1.985		-2.530	
Conclusion	Accept $H_0$		Significant at 5% level, but not significant at 1% level	

**Table 4.6 Student attitude: views on politicians**

Following on from one of the previous statements raised to probe student attitudes to politics (*Politicians are all the same*) the research exercise embarked on its next stage of exploration: sources of influence. The questions used for this were broadly in line with features of the MORI survey above. Research into student attitudes indicated that in ranking the factors most influential in their life teachers fared negligibly (Figure 4.5). These data implied that the task of introducing the political strands of citizenship education with success would not be easy. The importance of family, however, was registered as extremely important, a view that has gained support in the literature of political socialisation (e.g. Merelman, 1980).

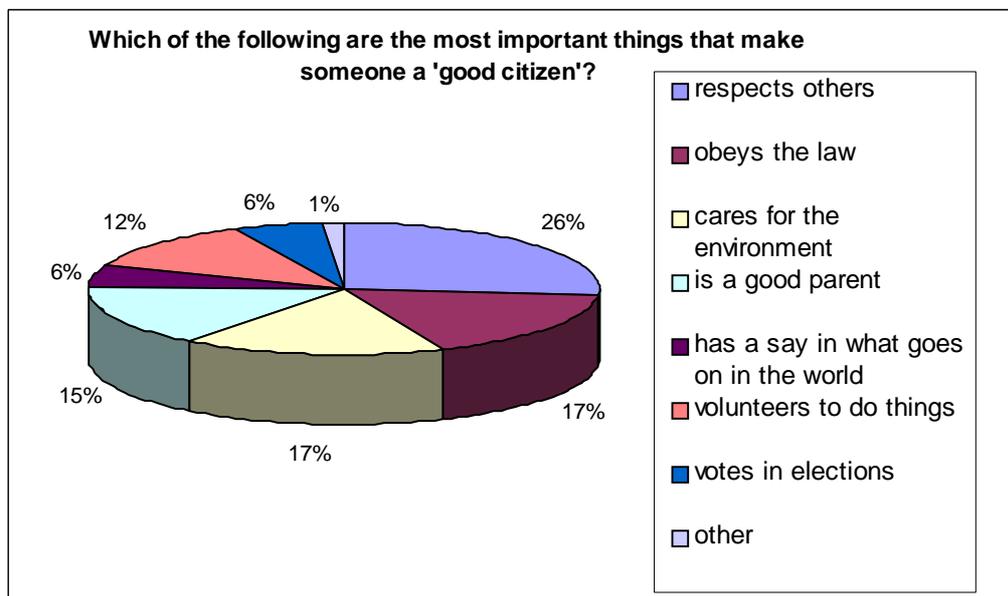
Yet, paradoxically, while students acknowledged the influence of their family in shaping their own thinking, at this stage they did not concur to the same extent on the value of voting as seen in *Questionnaire One* (students: 63%; parents: 90%). As one student wrote: 'I think that that the work of community groups is more important than learning about voting because voting is only important if you believe in the politicians, but working with community groups allows interaction of people' (female student, Class 9A).



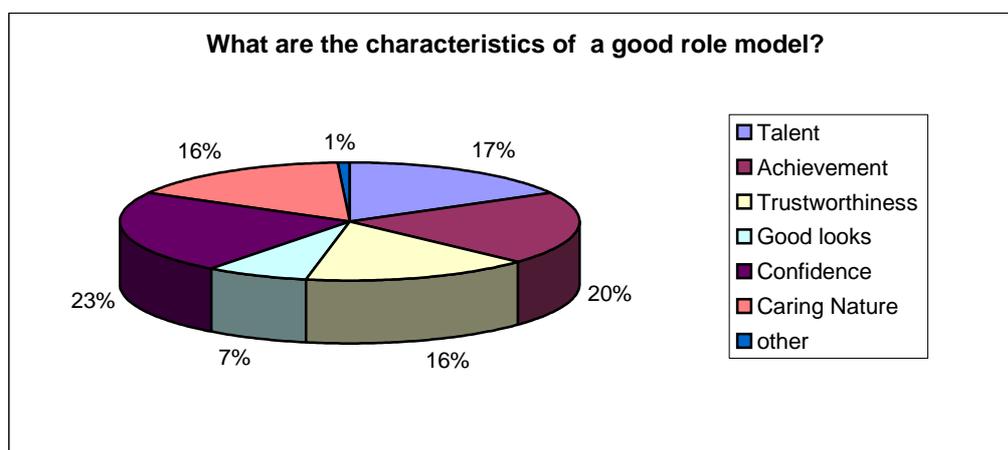
**Figure 4.5 Student sources of influence**

The fundamental workings of government may well be uninspiring to a teenager but the values that representative democracy offers are very relevant to them. Respect for such values depends upon respect for those who promote them, and this opened up heated debates in separate classrooms. Two common key points emerged from the independent discussions that ensued on this subject, both of which linked back to the apparent apathy for matters political. ‘Politicians should stick to their promises’ was a recurring comment from male and female students in all classrooms. It may be difficult to accept that such young minds are in a sufficiently learned position to make such a judgement themselves – especially when a quiz on current affairs indicated that they were sadly lacking in knowledge. Perhaps what was being heard here were not so much the independent views of the students but the opinions of their greatest source of influence, their families? Secondly, there was consensus among many that ‘one vote can change the world’ (female student, Class 9B) - although admittedly this was fiercely challenged by others. This could partly be the consequence of most students living in a ‘safe seat’ constituency. It could also be explained by the evidence, seen in Figure 4.6, that student perception of what made a good citizen was not one particularly based on the need to vote but one based on respect for others (a reassuring link with the comments made in the staff interviews). However, the fact that students were engaging in discourses such as these is in itself an indication that this unit produced reflective thought.

The students offered some indication of their values' perspective in the criteria they selected for the characteristics of a 'good citizen', as shown in Figure 4.6 and the responses they offered to the perception of a 'good role model', seen in Figure 4.7.



**Figure 4.6 Student views on the characteristics of a 'good citizen'**



**Figure 4.7 Student views on the characteristics of a 'good role model'**

To press further in search of their influences, I raised the issue of the effect (conscious or unconscious) of media impact on these respondents. While 49.3% agreed that they watched between one and three hours of television daily (and 42% watched in excess of

that), television interest was not directed towards watching the news (although 36.2% did see this daily). The hours watching television were different from the findings generated by the NFER survey of 2002, which identified 40% of their 18,583 respondents watching television for between one and three hours daily and 20% in excess of that, but it was on a par with the percentage (37%) watching the news on a daily basis. Newspapers were read weekly by 60.9% and daily by 18.8%. World events were discussed among friends – 66.7% doing this weekly but only 13.0% daily.

### **4.3.2 Summary**

The findings from this quasi-experimentation implied that many of the students recognised the importance of voting but did not necessarily anticipate any future sense of personal commitment to the principle of voting, thereby not meriting this as a means by which they felt they could make a difference to the lives of others. Since this is tantamount to suggesting that these young people were potential candidates for future political disengagement, this, arguably, justified the introduction of a programme of citizenship education to attempt to rectify this. The data offered insight into some of the reasons for disaffection and the barriers that had to be overcome. The exercise indicated that, as far as education *for* citizenship was concerned, the students' thinking patterns were not transformed by studying this unit of work; that in essence the teaching of citizenship through this unit of history did not awaken inside these students a sense of responsibility towards others. This is not to claim that they had not benefited from this exercise, and indeed the assessments completed implied that there was parity between this learning and that encountered within previous history lessons. The findings were also instrumental in further developing the thinking within this research, leading to a wider search for the stimuli for active citizenship.

## **4.4 Phase Three**

### **4.4.1 Searching for meaning through questionnaires, 2003-2006**

*Questionnaires Two (a)* and *(b)* enquired into the extent to which students' understanding of, and commitment to, a global issue could be heightened by implicit delivery. By contrast, the rationale that drove *Questionnaires Two (c)* and *(d)* was the extent to which discrete teaching of citizenship education could be seen to empower students to participate in society as active, informed and responsible citizens.

Underpinning all of this was the work on UNICEF, which became the subject matter for assessment in this exercise. Findings from *Questionnaire Three* focus on the impact of students of Meadowvale High who chose to involve themselves on international community links. Since the use of questionnaires as a method for data collection has been used over a wide canvas, the findings from these three questionnaires are subsectioned as Strand 1: the view from the inside. The findings from *Questionnaire Four*, which demonstrated the views of parliamentarians in the UK parliament at the time of this research, have been termed as Strand Two and are discussed at the end of this chapter.

#### **4.4.2 Strand 1: The view from the inside**

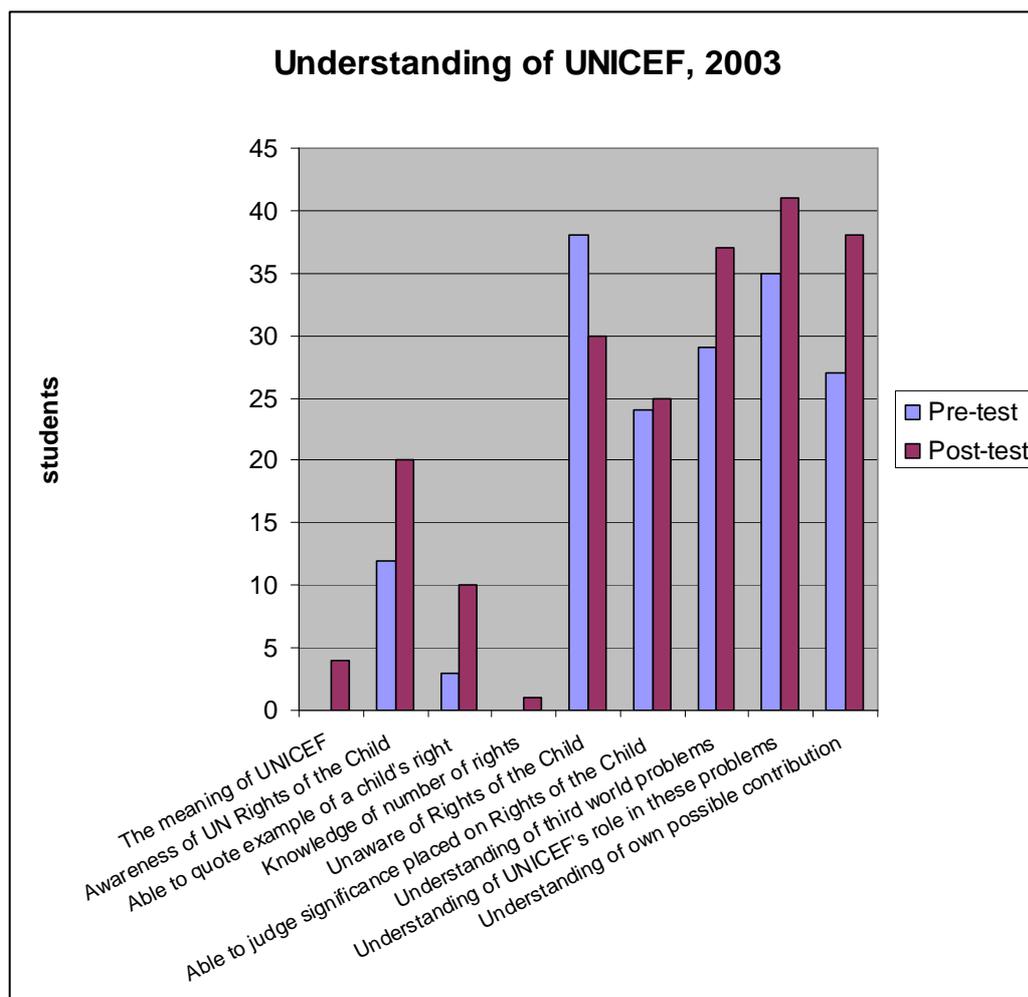
##### **Questionnaire 2 (a) and (b) - implicit delivery**

The quantitative results produced from the 2003 UNICEF questionnaires have been summarised in Figure 4.8, illustrating the comparison between the pre-test and the post-test responses.

In *Questionnaires Two (a) and (b)* the split in opinions over the value of using a non-uniform day to highlight a third world issue such as this was interesting. 50% of the pre-test students who completed a response to this question were adamantly negative, with 25% expressing reservations and the remaining 25% positive. The negative responses together with the negative comments embedded within the responses of those expressing reservations both confirmed my assumptions, and those of other staff, that students think more about what they wear than why they are wearing non-uniform. However, there was a marked change in the post-test – with only two students maintaining reservations and the figure doubling for those students viewing the exercise positively.

While the question schedule (questions 1-6) that was issued to the students was deliberately formatted so that it appeared uncomplicated for them to read and contained within the framework of one side of A4 paper to avoid reader fatigue, in analysing the data, each possible response was coded alphabetically at a later stage, thus giving rise to nine answers based on UNICEF and its role in the world. These findings indicated that

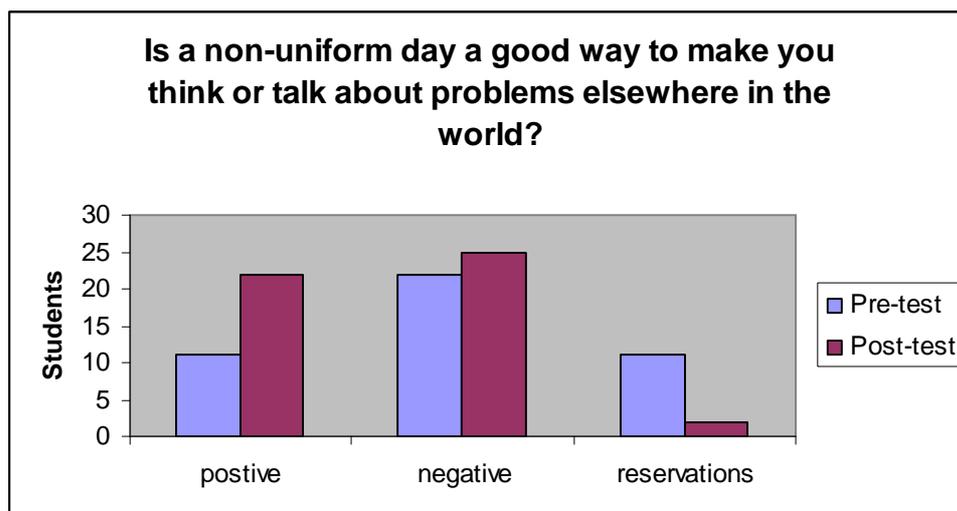
the exercise had produced some factual understanding on the role of UNICEF. However, it is important not to exaggerate such findings, for example 59% students still remained ignorant about the existence of the Rights of the Child after the exercise; and while this is an improvement from the finding of 76% in the pre-test, it is after all a fundamental point. Examples of completed questionnaires can be viewed in Appendix 5.



**Figure 4.8 Understanding of UNICEF, 2003**

The responses to the final question in the 2003 UNICEF questionnaire are illustrated in the bar chart in Figure 4.9. Positive responses to the use of a non-uniform day as a tool to highlight awareness of world problems varied in their emphases. For instance, one girl wrote: 'Yes, because it makes a change so people pay attention' (Female student, no.35). Another student echoed this in writing: 'Yes, it makes you want to learn

because you're all excited on non-uniform day you'll want to talk about anything' (Female student, no.44). However, the extent to which the latter statement can be interpreted as students talking about the charitable cause is debatable, especially when placed alongside another example from this category: 'Yes, it is a good thing because you feel more relaxed and free to talk.' (Male student, no.16) This was the only written response from this particular student on his questionnaire, other than 'don't know'.



**Figure 4.9 Non-uniform days and citizenship delivery**

Negative responses were firm in their denial of the significance of this exercise. For example, 'No, people don't take notice of the charity their money is going to, they take it for granted' (Anonymous student, no.5). Others echoed the wording of this answer, 'No, as everyone only talks about what they are wearing' (Anonymous student, no.24). However, other responses – although negative - could be interpreted as a critique of the minimalist approach to such days, for example: 'No, because we are doing work and it's like a school day' (Male student, no.15).

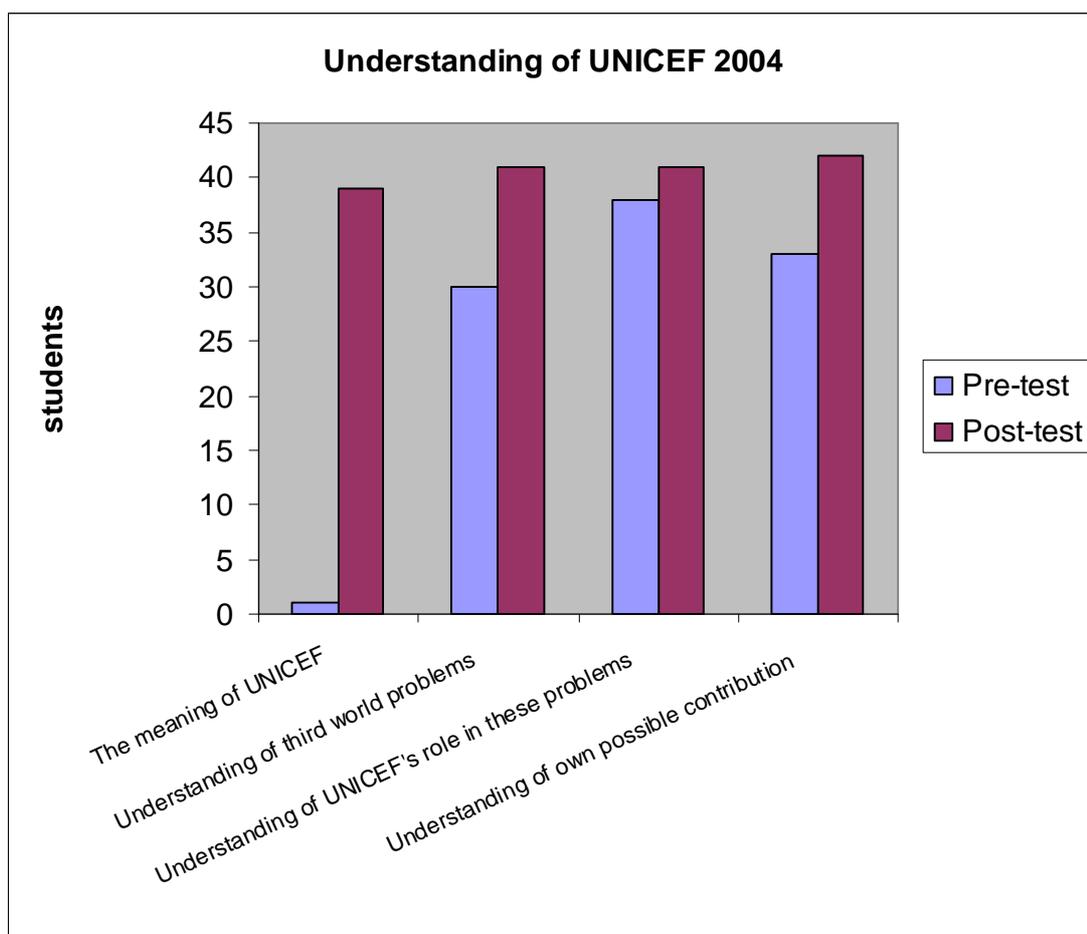
A category entitled 'reservations' was created to encompass the views of students who could see advantages in the use of a non-uniform day as a source of instant funding for a needy cause, but who did not rate the event as a means by which students' social conscience would be enriched by the experience. Typical responses within this category read: 'It's a good way to raise money but doesn't make you think about

problems' (Female student, no.2) and 'Don't know, because it raises money but some people think more about what they wear' (Female student, no.17).

### **Questionnaire 2 (c) and (d) – explicit delivery**

On this occasion the exercise was probing the extent to which discrete teaching could impact upon students' awareness and empower them to become active citizens. Questionnaire 2 (c) and (d) explored the comparative impact on learning about UNICEF through explicit delivery of citizenship education. By the time this questionnaire was completed the students in the sample had studied the Rights of the Child and had drafted their own suggestions for a school constitution. The introduction of the UNICEF pre-test questionnaire launched a new theme for study. Examples of completed questionnaires can be seen in Appendix 5

Figure 4.10 shows the pre-test and post-test quantitative data produced from the 2004 UNICEF questionnaire. I was pleased with the positive responses these results produced, indicating that understanding of UNICEF had indeed increased in all areas under examination, although admittedly the understanding of the individual's possible contribution to the efforts of UNICEF resulted in a less impressive improvement. However, the most significant improvement was in the accuracy of the students' understanding of what was meant by UNICEF. This compared sharply against the percentage improvement witnessed within the 2003 cohort. Nonetheless, although the percentage increase between the pre-test and post-test figures for matched questions for both groups was higher for the 2004 group, the increase was not so dramatically different for the other three questions.



**Figure 4.10 Understanding of UNICEF, 2004**

In responding to the question ‘What were the most important things you learnt from the research and presentation you did?’ every student apart from one was able to quote specific examples based on either the organisational structure of UNICEF or on its campaigns within Ghana and Vietnam. There were a number of suggestions offered to the final question: ‘On April 23<sup>rd</sup> 2004 our local MP, Mr. \_\_\_\_\_ will be in school to meet Year 9 students. We will be telling him about the right to education for all people. We want him to go back to Parliament and persuade the government to do more to help children get a quality education everywhere. What do you think are the most important things we should be saying to him?’ The suggestions offered focused on the detrimental effects of a lack of education, for example:

‘Education is the only way to escape poverty.’ (Male student, Class 9B)

‘Some children in Ghana can’t even go to school because they have to collect water. If UNICEF can build more water pumps in more areas, children won’t have to walk for miles and miss the opportunity of an education.’ (Female student, Class 9B)

They also emphasised the need for adequate resources, particularly clean water:

‘Without water they will become very ill and die. We need to provide water pumps.’ (Female student, Class 9A)

Others made comments that were more openly value-laden:

‘There are too many underprivileged children in the world and us, being privileged, should help those who aren’t.’ (Female student, Class 9A)

‘Give a man a fish and feed him for a day; give a man a net and feed him for a lifetime.’ (Male student, Class 9B)

The comments offered to the final question reflected a mixture of factual understanding and value statements which confirmed that the students did see a disparity between their own lives and those of young people elsewhere in the world. For me, the true worth of these responses was seen in the way in which they shaped the preparation of questions for the arranged visit of the local MP a month later. Students across the year group used this learning as a basis to develop pertinent questions to pose; those questions posited by members of the research groups can be viewed below:

‘What is the UK government doing to help other children throughout the world get a quality education?’ (Female student)

‘Do you think the government is doing enough to help in the education of others in less fortunate countries? If so, why do think this? If not, how could this be changed?’ (Female student)

‘What was your education like and how has this influenced your views on education?’ (Female student)

‘What is your political party’s view on education?’ (Male student)

‘If you were Minister for Education, what would your 5-year goals be for the education system in this region?’ (Female student)

‘Before going ahead with any changes in the school system in this part of the country, is the government going to ask for the views of the children involved? If so, how? If not do you think they should?’ (Female student)

### **Questionnaire Three: the global link**

A selection of completed questionnaires can be viewed in Appendix 6. This branch of the research had developed from the noticeable impact made from an international visit to Kenya by Meadowvale High students in 2002. This had led me to hypothesise on the potential of such ventures as a tool for meaningful delivery of citizenship education. If the responses of the 2002 cohort proved to be representative of other students in Meadowvale High, then this would imply that global community involvement projects could be developed to help more of our students see how they could make a difference to the lives of others. Such was the rationale behind *Questionnaire Three*.

Four of the eight students who returned both the 2005 Gambian pre-visit and post-test questionnaires and eight of the twelve students who returned both sets of the Kenyan questionnaire in 2006 had previous experience of voluntary work in the community; in total, ten students came from families where this was a feature. None of the respondents from either the 2004 cohort or the 2005 or 2006 equivalent had previously visited either the Gambia or Kenya and all saw the visit as an opportunity to experience a new culture. Two included that an additional motive was to gain a sense of achievement for helping the people there.

Perceptions of life in the Gambia/Kenya in advance of the visit tended to focus on the anticipated simplicity of the lifestyle there, coupled with an appreciation of ‘the smaller things’, good family values and a sense of community spirit. Some referred to a lack of reliance on material possessions and criticism of the current government in office there.

Sources of information for these views stemmed from the media, school and conversations with people who had already visited the region.

The richness of the responses to the post-visit questionnaires from both cohorts defied collation under themes. For this reason, the responses to each question will be explained in turn. The data that emanated from this stage of the exercise appeared to be justified as examples of learning through experience in the sense that, ‘... the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied’ (Keeton and Tate, 1978, p.2, in D. A. Kolb 1984).

Q1 In what ways was the ‘Gambian/Kenyan experience’ different from what you imagined?

Fourteen students commented on how surprised they were that the Kenyans they met were so happy ‘even though they had nothing.’ Twelve singled out the friendliness of the Gambian/Kenyan people in the way that they had welcomed their English visitors, while two commented on the nervousness of the children whom they encountered. Several commented on geographical features and the disparity of wealth between Nairobi and the rural areas, some highlighted the poverty levels as more extreme than expected and others that wealth was more apparent than anticipated.

Q2 Are there any aspects of Gambian/Kenyan culture that you think we, in England, should adopt? Why?

Four students felt that our two cultures were so different that it would be inappropriate to attempt to merge elements. By contrast, seventeen respondents echoed the need for English people to develop the friendliness of approach that they had experienced in Kenya. Seven lauded the community spirit that epitomised the Kenyan way of life: ‘A stronger sense of community exists in Kenya than in England. This appeared to bring people closer together and give them a more positive outlook on life.’ This was echoed in one of the responses from the Gambian visit, ‘Their frame of mind – God comes before anything. Families are close; friends are like brothers and sisters. (There is) a drop in formalities helping to create a happier, relaxed atmosphere where the true

meaning of respect is understood.’ Respondents from the 2006 Kenya visit mentioned a positive outlook in association with, and despite, the lack of material resources, for example: ‘They have such a positive outlook even when they have nothing. In the clinic in the village, they were so proud, though they had very little.’ Another student linked this outlook to education: ‘- The children’s attitude to school and education in general. How they love learning and don’t have any trouble such as truancy. Also, their learning of three languages to get on in the world.’ Other responses admired the mutual respect they had witnessed and the need for English people to have a ‘more laid-back approach’ (six responses). As one student commented, ‘The respect they had for everybody and how chilled everybody was.’

Q3 What do you think the students in the Gambia/Kenya might have learnt about English people from the time you spent with them?

Respondents commented on the awareness of cultural differences, especially that of the wealth that was apparent among the English visitors and their lifestyles, although two did admit that ‘even though we live in a different culture and our lives are worlds apart, we still share thoughts and interests e.g. football.’ In addition to this, five students remarked that the Kenyans would also have learnt that they were better at football than the English! Five students hoped that their Kenyan hosts would learn of their willingness to help, while three offered no response to this question. The respondents from the Gambian questionnaire hoped that their hosts would realise that they were ‘accepting of other cultures’ and, as another student wrote,

‘I asked a Gambian person at the school what they expected and he said he expected people who would come and then leave without taking an interest or caring. So I think they learnt we do care and take an interest – if you know what I mean – which can only be good.’ (Male student, the Gambia 2005)

Q4 What will remain as your best memory of the Gambia/Kenya?

Answers to this question were divided between the impact of contributing towards the building of a new classroom and experiencing a different culture. Once again, reference was made to the friendliness of the people whom they encountered; as one student enthused: ‘Absolutely everything! Staying in the mud huts, meeting the locals, feeling

like you've done something that really helped and waving at the friendly people along the way.' (Female student, Kenya, 2006)

Q5 Has this experience changed your thinking/attitudes/viewpoints or your approach to life in any way? If so, how?

The responses to this question demonstrated on paper the impact of these visits which, in turn, was evidenced in action in subsequent years. It was clear that the first-hand experience of these visits encouraged students to re-assess their own value systems, as the following examples demonstrate:

'Yes, I don't take things for granted. I also take more care with my possessions.'  
(Male student, Kenya 2004)

'Yes, it has made me more considerate of others.' (Male student, Kenya 2004)

'I definitely took things for granted before and I would like to devote more of my time to charity.' (Female student, Kenya 2004)

'It has made me appreciate the things that I have more. It has also given me a greater understanding of the things we see on the TV because we have been and seen how they live.' (Female student, Kenya 2004)

'Put life into perspective. We are very lucky with what we have and the trip has shown how little differences can make huge change.' (Male student, Kenya 2004)

'I now appreciate the things I have far more than I did before the visit. I also try to accept others more openly and find the positive aspects of situations.' (Female student, the Gambia 2005)

‘Yes, I will not take everything for granted, and I will remember how extremely lucky I am compared to other people in LED countries.’ (Female student, Kenya 2006)

These quotations were seen to have real meaning in the time that followed through the continued efforts of these students to help these communities. However, one response provided a different reaction, and one that was an interesting observation from a futures’ perspective:

‘I think the only attitude which I have changed is that to develop any of Africa would be wrong. They don’t need charity. The climate is the main factor which we need to change, so the best thing we can do is reduce emissions – global warming.’ (Male student, Kenya 2006)

#### **4.4.3 Strand 2: Reflections from Westminster, 2003-2004**

Following reflection on the findings from the quasi-experimentation, I widened my sampling unit between September 2003 and March 2004 to draw data from the parliamentarians in office in Westminster. *Questionnaire Four* was therefore designed to gather information relevant to the following issue:

- What can be learnt from factors that have encouraged others to develop a sense of responsibility towards the lives of other people?

Since this section of research featured a sample from beyond the immediate community of the case study, it has been entitled as Strand Two.

Examples of completed questionnaires can be viewed in Appendix 7. Question one probed the sizes of schools attended by politicians and the following results were produced:

- 100 respondents attended schools with under 600 students;

- 137 attended schools whose numbers ranged between 600 and 1000;
- 66 parliamentarians had been educated at schools in excess of 1000 students.

One respondent chose to discuss the issue of school size in a lengthy accompanying letter, the salient points of which are quoted below:

‘By way of specific example, I attended what was then a large direct grant school in the 1950s and 1960s. I have been a governor of this school for the last twenty years ... We have increased the size of the school now to some 1,800 students – albeit running from two and a half to nineteen .... The school is 500 years old and for at least the last 150 years has taken pride in and made considerable efforts to turn out good citizens. After Eton, it has the largest number of MPs and a remarkable number of alumni who have made considerable achievements/contributions to public life.

As I note, you do not suggest that smaller schools may be more effective in inculcating good citizenship, but I suspect this is what you presume – essentially as it is often easier for them to be more personal?

One of the reasons why I am writing to you is that from my experience to this day, it is perfectly possible to run a very large school, which inculcates good citizenship if it is the intent of the governing body and dedicated and competent teachers to do so. From my experience, which I have encountered elsewhere with schools of different sizes, the real problems are generally a “nine to five” non-involved attitude by staff, and in turn incompetent governing bodies or bad heads – albeit that I appreciate readily that many heads and teachers are now thoroughly de-motivated by the excessive and ridiculous bureaucracy and reporting which this government has loaded on them.

In closing, I would like to add that the best school in my constituency, covering both the maintained and the independent sector is a state comprehensive school, well over 2,000 in size. It too has the background history of an old endowed grammar school and relatively unique structure of an independent foundation continuing to own all its property. It too concentrates on turning out good citizens, as well as educating them well – very much motivated by the school’s pride in its history ....’ (MP 115, Conservative)

By contrast, however, one respondent (MP 126, Anon.) did believe that the size of his school (under 300) was at least a contributory factor, claiming that extra-curricular activities would never have happened without high pupil involvement. This respondent asserted that the self-confidence that was bred by such participation then gave him ambition. Nevertheless, this MP did admit that on balance a more significant factor was the love of history instilled into him by his teacher.

The data gathered from questions two to five which were capable of quantitative measurement are presented in Table 4.7. This focuses on the sources of influence for active citizenship as indicated by the parliamentarians who engaged with this exercise. As indicated in Chapter Three, the stimuli linked with school was calculated by studying the responses to question two, while the non-school stimuli were identified by interpreting the written responses in a thematic manner. The use of the 'issues dimension' as one of the categories in Table 4.7 owes its thinking to the work of David Selby and Graham Pike who, in 1995, favoured a four-dimensional framework for global education: dimensions based on space, time, self and issues. Their understanding of an issues dimension is based on dilemmas such as inequality/equality; conflict/peace; alienation/participation; environmental damage/respect and injustice/justice. Initial examination of the data had led me to create a number of categories including: social justice; reaction to UK policy/ministers; local community influence; trade unionism; foreign affairs; Christian values; single issues campaigns; patriotism. The manner in which respondents commented on these, as explanation for their political stimuli, allowed their responses to be re-defined within the parameters of an issues dimension.

Qualitative responses were offered to question five and often enriched the responses offered to question four, and indeed also to question two. I have collated these according to their commonalities and provide examples to support these themes below, although it is clear that an overlap can often be seen between some of these themes.

Stimuli			
School	40.9%	Non-school	59.1%
Ethos	29.6%	Issues dimension	45%
Impact of Individuals	32.8%	Family	26.5%
Specific Subject Areas	22.6%	World of Work	7.3%
Other	14.9%	University	6.4%
		Innate	3.2%
		Peer Influence	2.6%
		Parenthood	1.9%
		Media	1.6%
		Do not know	1.0%

**Table 4.7 Sources of influence for politicians**

### **Ethos**

The responses to this theme were plentiful and rich; the extracts below constituting a selection of them.

‘... The collective ethos of school life certainly fitted in well with my politics and was a considerable socialising force in my youth.’ (MP 134, Labour)

‘The school was and remains an Anglican foundation with a strong, Anglican, Christian ethos ... The ethos of the school was engendered particularly by many very able members of the teaching staff who had taught at the school for many years ...’ (MP 115, Conservative)

‘The school I attended encouraged its pupils to discuss and debate pupil affairs. There were two active groups in the school, the International Society and the Literary Debating Society. Both of these gave wide opportunity for pupils to consider and to question speakers who came to address them. The Headmaster and a number of teachers, whilst not obviously revealing their own political views, encouraged pupils to take part in the electoral process if they were asked to do so. There was a general concept that it was right and proper for young people to be involved in the community....’ (MP 130, Anon.)

‘My school was not ‘political’. I was not aware of any political activism by either staff or pupils. However, the excellent education I received certainly moulded my approach to life and my belief in liberal democracy. When those values were threatened and I observed my country in seemingly irreversible decline in the 1970s, I chose to become politically active myself.’ (MP 79, Conservative)

‘Revolt against ethos of school.’ (MP 283, Anon)

### **Impact of individuals**

‘In my time, the five classes for new entrants at ten/eleven all had a weekly lesson in citizenship given by the Headmaster himself. I remember what I learnt in some detail to this day. He started with the United Nations and then worked down to the family unit and the facts of life! He explained the structure of the UN, of the UK parliament, the county councils and what were then metropolitan boroughs, boroughs, parish councils etc., as well as conveying the duties and obligations of citizens.’ (MP 115, Conservative)

‘Don’t think it has to do with the size of the school. For me it was an inspirational history teacher.’ (MP 96, Anon.)

‘The school was run by \_\_\_\_\_ a R.C. teaching order, the Headteacher, Brother \_\_\_\_\_, was dedicated to all of his pupils. I had a teacher who gave me a great deal because of his hard work. The main thing was that he gave me confidence in myself.’ (MP 170, Labour)

‘Getting involved in school mock elections, followed by the support of an inspirational teacher who encouraged my involvement in debating etc.’ (MP 171, Labour)

### **Specific subject areas**

While subjects described as British Constitution at ‘O’ Level and political studies at ‘A’ Level or modern politics and civics surfaced, a popular choice was history.

‘At school I found myself naturally attracted to both history and current affairs, and this development coincided with a rising interest in political issues as I became older. My father is a family doctor, so the concept of public service has always been quite strong in our house....’ (MP 94, Conservative)

‘My experience was actually in history and economics when I saw the damage the post-war concessions had on Britain and the North East in particular (I went to school in Durham) – not in citizenship lessons.’ (MP 125, Conservative)

The above examples, nonetheless, demonstrate the interplay of subject discipline with other influences, as do the following responses.

‘The subject was Economics and the teacher at the time related the subject to the politics of the day.’ (MP 142, Labour)

‘At 14 years I studied government and citizenship which were available as GCE at that time. It coincided with Barbara Castle in government and Harold Wilson and famine in Biafra. It was this combination that had an impact on an idealistic young girl. It made me realise that there was a place for women in politics and cases worth fighting for.’ (MP 174, Labour)

‘Being taught about poverty and seeing and experiencing it in my environment.’ (MP 186, Anon.)

### **Issues dimension**

‘My parents were very prominent in the non-racial Liberal Party in South Africa in the sixties. Both were imprisoned and banned, our house was searched by the Special Branch in my presence on a number of occasions and I was therefore very

aware first hand of the injustices of legalised racism. When we came to the UK they continued to be involved in anti-apartheid activities and when I finished secondary school I became involved in anti-apartheid protests. With that background I inevitably entered into political arena in the UK.’ (MP 83, Labour)

‘I reacted against the ethos of the school ... and I was bullied as a young boy.’ (MP 112, Anon.)

‘A friend was killed by the IRA.’ (MP 226, DU)

‘My experience of unemployment at the age of 15 and linked with this, racism in society. Employers said to me: “If I take you on my white workforce will walk out and I cannot have that.” ’ (MP 157, Anon.)

‘The appalling failure of the Labour government in the mid to late 1970s and the disastrous impact it was having on the infrastructure and morale of the country.’ (MP 12, Conservative)

‘I reacted against the privilege of those rich children whose life chances were better than mine and those of my friends, irrespective of our ability.’ (MP 264, Labour)

‘I had to travel into the centre of Glasgow by train each day and saw a multitude of social problems. The advice I had was that we could only solve problems through politics.’ (MP 256, Conservative)

‘Anger at the total disregard of the social needs and wishes of local people by local and national politicians.’ (MP 261, Anon.)

‘... Strong dislike of war and opposition to racism and all social injustice.’ (MP 134, Labour)

‘The experience of going from dockland Liverpool to Oxford University then Cambridge, and there being faced with the differences – social and economic – between sections of society in which I mixed.’ (MP 193, Labour)

‘Yes - the experience of being a working-class boy in a very middle-class grammar school ... school injustices (caning for no good reason) led to an appetite for politics and a desire for social justice.’ (MP 247, Labour)

‘There was no engagement at all with school or staff ... I regret that I was not a good student! I will only return to my secondary school if issued with a box of matches and a can of petrol.’ (MP 194) - The political affiliation of this politician has not been identified on grounds of sensitivity.

## **Family**

‘Difficult to say – I think it was the way in which my family life (eldest of seven children) and example of my mother in the practical way she was an everyday good neighbour. There was nothing party political about this (my mother was an Afrikaner so had no feel for British politics. My father was more conventionally Labour, but not in any way frontline activist. From the family background I referred to earlier I then read widely and, not surprisingly, Aneurin Bevan, was a great influence. Luke’s gospel was also a significant guide on developing my views on living.’ (MP 18, Labour)

‘Class and family background; the community I was brought up in.’ (MP 203, Labour)

‘The influence of my mother and the antipathy of members of my peer group to my adoption of my mother’s opinions and guidance.’ (MP 113, Labour)

‘My family’s values and the fact that I was born into a working class family living on an estate.’ (MP 29, Anon.)

- ‘1. Born into a Labour family
2. Impact of the Tories on Tyneside during the 1980s.’ (MP 22, Labour)

‘I was politically interested from a young age and from a family that was politically minded.’ (MP 23, Anon.)

‘My role model was my father who was a parish councillor and demonstrated that you have to get stuck in if you want to make a difference.’ (MP 246, Anon.)

### **World of work**

‘Mainly the experience of working in a factory from the age of sixteen.’ (MP 20, Anon.)

‘Lack of resources for children I taught and lack of opportunities when they left.’ (MP 68, Anon.)

‘Leaving school at 15 years of age and entering industry as an apprentice. The trade union movement stimulated my political interest.’ (MP 205, Anon.)

‘I taught Modern Studies in Edinburgh comprehensives before becoming an MP. There is a gap in the English curriculum as far as this is concerned.’ (MP 196, Labour)

### **University**

Most references to university were simple statements of fact or recognition that the environment of university provided the forum to meet others. I have included the following extract in this section, although it could be positioned equally well within the issues dimension or indeed as indicative of the impact of individuals.

‘I was studying at Yale University and became involved in the civil rights campaign – and met Harold Wilson when he came over.’ (MP 234, Labour)

### **Innate**

‘An innate fascination with politics and an argumentative temperament even from my primary school days.’ (MP 90, Conservative)

### **Peer influence**

‘It was ‘cool’ amongst young people in those days – and my friends and I discussed politics a lot.’ (MP 19, Anon.)

‘Meeting my politically active future husband (now deceased).’ (MP 45, Anon.)

### **Parenthood**

‘Became party political after trying to improve childcare after my children were born.’ (MP 207, Anon.)

### **Media**

‘Got interested in primary school age. Had access to a number of daily newspapers and this got me interested in current affairs.’ (MP 34, Anon.)

‘Got fed up shouting at the television.’ (MP 221, Anon.)

## **4.5 Summary**

Phase Three has demonstrated the variety of responses received between 2003 and 2006, while the chapter as a whole has presented the findings from all three phases of this research project. It has identified the hopes and trepidations felt by members of

staff about the imminent arrival of citizenship education and it has charted the priorities that stakeholders felt were the most significant elements of study for students at Meadowvale High. In searching for a suitable means of delivery, it has identified the responses registered to both implicit and explicit delivery of this initiative, including extra-curricular experiences. One powerful message that appears to emerge from these findings is a sense of change in perspective among those students who engaged in north-south international projects. It has also highlighted data emanating from the exploration of the use of history lessons as a means of delivering citizenship education as suggested by the QCA. Discussion of these findings, in relation to the key research question, can be read in the following chapter. Moreover, a search for the significance of schools in imparting ideals of citizenship education with a sample beyond that of the immediate case study was sought and the varied responses collated and recorded herein. In engaging with this sample, this chapter has provided insight into factors impinging upon political socialisation and in doing so it has acknowledged that schools can play a part in this. It has also allowed some interesting observations on factors stimulating individuals into action on behalf of others; in doing so, it has provided possible food for thought in the search for meaningful delivery of citizenship education.

## Chapter 5 Discussion of the Findings

### 5.1 Introduction

While the various strands of this research emerged from developments as they surfaced at school level, this chapter will attempt to collate the associated findings in a way that feeds into a fuller understanding of the main research question:

- How can citizenship education be delivered so that students can feel that their actions can make a difference to the lives of others?

In Chapter One (p.17-18) I stated that my understanding of citizenship education was one that encouraged students to feel that the actions they took within a community mattered, and that people are more likely to respond to the needs of others if, in keeping with the thinking of Baumeister, they felt a sense of purpose, value, efficacy and/or self-worth.

This research project has documented a variety of approaches to the delivery of citizenship education in an attempt to find an answer to the main research question. Firstly, implicit delivery was monitored (2002-2003). This was followed by the delivery of citizenship education through history lessons (2002). Explicit delivery was seen (2003-2004) and finally examples of extra-curricular provision (2004-2006) were noted. In each of these cases, evidence was gathered to ascertain the extent to which students' attitudes responded to the issues to which they were exposed. This was important if I was to be in a position to gauge which issues might help students connect with their learning in ways that could shape their dispositions. The following section will discuss the findings from each of these in turn. In discussing these issues, it will draw from, where appropriate, relevant supporting evidence from other aspects of the research process. Reflections on the dissension caused by introducing this educational innovation within Meadowvale High will be discussed in Chapter Six.

### 5.2 Implicit delivery

My interpretation of implicit delivery of a theme within schools is one that influences students' understanding without deliberate planning, embedding itself into their value

systems through the school ethos and informal activities. For example, Gordillo (1998) writes, 'The atmosphere of a school reflects what is valued in it. More decisive than any programme for the teaching of values are the kind of relationships existing between teachers, managers and students, the rational quality of discipline, cleanliness, order, the rules about what is allowed and what is not. All of which confirm a set of values whose presence or absence promotes a positive or negative learning in students' (1998, p.176). Implicit messages, therefore, are delivered in the values emitted by a school and can provide one medium for embedding attitudes towards citizenship education, which is itself a value-laden initiative. Despite this, the Government decreed that implicit delivery of citizenship education in schools was insufficient. Nevertheless, in a school which approached September 2002 without a commitment to explicit delivery, the early stages of this research had no choice but to probe the impact of implicit delivery as part of its first phase of investigation.

If a goal of citizenship education is to encourage students to feel inclined to act on behalf of others and if this to be advanced through the implicit messages of a school, it seems reasonable that certain school attitudes need to be in place to support this. The data collected from responses to question five in the interview schedule indicated that there was unevenness in Meadowvale High's approach to values as interpreted as respect, which suggested a weakness in implicit delivery in this area. In using the term 'respect' I intend any understanding of this to mean, 'Respect for status, for what all persons intrinsically and inescapably are' (Ungoed-Thomas, 1997, p.21). Without a respect for people, how can there be any real incentive to act on behalf of others? The 'code of ethical principles for the teaching profession' suggested by Tomlinson and Little (in Gardner *et al*, 2003, p.152-154) - writers who sum up principles as 'values in action' - suggests a harmony with this view; as does Graham Haydon who suggests that in any discussion on value consensus 'one would imagine, for instance, that a list of agreed values would contain such items as "respect for persons"' (1995, p.56). Equality of respect also finds a place in the hierarchy of basic liberal values expounded by Halstead and Taylor (1996). Likewise, I would concur with the assertions of Tomlinson and Little that mixed messages encourage young observers to learn that 'rank and power are salient in relationships' (2003, p.148). While such a statement carries with it undeniable truth, it is in the misconduct of this that some of the seeds of future disrespect can be sown. This certainly seems to have been the interpretation being

made by my interviewees and such shortcomings support the claim raised by Ungood-Thomas, 'The notion, crucial to the working model, that students should develop as whole persons, spiritually, morally, socially, culturally, mentally and physically, now appears, in one form of wording or another, in the aims of the great majority of schools. However, sometimes, that is where the matter rests. Much can remain to be done, at least as far as the structure and management of the curriculum and pastoral care is concerned, to ensure that students may indeed have reasonable opportunities to develop as complete persons' (1997, p.56). For example, the comment of one of the interviewees that there were 'pockets of no self-worth' (p.177) in Meadowvale High implied that our school, despite being perceived in the surrounding region as a successful institution with much embedded capital, had much to address if it was to avoid this critique of Ungood-Thomas, enable students to develop the characteristics listed by Baumeister and by consequence be in a stronger position to operate in a way that would encourage students to make a difference to the lives of others by their actions, as upheld by De Ruyter. In a pluralist society there will inevitably be many values and with these will come competing value systems. However, I would argue that this does not absolve a school from criticism if it projects perceptions of mixed messages towards the basic value of mutual respect for participants within (and indeed beyond) a community regardless of their status within the power structure of that community. If young people function in a community where people apparently have different levels of worth, it would not be surprising if they questioned their own self-worth. If they did this, it could undermine their confidence to act on behalf of other people. The theme of self-esteem in relation to family and school surfaced repeatedly from these data, as illustrated by the comments of one Labour politician (MP 50) who – while attributing his own stimulus to his family and not his school - supported the need for citizenship education in schools as a means of raising the low self-esteem of his constituents from disadvantageous backgrounds. Surely this would be less possible if schools emitted mixed messages on how individuals within a school community should be viewed?

Moreover, clearly there were others at Meadowvale High who also rated this issue as significant to a meaningful citizenship agenda. A study of the data gathered from *Questionnaire One* led to some possible commonalities, one of which was the need for a programme of citizenship education to focus on consideration of others and the need to

learn about the value of respect. Respect for people is deemed by Ungood-Thomas as a key element of a good school, 'In the school, arrangements to promote respect for self and others are crucial in enabling students to acquire a personal sense of worth, and to help them to develop positively with fellow-students and those in authority' (1997, p.6). Acquiring a sense of self-worth also dovetails with Baumeister's belief in the essential elements to lead a meaningful life. The need for respect for self and others echoed the research findings of Andrews and Lewis (2000) and in 2005 the UK Government itself, set up its own Respect Task Force to tackle anti-social behaviour and its causes. Adopting the slogan 'give respect, get respect', the need to launch this initiative can perhaps be seen as a sad indictment of the ongoing need to create respect in society despite the introduction of citizenship education – an indication that the initial years of citizenship education had not borne any immediate fruits. Alternatively, it could be interpreted as supporting evidence for the need for institutions beyond the school gates to take responsibility for societal malaises (although the onus was placed on the community to right this situation); or more directly as far as my project is concerned perhaps it can simply be seen as tangible justification for the comments made by my respondents in their interviews. Respect based on tolerance, acceptance and common decency (the language of the Respect Task Force) could certainly be claimed to also encompass the values of consideration, courtesy and care – the words chosen by those of my respondents who did not specifically use the word 'respect' in their answers.

*Questionnaire 2 (a) and (b)* used the opportunity of a non-uniform day to assess its impact on students' attitudes towards people in need. The split in opinions over the value of using a non-uniform day to highlight a third world issue such as this was interesting. 50% of the pre-test students who completed a response to this question were adamantly negative, with 25% expressing reservations and the remaining 25% positive. The negative responses together with the negative comments embedded within the responses of those expressing reservations both confirmed my assumptions, and those of other staff, that students think more about what they wear than why they are wearing non-uniform. This does not imply that such an initiative would feed positively into my search for meaningful delivery since self is at the heart of such an attitude, not others. However, there was a marked change in the post-test – with only two students maintaining reservations and the figure doubling for those students viewing the exercise positively. While I could easily assert that perhaps what I was

witnessing was reactivity to my questionnaire by students who now knew the theme of my enquiry and deemed the 'right answer' to be a positive one, to do so could also be interpreted as researcher bias on my part. The explanation for this change of viewpoint is therefore difficult to achieve without incurring criticism. Unfortunately, far fewer students chose to identify themselves on the post-test version, making it impossible to match up many of the pre-tests and post-tests of this group of respondents. Nonetheless, the overall balance still remained negative on this issue. The frankness of the responses suggested unevenness in the way in which students reacted to the use of informal activities as a source of citizenship education in school. This made it possible to conclude that, although implicit delivery of citizenship education through use of a non-uniform day could achieve some positive results, the impact was not suitably convincing for me, as Citizenship Coordinator, to have confidence in it as a meaningful method of delivering citizenship education in the future. This conclusion is not to undermine the work of the Charity Committee, whose members act as role-models for citizenship education and who, as noted by the Curriculum Support Coordinator, provide the structure by which less able students can develop their self-esteem as contributors. Instead, it recognises that the work of these students did not impact upon the wider audience as well as necessary if this aspect of school life was to be accepted as a tool to deliver of citizenship education. In this way it confirmed the Government stance that implicit delivery was insufficient.

### **5.3 Explicit delivery**

The discussion on examples of explicit delivery of citizenship education centres on aspects of the discrete provision of the subject with which I engaged between 2003 and 2004. As with *Questionnaire Two (a) and (b)*, understanding of UNICEF as an organisation was used as the tool of assessment in *Questionnaires Two (c) and (d)*. While the results of this exercise demonstrated that the two groups' understanding of the meaning of UNICEF *per se* improved dramatically as a result of discrete teaching, and that progress was made in all areas under examination, the improvement – as measured quantitatively - was not sufficiently marked to indicate that the learning that had taken place was significantly greater than that which had been noted in 2003. Moreover, under both systems, implicit and explicit, students' understanding of the contribution they could make had improved. In some ways this is a misleading conclusion because the quality of the responses from the 2004 classes was better. For

example, in response to the question, 'this year UNICEF is focusing on helping children in Cambodia and Tanzania, why do you think this is so?' Student number 2 from the 2003 cohort answered, 'Because they help children' which is a correct answer in its own right (although admittedly one that could have been stated without any true prior knowledge). However, student number 2 from the 2004 group, when asked the same question (other than it related to Vietnam and Ghana) responded, 'Because the people there are in need of things such as water, education etc.' This response is also a correct answer but it carries with it a more precise understanding of the situation since the theme of Vietnam and Ghana had been chosen by UNICEF due to the differing problems caused by water in these two regions – as student number 7 illustrated by her comment, 'Due to water – in Ghana there is not enough and in Vietnam there is too much'. This difference was attributable to the fact that the cohort of 2004 had studied these two countries as case studies within their citizenship lessons. Nonetheless, since the marking criteria for these answers did not allow for gradations of responses (on reflection, a mistake on my part), the conclusion must remain that there was not as much of a marked difference in some of the results seen across the groups as would have been liked.

However, delivery through explicit teaching emerged as a more confident example of how students could see their participation had the potential to make a difference was in the enthusiastic way in which they became involved in the 'MP Back to School Day', which I deliberately linked with the teaching I had delivered on the role of UNICEF. The examples of questions posed to the local politician (p.203-204) reflected the students' awareness of the importance of education for young people from diverse backgrounds, implied recognition of the impact that a politician's own background and party politics would have on his approach to such an issue and attempted to gauge his accountability for the future, as well as testing his commitment on the extent to which young people should be considered as young citizens. It seems reasonable to assert, therefore, that these Key Stage 3 students engaging this politician with such questions were themselves demonstrating education for citizenship. While it was opportune that at the time of this visit there were rumours circulating about possible changes within the structure of education within this Local Education Authority, the fact that students chose to marry this theme with that of the education (or lack of education) of children elsewhere in the world demonstrated that they could see that there were issues affecting

their lives that also affected the lives of other young people, albeit being aware that the detail within those issues differed.

While it is a purely subjective observation to make, I was very impressed with the way in which these young people addressed this politician, not only for the first time in their lives but also in front of an audience of their peers within the year group and a large number of staff. I also believe that, bearing in mind my understanding of Meadowvale High over the years, this situation would not have existed for students at Key Stage 3 had citizenship education not have been a mandatory entitlement for citizenship and had the teaching of citizenship education in Meadowvale High not been discrete. While I appreciate that I cannot demonstrate that the cohort of 2003 would not have responded likewise, the mature manner in which these students addressed the 'MP Back to School Day' in 2004, both in the quality of the PowerPoint presentations that some students offered at stages within the session, and in the questions that were offered, led me to believe that there was some merit in engaging with a discrete delivery of citizenship education at this level. Moreover, the fact that this politician did engage directly with the students in this way made its own contribution in helping them to see that the role of Westminster does not necessarily have to be remote from communities far away from the pulse of the action. It also helped to cement the message that politicians are accountable to the people who elect them; and the appeal that this politician made to them to ensure that their voices were heard reinforced the view that the voice of individuals can make a difference. This exercise, therefore, had much to offer, although it did not produce evidence to demonstrate a change in dispositions as tangibly documented in the extra-curricular activities investigated. The search for meaningful delivery, from the perspective of this research, was not yet complete.

#### **5.4 Delivery through history**

In studying 19<sup>th</sup> century British political history at Key Stage 3, students can become aware of the effects of disenfranchisement for excluded groups. The unit of work covered in the quasi-experimentation built on this by aiming to help students understand 'two fundamental principles that affect beliefs about voting in representative democracies: responsibility and freedom' (QCA, 2001, p.3). Among its learning outcomes was the desire for students to use the knowledge they had gained to persuade

others (p.10). In principle, therefore, this unit of work had the potential to contribute towards my search for meaningful delivery because, if successful, it could furnish students with an understanding of the empowerment provided by the franchise - I entitled my student resources 'Power to the People' to emphasise this connection. The exercise therefore set out to identify the extent to which such knowledge might then shape the dispositions of students.

Initially, the findings were somewhat disappointing. The pre-tests and post-tests indicated that the teaching of this unit of work had persuaded only 40% of their duty to vote – discussion on the factors possibly underpinning this can be read in section 5.6. Bearing this statistic in mind, it would not have been unreasonable to have expected the students to have performed less convincingly in their citizenship written assessment. Yet the test statistic generated from the comparison of written assessment exercises in history and in citizenship fell inside the critical region, indicating that the result was insignificant at the 1% level. Why then was this element of the assessment findings more positive than the pre-test post-test results? The QCA might assert that the responsibility lay in not following the scheme of work exactly as written. It was not specifically the aim of this exercise to assess the unit of work in its entirety but to assess its potential as a tool for exploration of citizenship in history. Where changes were made they were not taken lightly. The students received the idea of personifying the 19<sup>th</sup> century characters very positively. Group research and presentations into the stages whereby reform was secured in the 19<sup>th</sup> century promoted the skills of enquiry and communication required by citizenship education. Peer assessment and formative teacher assessment were also possible at this stage. Encouraging the students to be their own researchers on current attitudes to voting broadened their understanding of this within a framework to which they could relate. The results of this exercise provided the material for a frank discussion in which all students were prepared to participate since all of them had relevant data in front of them. Using a critical thinking exercise with the title 'What is the point of voting today?' (Appendix 3) probed the minds of the students and paved the way for the assessment essay. The essay itself demanded responses that were more in keeping with education through citizenship than the one set in the scheme of work. The time allocated to this unit (four weeks) needed to be in proportion to the rest of the term's work, for this was a history course into which some citizenship elements were being introduced, not the reverse. I felt that more time would have

provided opportunities for development, but these were lessons timetabled for history 1750-1900, not for citizenship in the modern world. Without a departmental commitment to alter this balance (which was not forthcoming), no more time could be rightfully given.

On balance, however, this unit of work had perhaps not been as unsuccessful as the statistics implied. Students' education *about* citizenship had been successful in that the written assessment showed a sound understanding of the dilemmas of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Students' education *through* citizenship had produced presentations deemed by peers and teacher to show good skills in enquiry, communication and reflection; it had also provided a forum for vibrant discussions on today's politicians. Admittedly, student awareness of modern-day politics was erroneous in places, as flagged up by the critical thinking game and the essay. Some, for example, were unaware that party political broadcasts were a feature of television at key political moments, others that education was a leading theme of government attention. However, in the search for meaningful delivery this had not bred confidence, since the focus had been to consider the extent of which this exercise could help to develop a sense of responsibility towards others. The findings from the post-tests, which aimed at measuring any indication of a paradigm shift, implied that this exercise did not – at least in the short term - warrant being described as education *for* citizenship. Students had not emerged from this form of delivery convinced that through the exercise of their political right they could impact upon the lives of others; for many students it had not knowingly contributed towards a sense of responsibility to others. However, since the findings suggested that it was a more important measure of good citizenship to respect people, then this evidence indicated that student attitudes towards others did to some extent have a tentative base upon which to develop an understanding of citizenship education akin to mine, which provided some hope for the future.

## **5.5 Delivery through extra-curricular activity**

In searching for a way in which students could feel that their actions could impact upon the lives of others, I was more confident with the findings produced in this branch of the research project. When Dewey suggested that 'there is an intimate and necessary relation between the processes of actual experience and education' (1938, p.20) and

Lewin (1946) claimed that subjective personal experience is a valid component in the cycle of learning, together they provided a rationale for the findings from this branch of the research, even though their comments related to more mature samples than those students who completed *Questionnaire Three*. Although it is only fair to concur with Jarvis (1992) that not all experiences necessarily generate learning, I believe that it is reasonable to claim that the participants of this particular exercise were indeed recipients of learning from experience, as the quotations in Chapter Four suggested and the following extract reiterates:

‘I believe I am more aware of the poverty in the world and more aware and thankful for what I have. I will try to raise money and do all I can to help those in Kenya and others less fortunate than ourselves.’ (Male student, Kenya 2004)

Indeed these were not empty words. Within three months of this visit in 2004 these students had raised over £3000 for the funds of a school in the Marich Pass; moreover, this determination to help these people did not stop after this one burst of post-visit enthusiasm but was sustained by regular fundraising and awareness-raising thereafter. Through the actions of the students involved in such visits, other students at Meadowvale High have never been allowed to live in ignorance of the need to help communities such as these. These forty-two pupils had forged a common network for action that they had previously unanticipated. All of the participants agreed that they would appreciate the opportunity to return to these areas and to help the people some more; moreover, in summer 2007 one such student from the cohort of 2004 (now a university student) did exactly this. In essence, these young people had found a way in which their actions could make a difference to the lives of others, and they sustained this. Interestingly, in probing this further, all of these students acknowledged that they adhered to the Christian principle of ‘love thy neighbour’; yet despite this, and despite many being actively involved in their local church communities, they asserted that they felt it was these global experiences that had been most instrumental in developing their sense of communal responsibility.

In focusing on ways in which young people can feel that their actions mattered, the issues surfacing were threefold. Firstly, the value of a face-to-face experience as opposed to traditional learning was evident. These students knew they were visiting an

impoverished area but until they were actually there a paradigm shift in their thinking did not occur. In our world of increasing media coverage it is easier to become sanitised by the realities of life than it was a generation ago. Despite the concept of globalisation being so popular, distance can also breed non-familiarity and lack of ownership – especially to a teenager whose most immediate interests are more personal than altruistic. As a consequence of this it demonstrates the limitations that can be found in learning about an issue in a traditional way rather than experiencing it in person. It was apparent from the findings of the pre-test and post-test questionnaires that the prior knowledge that the students took to this learning situation was transformed by the actual experience. This therefore undermines the impact that traditional learning methods had on the true understanding of these students within this set of circumstances since these prior methods lacked the power of the real experience: the pre-visit findings lacked the powerful comments that were evident in the post-visit information. Prior to the visits, there had been an assumption that poverty was synonymous with unhappiness. All of the students were surprised by the lack of resources available to these people, but were more surprised to learn that not only did limited material possessions not result in antipathy but that the community spirit within these people was enviable. From a position of almost self-imposed superiority, these students came to realise that these people enjoyed a quality of life that they themselves lacked. While this is not an attempt to claim that schools should not teach about third world poverty – indeed they must - it does raise questions about the long term attitudinal changes that such teaching does or does not engender.

Moreover, it must be remembered that the relatively affluent nature of these students afforded the opportunity for this experience. This meant that middle class students, already rich in economic (and also cultural) capital were able to augment that capital – but those students who could not afford this visit were disbarred. It is fair to claim, therefore, that the capital of this group did indeed allow for further enrichment at the expense of others. Human capital, while inherent in individuals, is developed through lifetime opportunities in environments such as the home, the school and the workplace as well as through interaction with others and through self-reflection. Where it co-exists in families that are rich in cultural capital the potential for greater social capital must surely be maximal. When James Coleman explained his understanding of social capital as involving people whose trust in each other permits them to ‘accomplish more

than a comparable group lacking that trustworthiness' (1990, p.304) he was illustrating that the quality of relationships was paramount. Where all three forms of capital are present in an individual, an advantageous position is afforded from which new developments are possible for those who wish to take them, perhaps easing the possibility for a creation of the 'accordion effect' (Sheckley and Keeton, 1997, p.45), one that shapes the learner's attitudes as a consequence of their experiences. Nonetheless, all is not necessarily lost if a young person arrives at school lacking one of these forms of capital. The senior Labour politician (MP 170) who wrote, 'I had a teacher who gave me a great deal because of his hard work. The main thing was that he gave me confidence in myself' came from a background of hardship. Other comments he made identified the significant role played not only by staff in his school but also by his mother and grandmother and his observation of the good work done by those wishing to improve life for the less advantaged. This influential mix can be used to suggest that lack of economic capital does not necessarily have to limit individuals if opportunities for other forms of capital are present.

Secondly, there appeared to be a potential paradox within the students' evaluation of their experiences. While these students admired the satisfaction that could be enjoyed from lives lacking in materialism, these same students felt the need to try and enhance the living standards of these people. When probed on this point students were unconvinced that securing such a measure would be counterproductive by reducing the quality of community life that they found so attractive, asserting that this was too great a leap to imagine for people with such embedded attitudes of communitarian commitment and with such a material chasm to transcend.

Thirdly, and most poignantly, the experiences that these students enjoyed gave them the confidence to assert that they had developed as people – and the underlying theme that represented that change was consistent among the respondents. In developing as people, their sense of priorities was changing as they re-positioned their views about self and others. Life was becoming more meaningful, in de Ruyter's terms. Since these students now realised that they could make a difference to the lives of others by their actions they demonstrated their ongoing commitment to the wider community through individual, and collective, acts of active citizenship. Since the sustained drive for future

action was prompted by the students themselves and not by any staff-driven initiative, this must surely imply that these students had reflected upon their experiences and acted upon these reflections. This is in keeping with the belief posited by Sheckley and Keeton 'when an expectation is confirmed, the instance is seen by the learner as a reinforcement of prior learning and, for this reason, is viewed as a case in which relatively "little learning" occurred. When disconfirmation surprises learners, however, they tend to rethink, reconceptualise, and even transform the way they view the world' (1997, p.39). For some students a new understanding of self in relation to the world was realised, for one student a re-conceptualisation of north-south perspectives.

Therefore, the Kenyan and Gambian experiences documented in this thesis indicated that student reflections on face-to-face experiences engendered positive reactions. In wanting to promote local and national participation, perhaps - to stimulate initial interest - there is potential for others to consider approaching this from a global perspective. Whether or not this is true, the fact remains that global issues can and do attract the attention of young people – consider, reactions to the tsunami of December 2004 - recognition of this fact has powerful implications for school policy; consider also the response by young people to the Make Poverty History campaign in 2006. The move towards the development of global education, akin to the thinking of Pike and Selby (as opposed to adding an international dimension into the existing programme of study for citizenship), has received favour (Davies, Evans and Reid, 2005). While Davies *et al* see the need to link past, present and future, as well as the need for the school ethos to effect change through reflection on the implication of actions, I assert that experiences of the type explained in this thesis could, if developed within the explicit curriculum of a school, play a vital part in contributing to this – and need not be dismissed as simply adding an international dimension. This is because of the power of these examples, which lend themselves to conforming to the definition of a world citizen as expounded by Oxfam and quoted by David Bell (2005a) as someone who 'knows how the world is put together, who is angry about injustice and is willing and able to do something about it.' (Bell, in the Guardian 2<sup>nd</sup> November 2005). They also met at least two of the standards mooted by Cogan and Derricott as characteristics of successful 21<sup>st</sup> century citizenship, for example: 'the ability to look at and approach problems as a member of a global society; the ability to work with others in a cooperative way and to take responsibility for one's roles/duties within society' (2000, p.132). This can be further

endorsed by the view of Osler, 'The cosmopolitan citizen needs to be confident in his or her identity and requires learning opportunities to explore and develop them' (2002, p.125). Such were the circumstances of these students at Meadowvale High.

The potential of this type of global activity as a tool for exploration of meaningful delivery is further strengthened when placed alongside the less convincing findings gathered on relationships within the local community from the interviewees. In suggesting that Meadowvale High was seen as 'the servant of the community, rather than as a part of it' (Teacher 9, male, Head of Year), the interviewee concerned was making an interesting observation. The presence of a school in excess of 1100 students in a location that is officially termed as a village offers possible tensions. Local residents enjoy their suburban living and are quick to react when a group of students behave disrespectfully. While it is right and proper that they do, it does complicate the task of sustaining good community relations within a narrow parameter. Individual misdemeanours become labelled as school deficits, rather than as personal ones. While there are plenty of villagers who will laud the attitudes of many of our students, it appears to be a sad observation that often criticisms can attract more press than compliments and in doing so create the impression that young people do not contribute positively to community life. As long as such attitudes do dominate, then the task of establishing sustainable community links might be more problematic than schools might like.

What did not surface from discussions at this point was the question of exactly what was understood as being the local 'community'. The geographical area is somewhat unusual in its composition: Meadowvale High is located close to the village centre with its local housing, some of which is council housing with a handful of limited amenities, the latter encouraging many young people to feel the need to travel further afield for entertainment and broader opportunities. However, only metres away in the opposite direction is a large leafy estate of housing built on sites of a minimum of quarter of an acre, where many of the owners rarely see their neighbours through work commitments or choice. The concept of a 'village community' is perhaps a misnomer for the area encompassing the immediate catchment zone of Meadowvale High, making the task of creating a culture of community involvement all the more difficult. This conundrum

has been mirrored by the research of Orton (2006) whose paper does much to capture the impression of research carried out in a similar environment (albeit with a more aged sample). In probing the views of 'better off' citizens towards responsibility, his findings reveal an exclusive citizenship where responsibility is seen in terms of economic independence rather than in terms of mutual reciprocity. As with Orton's research, this area of Meadowvale is 'a gated community without a gate' (p.259) - the potential for 'gated status' having been discussed in recent years with some interest within this section of the community; such areas favour homogeneity in the community rather than diversity; hence, expectations are high but any sense of obligation is limited. Many of the students of Meadowvale High choose not to participate in community activities within the locality. If, however, students develop a more positive relationship with the global community than with their local community, then this might not be ideal but it certainly offers a potential for development and deserves not to be ignored.

## **5.6 Underpinning factors**

A developmental phase of the quasi-experimentation was to ascertain more definitively the source of students' attitudes. If students were not inspired to act on behalf of other people through the power of politics, it was significant to discover whose influences could impact upon student thinking to dictate against this or to direct their actions otherwise. The results supported my belief that parental influence was stronger than that of teachers. Although four students in the control group included teachers as a source of influence, none of the experimental group did, and these numbers were insufficient to make a significant difference to the total percentages. This being the case, such data provide humbling evidence of the impact that teachers can perhaps make on entrenched attitudes. Responses such as these were not atypical – Clark's report in the Times Educational Supplement (TES) on 12<sup>th</sup> September 2003 entitled 'Pupils do not see staff as role models' and commenting on the survey carried out at the University of Hertfordshire by Thornton and Bricheno, claimed only 2% of the 400 pupils (aged 9-15 years) surveyed saw teachers as potential role models, preferring relatives and friends. By contrast, a report published by the Times Higher Educational Supplement (THES) on 30<sup>th</sup> January 2004, entitled 'Youth drool at cool', summarising the findings of a survey carried out by psychologists at the University of Leicester, concluded that in a survey of 2,500 young people looks and media exposure (as characterised by David Beckham, Brad Pitt and Justin Timberlake) impacted more on them as important people

than those with intellect. When I had asked the students in my own sample to produce the list of criteria for the characteristics of a good role model, I can recall being taken aback by what I considered to be a shallowness in their thinking when ‘good looks’ was suggested as a criterion. Although there were students in the class who also reacted against this choice at the time, clearly the survey carried out by the researchers at Leicester confirmed that such a suggestion was not unusual for young people. As Adrian North, one member of the research team commented, ‘their top ten comprised Hollywood stars, pop musicians and a footballer. What links all the names in our top ten is their looks’ (in Tysome, THES News, January 30<sup>th</sup> 2004:3). Moreover, Tony Tysome added, ‘Mr Blair ranked 69<sup>th</sup>, rubbing shoulders with illusionist, David Blaine ... Nelson Mandela, in 14<sup>th</sup> place, emerged as the most popular politician and arguably the only person in the top 20 representing a clear moral or political ideology’. What these two separate surveys have in common is a lack of admission of the significance of teachers. If citizenship education, delivered through schools, is to impact upon young people, it would seem unrealistic to expect teachers to be able to compete with such high profile sources of influence. Admittedly, an observation such as this, based on the questionnaire issued, might not be completely accurate – perhaps students do not appreciate the impact teachers have on them until they are sufficiently mature to view their education in retrospect.

Indeed, perhaps the influence of teachers is more subtle than apparent. For instance, in securing comparably sound written responses to both sets of written exercises during the quasi-experimentation, perhaps what I had witnessed was a group of students performing along the lines they knew were expected of them – i.e. to produce a piece of work based on the teaching provided. However, it is important to bear in mind that just because a student can produce what is evaluated as being a good response to an exercise does not have to mean that the student necessarily believes in what he has written and perhaps the anomaly between the pre-tests, post-tests and the essays demonstrated the difference between personal viewpoints and the basic wish for a ‘good mark’. As Pring (1999, p.79) has pointed out, acquiring a set of ideas is not tantamount to acquiring a set of beliefs. Hence, student attitudes could also help to explain the potential anomaly between the quantitative and qualitative data. When informed that a piece of work is to be an assessed exercise, it is normal for students at Meadowvale High to focus sharply on the task. Perhaps in responding to this ‘challenge’, the students were providing the

responses that they felt would best please the teacher rather than writing what they believed. At worst, this could invalidate the essay as an assessment technique, at best it raises questions on power in research setting. The defence of eclecticism in data collection has been a feature of the work of Samantha Punch (2002), one which reaffirms the view that there is no simple way of engaging with, and responding sensitively to, the needs of young people.

It is interesting at this point to consider the discussion so far mooted in this section alongside the MP findings. Whilst accepting that the parliamentary survey engaged with a different sample, the data gathered from the politicians were more encouraging on the retrospective contribution of schools and their teachers. 40.9% of respondents acknowledged the role of school in stimulating activism and of this percentage the ethos of the school and the impact of certain individuals were deemed to be the two most important, often interconnected factors. Smith argues that the ethos of a school can be explained as its *habitus*/community of practice, ‘constructed through an interaction between the culture mix of teachers, pupils, parents, the local community and so on, and the school’s official value system’ (Smith, 2003, p.466-467). Smith writes of the durability of school ethos but acknowledges that dispositions can be transposed as a result of group interaction, culture confrontation or reaction to authority. This is an interesting point because it can serve to illustrate that the ethos of a school can act as a stimulus for political activism from a negative as well as from a positive perspective, as some of the quotations in Chapter Four indicated. Additionally, it reverberates with the issue I raised in Chapter Three (p.98) that to deliver an initiative in a school where the staff do not support it is tantamount to disaster. This will be discussed further in the following chapter.

Replies that suggested individuals were spurred into action because the respondents had reacted against the ethos of their schools were indeed in a minority, but in existing in the first place they surely legitimise a limitation to the application of Bourdieuan theory. Terri Seddon, in considering social justice in education, concluded that this is dependent upon the many variables operating alongside ‘obdurate social relations’ (2003, p.249) and that ‘every period brings its own forms of justice and injustice’ (2003, p.250). This is indeed validated by the evidence of those politicians who responded

negatively against their school ethos. However, while negativity can be a spur to action, it can also produce the opposite effect and is therefore not a recommended path to encourage.

Was it unrealistic to try to promote citizenship skills within a four-week experimental period? Certainly it would be inaccurate to assume that Year 9 students come to class without any extraneous political influences, even if these influences were simply one of disinterest. The homework exercise that probed parental attitudes to voting is germane. 73% of those parents interviewed voted in the general election of May 2001, 62% in the last local election and 51% in the last election for a European Parliament. This was higher than the national average, which was a 59.4% turnout for the general election of 2001, and the Year 9 parents who had returned questionnaires indicated that they valued the importance of voting. However, the qualitative data that the students gathered on reasons for their parents not voting were in line with those already described by Professor Norton in *Citizenship PA* (2002). These can be summarised as a lack of real choice in the general election, coupled with a realisation that the result was obvious; a perceived lack of relative importance with regard to the local elections and an uncertainty over who or what was being voted for in European elections. Surely such conditions undermine the concept that voting can make a difference to the lives of others? If so, it also undermines any efforts by teachers to convince students otherwise. It does not appear to be contentious to claim that, at the tender age of thirteen or fourteen years, students could still bear the influence (whether conscious or not) of their parents, thereby responding with the attitudes of these mouthpieces rather than demonstrating any shift in thinking within their own perspectives as a result of some new teaching. Nonetheless, since 73% of the parents of those students involved in the quasi-experimentation did choose to vote in the previous general election and only 40% of their offspring anticipated a sense of commitment to act likewise, this would imply that there are factors other than parental influence impinging on attitudes to voting.

Whilst we must accept that the term 'family' in the 21<sup>st</sup> century is a concept with different meaning to different people, Bourdieu (1986) asserts that it does, nevertheless, embody two sets of common properties: firstly a principle of group identity and secondly its right to exist as a separate social universe, protected from the world by the

tangible walls that surround it. From this bed of stability, Bourdieu claims that relationships of trust are borne. As a natural social category the family functions as a body by integration, creating a sense of kinship that is essential to its social cohesion; it also functions as a field, exerting and transforming symbolic power relations.

Research into the values' perspective of 1500 inhabitants from England, Wales and Scotland in 1990, designed by the European Values System Study Group and based upon a variant undertaken in 1981, supports this Bourdieuan premise. When probing levels of social trust, the analysts reported over 90% of respondents, irrespective of social grouping, admitted to unqualified family trust. While Noel Timms (1992) was careful to include the caveat that such a survey cannot represent a definitive picture of the nation, its data are interesting nonetheless when endeavouring to identify the significance of family in social modelling. More recent – and more widespread – research led Wossmann echoes this in analysing data from the Third International Mathematics and Science Survey (TIMSS), published in 2000. Paradoxically, concerns over the role of parents and the sadness expressed in the need to formalise citizenship ideals resonated with the additional written responses from parents who completed *Questionnaire One*. This indicated consensus with the public image, but was not one that was borne out by the perspectives of the students themselves.

In an attempt to clarify the anomaly in the data results from the experimental exercise, a class discussion had evolved. This opened with the sharing of the pre-test and post-test results with the experimental group and proved to be the most illuminating part of this experiment. Only one question was posed: 'Now that you have seen how important it was for people in the past to be able to vote, why has that not encouraged many of you to be more positive about the value of this yourself?' What followed was a heated discussion, one that was quite worthy of being described as 'education for citizenship' but one that berated politicians. 59% of the group complained that politicians were untrustworthy and that this undermined students' confidence in the system. It is impossible to measure the extent to which this might be a view inherited from their parents, although the data so far gathered would imply this was very possible. 54% felt that their vote would not make any difference anyway – an unpromising statistic in a classroom where I wished to encourage students to see the potential of voting as a

medium for empowerment. The negative perception was indignantly challenged by the female student who announced: 'One vote can change the world!' When a male student retorted: 'If you don't see things changing around you then you won't be bothered about voting'. This was met with: 'If you don't see things changing then you need to do something about it' by another female student. What can be seen in this, nonetheless, is that such an exercise activates discussion about the power of politics, which in itself is a positive step forward.

While these comments were made in 2002, it seems viable to claim that little has changed in public opinion in the next five years if the survey published by the Readers' Digest in 2007 is to be accepted – the findings from this survey of 1,900 people indicated that only 9% of those surveyed trusted politicians (a drop from 15% in 2002, the year in which my students were contributing their views). Negativity towards politicians continues to be commonplace. Whether or not this is warranted or simply the result of bad press is not the remit of this project, although if it is the latter this has powerful ramifications for the power of the media in shaping attitudes. If, however, this view of politicians is justified it raises important questions on how the Government expects to engender confidence and commitment in political literacy. It also makes it difficult for teachers to persuade students that they can make a difference to the lives of other by the use of politics. There was a general consensus among the students engaging in this research that the needs of the people of the 19<sup>th</sup> century were much greater than the needs of people in the 21<sup>st</sup> century and that this therefore reduced the urgency in voting. This discussion clarified that students saw the need for politicians to address issues, but that they felt removed from the process and unconvinced that those in Government would deliver their promises. No doubt Sir Bernard Crick would assert that this is precisely why citizenship education is needed in schools. It does however indicate that the successful promotion of political literacy depends upon having confidence in those in governance, which is a much bigger issue and one that cannot be controlled by schools. If I wished students to see that citizenship education could help them make a difference to the lives of others, I was unconvinced that the teaching of citizenship through this example of political history was an effective platform for this with my students because it did not seem to persuade them that the use of a political vote was a means by which they could act responsibly on behalf of others.

The significance of family influence was also identified in the parliamentary survey. Of the 59.1% who identified factors outside school as political stimuli, 26.5% of these respondents specifically singled out the role of family as their key incentive. In doing so, such responses were perhaps unwittingly conforming to the theory of Bourdieu (1986a) that individuals rich in forms of capital are self-perpetuating as the dominant class. Bourdieu considers cultural capital to mean the impact that forces such as family, social class and education can have on individual achievements. From such advantageous bases, opportunities arise more freely for the development of social capital which Robert Putnam (2000, p.19) has defined as the 'social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them.' Thirty one respondents commented on the importance of social networks in their own steps towards Parliament. Their families impacted positively upon their attitudes towards politics; but if the families of our students do not share the same perceptions then this can impact negatively on these students before they ever reach the classroom, making more difficult the task of the teacher wishing to deliver citizenship through history or through its own discrete provision. In this case, another avenue is needed to demonstrate to the students that they can make a difference by their active involvement.

If families as structures form the basis of trust, then it would not be unreasonable to assert that they should provide the means for individuals to develop self-confidence for their actions, primarily within the separate social universe that Bourdieu describes as a property of the family concept. Ideally however, for active participation in any venture a degree of self-confidence is warranted, and this was highlighted in the response of the Member of Parliament who discussed the need for self-esteem in people wishing to affect change (Appendix 7). One Conservative politician (MP 225), in explaining what prompted him to become politically active (school being one factor), implied the value of family in creating the capital warranted to develop as an individual willing and capable of bringing about change when he referred to life's two privileges being the gifts of love as a child and that of a good education. This respondent, like the previous example, appeared to be emphasising the importance of early relationships as the first step in a path to self confidence. The data produced from this research exercise confirmed that politicians believed that it was possible to affect change within social dispositions. While it is important to remember that the respondents of this survey are from a generation apart from the students of today, the development of self-esteem is a

form of human capital that transcends generations. Young people develop confidence in many areas throughout their growth, but to develop the type of confidence that equates with the promotion of social capital and ultimately political activism is more challenging and, for many students, necessitates more effort and perhaps the use of divergent pathways. The significance of the role of self-esteem can be supported by the literature (Bottery, 1990, Foster-Allen, 1996) and echoes the more recently recorded views of Terren (2002) on the impact of the post-modern age on European democracy. Therefore, it is important to note that, when searching for a means by which an education innovation can impact upon young people, practitioners and researchers should bear in mind the influences, overt and covert, that also make a difference to a student's interpretation of an educational innovation.

Whilst the stimulus of family ranked as the single most common point in the responses received, 45% indicated that their main reason for entering the political arena was linked to some individual experience of injustice and a desire to improve upon this. In responding to the question: 'What stimulus led you to enter the political arena?' injustice was witnessed in many guises, as the examples listed in Chapter Four indicated. While the experiences were all individual, they were all underpinned by the same dispositions and led to a commonality of purpose. Injustice, it would seem, is a powerful motivator to action. Perception of what constitutes injustice however is quite another matter as responses by opposing parties to the same question indicated. It would seem that what was being represented by these examples (and others like them), is a reflection of the differing values fostered within differing backgrounds – a return, therefore to the theory of cultural significance.

A determination to provide social justice begets its own networks and can transcend class structures. The examples quoted in Chapter Four are all linked by a common theme, already existent in the literature of citizenship. The issues dimension as defined by Hicks (2003, p.271) accounts for the stimuli of many respondents, even though their examples were not necessarily based on global problems. Human capital has been defined by the Organisation for Economic and Cultural Development (OECD) as 'the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes embodied in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being' (2001, p.18). Attributes, the

OECD asserts, can be changed by the external environment and shaped by specific cultural settings. The parliamentary responses quoted in this thesis can be interpreted in this light and, more significantly, the findings from the extra-curricular activities also fitted comfortably here.

Of course these examples do not necessarily exist in isolation of other possible factors – school, family or community. A noticeable percentage (20%) of respondents attributed their commitment to political activism to stimuli connected with adult life, rather than school life (e.g. university, world of work, parenthood). A study of the 122 named respondents revealed that the zones within which many of them circulated at this stage of their lives were not disadvantageous – the majority (but by no means all) had undertaken higher education and moved into occupations of standing. Thus, the social spaces that they inhabited at some stage of their lives were culturally or economically rich in capital, or indeed both, although exceptions were noted, as for example, the comments made by the Labour politician (MP 193) on experiencing the contrasts between dockland Liverpool and Oxbridge. Definitions of class boundaries in the current age are increasingly blurred and it may well be the case that some anonymous Members of Parliament who considered their upbringing to be ‘working class’ had indeed enjoyed a background richer in capital than they had assumed at the time or that the values with which they were imbibed were more those of the new middle class – hence narrowing the space between themselves and their colleagues. If capital is enhanced when social agents between the old and the new middle class unite, it might explain why some individuals connect to the social spaces occupied by others, albeit across a gap easier to breach than if one of the variants could be traced to the traditional working class of old. Whatever the explanation, acting in the way they did enabled the respondents from this survey to promulgate a particular form of social capital – one that led to networks of direct political action.

Nevertheless, these individuals will not have been alone in witnessing or experiencing examples such as those quoted. What about the host of other people across the UK who have reacted against the ethos of their school, have been discriminated against or have witnessed injustice but have not responded with political activity? Why do such examples trigger some people into action but not others? One possible explanation

could be the role of family, and this role could be explicitly recognised – as in the case of the 26.5% respondents from this survey - or it could be implicitly responsible, embedded into individuals below the level of consciousness and imposing values within mental structures of the type Bourdieu describes as symbolic capital.

This is not an attempt to revert to a ‘Bourdieuian’ philosophy of social reproduction at the exclusion of other factors, but it is acknowledging that there is a case for its existence in a number of situations. Evidence directly suggests that children of advantageous backgrounds are more inclined to participate in society than their less economically endowed peers (Parry, Moyser and Day, 1992; Verba, Scholzman and Brady, 1997) and that they benefit from this in many ways (Power *et al* 2003). Emotional stability within the home breeds personal confidence, financial stability breeds opportunity. One can exist without the other, but together they present a stronger case for action. Moreover, where the stimulus emanates from an issues dimension, it can connect like-minded people and open networks for actions. Individuals rich in cultural capital are surely in a stronger position to handle issues of conflict than those that are not. Whilst the stimulus of family ranked as the single most common point in the responses received, 45% indicated that their main reason for entering the political arena was linked to some individual experience of injustice and a desire to improve upon this. In responding to the question: ‘What stimulus led you to enter the political arena?’ injustice was witnessed in many guises, as the examples listed in Chapter Four indicated. While the experiences were all individual, they were all underpinned by the same dispositions and led to a commonality of purpose. Injustice, it would seem, is a powerful motivator to action. Perception of what constitutes injustice however is quite another matter as responses by opposing parties to the same question indicated. It would seem that what was being represented by these examples (and others like them), is a reflection of the differing values fostered within differing backgrounds – a return, therefore to the theory of cultural significance.

## **5.7 Summary**

This chapter has discussed the strengths and weaknesses of different approaches to delivering aspects of citizenship education at Meadowvale High. In trying to identify ways in which opportunities within school could impact upon students’ attitudes, I

emerged most confident with the findings afforded by the extra-curricular activities. Implicit delivery offered some value, albeit an inconsistent one, while using history lessons as a vehicle for citizenship education did not seem to convince students that one day they could improve the lives of others by voting. While discrete delivery provided a firmer foundation for the development of ideas the findings were unable to demonstrate that these foundations would bear fruit in later years, although short term progress was observed. Therefore, while each approach offered some small contribution towards the general study of citizenship education, the findings that offered the most immediate recognition of a change in students' attitudes rested with their global experiences.

## Chapter 6 Reflections

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out to provide a reflective commentary on the principal conclusions that can be drawn from the research, before moving on to explore their implications for various stakeholders concerned with issues of educational innovation and citizenship education. It should be noted that an overview of the principal conclusions is provided in Chapter Three on pages 90-91. In essence these points, which will be discussed in the subsequent section can be summarised as:

- Adding to the existing knowledge-base on curriculum innovation by providing insight into some of the implications of a major curriculum innovation and, by consequence, throwing light on the problem of getting a centrally-imposed initiative off the ground. This feeds directly into the discourse on educational innovation.
- Demonstrating the potential value of a mixed-methods approach for school practitioners engaged in research, offering support for this paradigm within educational research methodology.
- Providing (i) a variety of evidence on a newly-introduced, centrally-imposed initiative from the perceptions of its educational community; (ii) practitioners with information on the likely effectiveness of different approaches to citizenship education, including those focusing on global awareness. These data bolster the somewhat limited empirical literature so far available on the progress of citizenship education in English schools since its mandatory entitlement.
- As a separate feature, this study may be seen as adding to the knowledge-base relating to political socialisation.

## **6.2 Conclusions**

### **6.2.1 The implementation of this educational innovation**

In Chapter Two (Table 2.1) I highlighted the characteristics affecting implementation of a curriculum innovation as expounded by Fullan. This section will open with a consideration of those factors in light of the research undertaken. Although Fullan highlighted the role of the LEA as one of these characteristics, this did not emerge as a feature in my study because it offered no support to my school for this initiative after September 2002. To assert that this contributed towards the reactions of others at school level would be hypothetical rather than drawn from the observations recorded; for this reason this factor will not feature in the ensuing discussion. By contrast, the impact of the Government was initially crucial since it was this body that was responsible for centrally-imposing the initiative and was instrumental in endorsing curriculum materials produced by the QCA for use within schools – including those used for the quasi-experimentation strand of this research. Therefore the role of this external agent has been seen to be significant in shaping my research. Moreover, the findings gathered through researching the reflections of parliamentarians themselves enriched my thinking as the project developed. Despite the influences of this agent in the early stages, however, the development of this project has demonstrated that other factors were more instrumental in attempting to sustain the innovation.

Characteristics at school level were highly significant. This research has demonstrated that even when a researcher does attempt to follow guidelines on how to minimise resistance to change (Ellsworth, 2000), problems can still arise. For instance, despite offering opportunities for stakeholder views through interviews, questionnaires and further discussions, the resistance of staff towards this initiative implied that I failed in my objective to engage staff as partners in change and needed to re-direct my search. Throughout this thesis I have reiterated my concern over the dismissive manner in which this initiative was interpreted by senior management in the crucial months leading up to its introduction which, coupled with the refusal to allow time for whole-school training in its formative year, was a missed opportunity to engender a whole-school commitment to this new curriculum area. This was a view echoed in the interview data, which anticipated a lack of acceptance by staff due to their unawareness of the nature of the innovation (page 181). One possible reason for this failure, therefore, could be attributed to the lack of consultation and preparation evident in

Meadowvale High prior to any action I undertook. As Ely warns, ‘people who will ultimately implement an innovation must possess sufficient knowledge and skills to do the job’ (1990, p.300). I would assert that this includes prerequisite training to instil confidence in the innovation, which did not occur in Meadowvale High.

The nature of the innovation is one of Fullan’s factors that appeared to bear relevance in this case study. Dissension over the introduction of citizenship education featured elsewhere even before its implementation – as indicated in Chapter One; approaches to citizenship education across time were seen to be uneven in Chapter Two, while critical responses to the Crick Report itself were also noted in the same chapter and Chapter Four (p.187) demonstrated that some parents did not accept the need for this innovation. Thus, it is hardly surprising that discord was subsequently mirrored in staff responses to the potential development of this innovation at Meadowvale High; although I believe that this research has been informative in providing tangible proof at school level of some of the challenges associated with the introduction of this particular curriculum innovation and how a school responded to these challenges. In doing so it serves to reinforce the claim that ‘educational change depends on what teachers do and think’ (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991, p.117). Not only does this statement apply to the way in which I responded to the introduction of the citizenship education initiative as Citizenship Coordinator, but applies to the reaction of the Headteacher to the hostility of the form tutors at Meadowvale High in that by consequence he felt compelled to review his approach to this curriculum innovation. Without this tension inside school, there is no evidence to suggest that this subject would have been allocated discrete provision. Imposed change invariably carries with it an implicit message that the status quo is no longer adequate; experienced teachers do not always respond positively to this – as indicated in Chapter One (p.14) and exemplified in Chapter Three (p.98-99). This research, therefore, has highlighted barriers to an educational innovation at school level, and has linked one aspect of this resistance to the literature on the effects of imposed curriculum change on experienced teachers. The discussions raised in previous chapters have made reference to Fullan’s dimensions of change – revised beliefs, approaches and/or materials. Since the implementation of the innovation was influenced by reactions at school level, this in turn influenced the approaches subsequently used – and by consequence the materials adopted once discrete delivery replaced coordinated attempts. In Chapter Two (p.33), I suggested that an innovation that fails to win over

hearts and mind faces barriers to successful implementation. Indeed the resistance of staff to engage with this initiative, followed by a course of delivery that did not involve them, was tantamount to acknowledging that this innovation did not lead to a revision of their beliefs because they stood by their original claims that citizenship education was a subject unconnected to their responsibilities.

Since citizenship education has been seen to be a contentious subject, one reason for failure to embed it at school level as a coordinated across the curriculum could be attributed to the somewhat contentious nature of the initiative itself, rendering difficult any attempts at a *modus vivendi* – which in itself could help to explain the procrastination of senior management. The interview data (p.175) confirmed the view that staff are not always comfortable about broaching controversial subject matters in the classroom; so introducing an avowedly educational initiative that is very value-laden invites similar reactions, and could represent to some a cultural change that appeared incompatible or uncomfortable with their status quo. In this case, as Ellsworth has noted, ‘changing the cultural trait is outside the power of virtually any change agent. In cases like this, the incompatibility is often with the fundamental purpose of the innovation, rendering significant adaptation impractical’ (2000, p.170). While this might indeed account for the opposition of some members of staff, it cannot be accepted at face value – after all, the response from my staff questionnaire implied support for this initiative. Herein lies a problem in using anonymous questionnaires as a source of information. Did those staff objecting to involvement in this initiative offer responses to this questionnaire? If they did respond, then how can the positive findings from this questionnaire equate with their subsequently negative reactions? Perhaps the concept of the innovation was acceptable to them, so long as it was one undertaken by other teachers. However, those tutors who objected to involvement complained that this would be inappropriate use of curriculum time – a theme that had surfaced earlier in the findings from the interviews, together with concerns over staff confidence and increased workload. Once again, this calls for attention to be paid to Ely’s emphasis on the environmental conditions necessary for successful educational change – conditions that the researcher involved in an initiative stretching beyond her own classroom does not always have sufficient power to control.

64% of staff completed the staff questionnaire; no members of staff responded to the offer to discuss this initiative further. If the teachers taking a negative stance towards the innovation did not complete questionnaires then this limits the reliability of results gleaned from such instruments when the positive conclusions drawn from them influence the next stage of a project. This discrepancy is a warning to other practitioners engaged in questionnaire research. In addition, while the study I completed was an individual case study, the fundamental nature of the barriers witnessed through teacher resistance to change, whether these be a result of incompatible culture traits or perceived threats to their confidence, time or expertise, could possibly shed light on chequered progress to the initiative of citizenship education if resistance has been noticed elsewhere in England. Thus, this research has provided insight into the implementation of a government policy and into the school practice that was shaped by it.

While interpretations of meaningful citizenship education might vary, both the Ajegbo Review (2007) and the NFER response to it (Goodwin, 2007) concurred that one of the criteria for effective delivery of citizenship issues is strong leadership and direction. As far as this initiative was concerned within my school, this was not apparent at senior level and it continued to emit mixed messages. This was evidenced by the fact that it began as a reluctant obligation in 2002; given little endorsement from 2002-2003; offered as discrete delivery from 2003-2005 as part of a marriage of curriculum convenience with religious studies rather than one arrived at through reasoned debate with those deemed responsible for its delivery; and finally reduced to the status of a third partner in a *ménage-a-trois* comprising PSHE, religious studies and citizenship (in which the latter now receives a total of merely seven hours of study across Years 9-11). While this amalgam has been supported by Faulks (2006, p.136), I doubt he would favour this truncated version of it. This case study therefore provides tangible evidence that the 'dissensus and goal diversity' that Ball (1990, p.11) saw as a pervasive influence in schools still has validity for schools engaging in 21<sup>st</sup> century change. Sadly, as long as there predominates within the English education system a preoccupation with management in 'business terms' (Pring, 1999, p.72) through league tables, value-added data and the celebration of other performance-based measures devised ostensibly to enhance institutional accountability – one that, arguably, produces an undue preoccupation of policy-makers and other stakeholders (including parents)

with academic results (important those these results are to the individual student) at the expense of developing the whole person - I suspect this situation is likely to continue unabated. If this is indeed the case, then the journey towards helping students to learn how to contribute towards wider society (Davies *et al*, 2002), as raised in Chapter One, will surely be achieved with uneven coverage.

What is interesting, I believe, is that it would be easy for outsiders unaware of the details of this research to be misled on the impact of this citizenship initiative in Meadowvale High. After all, in 2002 the school was seen to appoint a coordinator for the initiative and I was enthusiastic about the task. I had engaged with the views of the relevant stakeholders and incorporated them into my planning. Incidentally, the majority of these views were supportive of the proposals. Moreover, within a year Meadowvale High was offering discrete provision for citizenship education. Whatever the reality, the overall impression conveyed was a positive one. Yet I emerged from this project believing that, if this was to be deemed an educational innovation, little effective change had been made – what Gordon and Lawton term ‘innovation without change’ (1978, p. 223), and what Sikes describes as going through the motions to ‘present an appearance of change without any real change taking place’ (1992, p.45). It is true, as evident in this thesis, that progress had been made in offering discrete provision; it is true that students were engaging in discussions over issues previously not part of programmes of study; it is true that students were producing written exercises that reflected learning within the remit of this discipline; and in the first Ofsted inspection following the introduction of citizenship education at Meadowvale High (2006), the brief comment on citizenship education was favourable. Yet despite this, the area where I had observed the most effective change in the disposition of students – through personal experience of global community projects – was one which already quietly existed within the school for those students willing and able to afford the experience. I had not been searching for a means of delivery, but for a meaningful delivery, and for me these other supposedly positive signs seen throughout the years lacked real substance. Admittedly, this judgement is premised on my own understanding of the concept of citizenship education as one that allows students to make a difference to the lives of others. Therefore, to those viewing the development of citizenship education at Meadowvale High from a distance, the finer points of the impact of this innovation were not visible. I consider this to be a worrying conclusion

because it has the potential to apply to the work of other schools, if schools use as their baseline the structures they put into place and the academic quality of the written work that is produced, rather a close study of student responses to opportunities provided.

### **6.2.2. Mixed-methods research**

I was able to unearth these finer points by use of my mixed-methods approach and I would encourage practitioners engaged in whole-school research to consider this as a strategy within their own institutions. Although mine was a local study it drew on a range of methods and therefore may contribute towards an understanding of the applications for mixed-methods research. Practitioners often engage in small-scale research in their own classrooms, but practitioner-researchers wishing to investigate an innovation that impacts upon their school as a whole would be wise to adopt a holistic approach because of the opportunities it affords. Had I restricted this study to quasi-experimentation I would have gathered some (arguably) insightful data on why students believe that they are unlikely to see an understanding of political history as an incentive to develop a sense of responsibility towards others. However, it would not have given me an answer to my key research question. Had I employed only staff interviews I would have been unaware of the perceptions of other valuable stakeholders; moreover the positive support for the initiative featured in these interview findings would have left me with a skewed view of the overall reaction of other teachers – as measured by the reaction of the latter when put to the test over delivery of elements of this programme. Had I restricted the use of questionnaires to only one aspect of the evaluation (e.g. gauging initial support for the elements of the programme of study), I would have lacked evidence to present an overview of the case and comparisons would have been impossible. This was not simply a research exercise initiated with one cohort to discover an answer to my research question for that cohort; rather it was a project undertaken with one case with results that could impact upon that case in the future. Hence a holistic approach over a number of years has yielded a richer result, one that avoids falling into the trap of misleading surface impressions. While the methodological purist might baulk at eclecticism, the use of quantitative and qualitative data strengthened my claim to internal validity and reliability. My prolonged submergence in the research provided a clearer reflection of the case; triangulation of the data and peer examination of these data added credence to the judgements made; respondent validation enhanced the interviews and feedback to students secured their

agreement with the findings gathered. The employment of these techniques helps to compensate for the fact that no research must be seen as absolute but as a matter of degree. Ongoing research by the NFER is uncovering findings that overlap with some of those reported in this thesis, e.g. the significance of family influence, restricted uptake on extra-curricular activities, student support for a rights and responsibility agenda - although it is yet to report on the impact on dispositions in the manner quoted by the student participants in Meadowvale High's global visits. I believe this overlap strengthens the case for external validity. Had my research not extended over the period of time allocated, or if I had not triangulated my sources, then reliability could have been an issue as far as my claims are concerned for the merits of global community activity. The use of a mixed-methods paradigm over time has helped to offset the limitations of case-study research and has produced the results offered, thus supporting the claim of Sechrest and Sidana (1995) that such an approach can offer the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative techniques.

### **6.2.3 Citizenship education**

This research was a search for meaningful delivery of citizenship education within an English high school. It is fitting, therefore, that this section should close with a discussion of this important aspect. I would claim that the investigation outlined in this thesis has produced original data on this evolving initiative from the perceptions of its educational community; evidence that helps to illuminate aspects of this curriculum innovation with which stakeholders identified and with which some found a means by which they felt willing and able to engage with maximal notions of citizenship. In addition, I would also argue that in identifying aspects of citizenship that changed the disposition of some of my students, this thesis provides other practitioners with food for thought on the likely effectiveness of different approaches to citizenship education, including those focusing on direct participation in projects that place students outside their comfort zones. While the Crick Report asserted that 'voluntary and community service cannot be the full meaning of active citizenship' (QCA, 1998, p.11), it also aimed 'to build on and to extend radically to young people the best in existing traditions of community involvement and public service, and to make them individually confident in finding new forms of involvement and action among themselves' (p.7-8). I believe that the findings from the global community projects exemplified how traditional forms of community involvement can provide young people with the confidence to take

further action on behalf of others – a valuable citizenship skill. If this provides meaning to young people it should not be considered of less worth than skills in political literacy.

The in-school experiences of citizenship education, both implicit and explicit, demonstrated that students responded more effectively to strands linked to social and moral responsibility and community involvement than they did to the strand of political literacy. In searching for a way in which the delivery of citizenship education could equip students with the skills to make a difference to the lives of others, I emerged from this project more confident in suggesting that this could be achieved through exposing young people to experiences that transcended their comfort zones than in recommending that teachers should focus on delivery of citizenship through history lessons. This is because the most encouraging results in this project were collated from the international community visits. Not only were these examples of education through citizenship but since the students engaged in self-enforced forms of experiential learning which, through the reflections that ensued, provided affective learning these examples may merit to be deemed as evidence of education for citizenship. In the terms used by Baumeister (1991) and introduced in Chapter One of this thesis, the experiences they encountered impacted upon their value systems. In the case of these students, in firstly acknowledging their own value changes, they then provided tangible proof in subsequent years that they could ‘make a difference by their actions’ (De Ruyter, 2002, p.37). This is clearly reflected in the words of one of these students, whose *habitus* was transformed as a result of his experience:

‘I am respectful to people with less. I have completely changed.’ (Male student, Kenya 2004)

This is a powerful statement representative of others from this strand of the research and resulted from a situation that did not measure up to the student’s expectations. It shows reflective judgement and it also led to reflective action, thereby conforming to the accordion effect suggested by Sheckley and Keeton. In campaigning further on behalf of the Kenyan community for the remainder of their years at Meadowvale High and raising awareness among other young people, students such as these were demonstrating that they realised that their actions could make a difference. If a

participant possesses sufficient capital to have the confidence and self-esteem to respond to this effect, the realm of meaningful citizenship is surely more accessible. However, it is important to emphasise that the students who benefited from this particular experience were all ones who were already rich in capital – both economic and cultural. Those students who stemmed from less economically advantageous backgrounds were not among those young people sufficiently privileged to participate; they were disenfranchised. This raises questions on the accessibility of young people to these opportunities for enhanced skills in citizenship, and has implications for schools wishing to promote education for citizenship from a position of equal opportunities.

Since values provide justification for how we behave in the world, a wide range of values offers the possibility to enhance understandings of citizenship (Halstead and Pike, 2006). Crick believes political literacy can elevate a citizen from the status of being good to being active and his thinking is at national and local level. This belief might be correct, but the operational terms will work best if they are in a sphere that has personal meaning to individuals. If young people feel motivated by matters further afield, who are we to insist that their primary focus should be nearer to home? An awareness of social injustice (as demonstrated by these third world visits) that motivates individuals into action within civic circles (as seen in the responses of these students afterwards) can in time lead some people to shift the focus of their efforts to political circles (as evidenced by the parliamentary findings). It is not unreasonable, therefore to suggest that young people, who at present might feel lukewarm to the political climate, could in time appreciate its potential as an agent of change and embrace it with greater enthusiasm, using their vote to influence future actions. People can be driven to action when they experience injustice, as evidenced by suffrage campaigns in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, apartheid in the 20<sup>th</sup> century and world poverty in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The challenge is to find pertinent socio-cultural examples and create a security of circumstances in which individuals are sufficiently motivated to move from passive disapproval to activism – examples that encourage the young person to experience an accordion effect rather than a conduit effect. Annette (2005) has concerns over the way in which community-based learning can be used to develop democratic citizenship, but if a definition of 21<sup>st</sup> century citizenship was adopted that celebrated the pivotal position of social justice rather than focusing more sharply on the perceived elitism of politics, governments might begin to carve for themselves more respectability at grassroots level. In tapping into the themes

that both excite the imagination and touch the souls of young people, new bridges could be made from which governments may well witness resurgences of interest in the very political issues in which they are currently alleged to be apathetic. It is impossible to wager at this stage whether or not the international community experiences will create the conditions conducive to socio-political capital on the part of any of the participants who contributed towards this research; and while the chances of this might be remote, it is possible, however, to claim that they have further developed their social capital at an impressionable age. Many Members of Parliament acknowledged their initial stimulus as being an encounter with life within the concept of an issues dimension; these students have demonstrated that they too have personally experienced injustice/inequality and want to change it. Perhaps any future discussion on the nature of citizenship education needs to bear this hard fact in mind.

The Ajegbo Review (2007) urged discrete teaching of citizenship education. Where this occurred at Meadowvale High (and where citizenship education was delivered through history lessons) some progress in understanding was evident, but the results, together with the post-experimental findings, were unconvincing that these experiences would have any lasting impact on the way in which students saw themselves as equipped to make a difference to the lives of others. The implications to be drawn were that such delivery largely remained as education about citizenship, although there is no denying that such learning – as seen through the quotations offered in Chapter Four - was working towards what has been described as the ‘interconnectedness’ of the dimensions of multidimensional citizenship espoused by Cogan and Derricott (2000, p.133) and noted on page 83 of this thesis. Therefore, in these examples, the role of school did play a part, but this part should not be overstated. Nonetheless, the evidence gathered from the MP data helped to sustain retrospective recognition of the impact of school on young people, allowing us to muse over the extent to which some students, in commenting on influential agents, perhaps lack objectivity during their school years. If this were the case it questions whether or not this skews the validity of their responses to such research issues.

#### 6.2.4 Political socialisation

This thesis has also provided a forum for the discussion of the political socialisation of a considerable number of UK politicians. Despite the implication of limited advancement of a spirit of citizenship in certain aspects of the in-house research I undertook, reflections on the impact of school was significant to 40.9% of these respondents surveyed from the beyond the parameters of the case study. While recognising that this statistic related to different schools, it does indicate a more positive conclusion when a different and more mature audience is engaged. This could provide some hope for a reflective recognition of the part that schools can play in engendering a spirit of citizenship education. Whilst acknowledging the limitations of a survey whose sample was highly selective, this finding helps to reinforce the merit of targeting a wide sample base in research to establish a broad cross section of views. However, the variety of data gathered in this survey also indicated that the factors that impinge upon an individual's sense of responsibility to others are varied, a point succinctly summarised by one Welsh MP:

‘I suspect that home life and upbringing, together with post-school experiences of employment and social interaction are the prime movers in motivating political action. But it can depend upon other variables: a stimulating school teacher, a piece of literature, film or art; perhaps an event that influences you or your family – the list is endless!’ (MP 8, Labour)

While we might readily accept that a combination of variables can be significant in effecting change and promoting effective education, this does not offer a ready solution to the quest for meaningful delivery of citizenship education because, for me, it does not appease the following concern. If – as demonstrated by the findings from this research - reflective learning based on issues dimensions is indeed a significant factor, how can other students develop this sense of responsibility if they do not feel secure within the parameters of their own life? This has implications for the limitations of success in this field amongst students lacking in capital. As noted in Chapter Five, Eduardo Terren (2002) blames the insecurity of the labour market as one of the key factors in the demotivation of European youth, and while this does not figure in his statistics as strongly for British youths as, for example, for those in Spain and Italy, work-related worries are surely more the concern of those with weaker capital than those enriched. In

endeavouring to persuade young people that they can make a difference to society, the task will surely be harder with those on the margins of society (whose political apathy may be inextricably linked to their highly limited life-chances and opportunities). The parliamentarians who kindly responded to this survey did not tend to fit this mould of low capital. Students receiving discrete provision of citizenship education at Meadowvale High demonstrated by their responses in lessons that, in the main, they anticipated their future key concern would be with their own personal futures, not with those of others. If this is common in an environment of relative security, then it would not be contentious to assert that it will be more predominant in areas of less capital – thereby reducing the incentive to become more directly involved in other areas of life. The world in which we function is increasingly being referred to as a ‘risk’ society (Giddens 2002, Ecclestone and Field 2003,) and this may well create limitations for the development of active citizenship among students lacking in inculcated capital. While Meadowvale High is an example of a single case study, it raises the question that if such a school rich in capital for many students lacks reception to this educational innovation, what type of institutions are?

If meaningful citizenship is to equip students with the skills and confidence to make a difference to the lives of others within the community, then there is a need to respond to the specific community layers that offer meaning to different people. The dimensions of society are various; so also should be acceptance of the individual’s contribution to them. The Crick Report was keen to promulgate political literacy, but this thesis has demonstrated a greater enthusiasm among its sample for other aspects of citizenship. Student support for a strand of citizenship that encourages commitment to others should not be ignored by those of us who believe that education should equip young people to live a meaningful life within society. Moreover, as far as this relates to the political dimension of citizenship perhaps there is an argument for reducing the responsibility of schools for promoting this, if the view penned by one politician is endorsed:

‘I am not convinced that citizenship education will necessarily draw one into active politics. Most 18-30 year olds are more interested in sport, education, careers, courtship, marriage and setting up home to get involved. More MPs might need to be more engaged between elections with their supporters and constituents ... Maturity does encourage people to vote.’ (MP 250, Anon.)

## 6.3 Recommendations

### 6.3.1 School leaders

Any educational innovation requires careful planning if it is to hope for real success in its implementation. The Government might consider that this was carried out at conceptual level as far as the introduction of citizenship education was concerned, in that it put into place the Advisory Body to provide the pre-requisite framework, ensured that the QCA offered guidelines to schools and offered schools the freedom to develop this initiative in accordance with local circumstances. However, this latter opportunity was underplayed at Meadowvale High where, through focusing on the pressing issues of the day and ignoring the arrival of this innovation until the last possible moment, inadequate preparation was made in advance of implementation. Hargreaves and Hopkins have made salient reference to such dilemmas by musing over the question of balance at school level:

‘If a school, or part of a school, leans too heavily towards development, it becomes unstable by its neglect of continuity; if a school, or part of a school, leans too heavily towards maintenance, it is so concerned with preserving the status quo that it cannot respond to the needs of change’ (1991, p.86).

The latter describes the situation encountered at Meadowvale High, where the general desire of staff at all levels – especially during the initial months of the innovation - was for minimal disturbance. Since I have asserted in this thesis that this *laissez-faire* attitude partly explained the lack of acceptance of this innovation by staff, it follows that any recommendation should address this issue. Any innovation that impacts upon a whole school requires a whole school commitment and schools must work towards a balance in the relationship between maintenance of the existing system and development of educational innovations – moreover, time must be built in to allow this. One step towards developing a whole school commitment is by accepting in real terms – not simply by lip service – a holistic approach to a curriculum innovation that impacts upon a school in terms of ethos and/or delivery. As Ellsworth has noted:

‘A flawed process can doom the infusion of an otherwise effective innovation. Likewise the ultimate goal of a single instance of the change communication

model is to get a particular intended adopter to “buy into” the innovation and use it in a way that improves some aspect of their lives or the lives of those they serve’ (2000, p.30).

In Chapter Two I discussed the need for communication as part of effective change. I recommend that if teachers are to ‘buy into’ an innovation, provision should be in place to ensure that sufficient groundwork is carried out through communication networks to make this happen - before the innovation is launched. Prior to the introduction of an imposed innovation that will impact across an institution, schools should identify and celebrate examples of good practice that can act as a springboard for development of the innovation. For instance, while I carried out an audit of potentially existent citizenship education with this intention in mind after I took up my appointment in autumn 2002, this was too late; instead this audit should have been completed during the previous academic year to allow time for this to be a developmental tool in advance of implementation. Perhaps more direct leadership from the LEA prior to this initiative might have helped to minimise the avoidance strategy by senior management.

In genuinely recognising existent good practice as a precursor to an educational innovation, there is a greater chance in keeping on board the key players who can drive (or destroy) initiatives – the staff. It is easy for schools to lull themselves into the belief that they are lauding good practice by publicising examples of it in school newsletters or assemblies. There is even a danger that such unexamined rituals may become ends in themselves. Experienced members of staff are not easily won over; and so I recommend that educationalists responsible for innovations should seriously consider the implications of the constitution of the teaching body in their school; ascertaining their values and beliefs before assuming that change will be accepted simply because it has been imposed from above. While this is not an attempt to stereotype experienced teachers as a homogeneous group resistant to change; it is an attempt to demonstrate that it can be more difficult to engage them with the need for change and cognisance of this has to be built into the planning of any educational innovation at school level and then acted upon. The wealth of experience that such practitioners possess should be an advantage to proposed change, not a disadvantage.

Change is challenging within a school. When the innovation linked to that change is also one known to lack consensus in society as a whole, the combination is extremely volatile and I consider this to be applicable to the citizenship initiative. Currently from the perspective of citizenship education there is much talk of the need for 'student voice'. I believe that this topical theme could be put to a truly practical purpose in schools as far as the measurement of innovations is concerned. I recommend that schools should consider utilising student voice committees as research teams that focus on studying the dispositions of their staff and students before and after initiatives, and then disseminate these findings in an attempt to demonstrate to staff and students the wider impact that such innovations can have. For example, I had been in position as Citizenship Coordinator two years before I could claim with any degree of confidence that the global community visits were transforming the dispositions of our students. Had that information been available when I assumed this post, then cognisance of this would have been a logical starting point for researching a means by which this could be further developed as good practice in citizenship education for a wider audience at Meadowvale High from the outset. Moreover, the staff responsible for the global visits might have been more willing team players than the form tutors who viewed the call for their participation with hostility. Starting from a position of strength rather than from a position of ignorance would have afforded an atmosphere more conducive to progress.

So why was this example of good practice not more evident in the first place? Extra-curricular activities are welcomed but, in the atmosphere of league tables lauding academic excellence, they are not always given the profile they merit in the development of young people. English high schools inevitably have a variety of goals that beg and receive development and refinement, but the emphasis on monitoring and evaluating these goals tends to lie within the remit of academic excellence, hence strands of the curriculum that contribute to the wider development of the individual play second fiddle. The introduction of a whole-school initiative should be seen to be enthusiastically led from the top (as demonstrated through the evidence offered by MP 115 in Chapter Three). Without this fundamental start, an innovation is weakened and staff are less inclined to make a commitment to it. I have intimated on a number of occasions throughout this thesis that a missed opportunity for demonstrating commitment to the citizenship education initiative was the refusal to allocate an In Service Training Day to do so. Instead, the programmes devised for INSET featured

issues deemed to improve academic performance in the classroom. While school managements are plagued by a plethora of goals and purposes, they should not underplay those elements of the curriculum that can impact on the development of the whole person, because these in turn have the potential to impact on the whole school (Hannam, 2001). I therefore urge school leaders not to lose sight of the bigger, attitudinal picture, despite the pressure to enhance academic results.

### **6.3.2 Practitioners**

In searching for a way in which citizenship education could be delivered in a meaningful way, I employed a mixed-methods and mixed-model paradigm. Had I not done so, I believe any conclusions I would have drawn would have been limited and arguably, far less robust. Thus I have found that this paradigm has been best suited to deliver a holistic view of Meadowvale High and that it is an educational research methodology worth exploration. I am not claiming that this is superior to other designs; simply that it is an alternative for researchers who find themselves unable to meet the demands of their research project in more traditional ways. Nevertheless, in schools where staff are both research-literate and research-active the mixed-methods paradigm offers a rich opportunity for groups of practitioners exploring whole-school initiatives from their own positions of strength and preferred research philosophies. I have already argued that whole-school initiatives beg a whole-school commitment, and that student voice committees could be utilised as research teams alongside interested practitioners to explore innovations that impact upon their school. The flexibility of the mixed-methods/mixed-model research paradigm could well lend itself to application here, providing of course that there is enthusiastic leadership to support it. I have claimed that meaningful citizenship education should enable young people to make a difference to the lives of others. If young people in school were engaged in researching innovations that impact upon their school community - with the understanding that the results of their research will be acted upon - then this activity could be considered to be an example of meaningful delivery of citizenship education within their own parameters. It would therefore be an interesting development from this discussion for other practitioners to consider working with mixed-methods or mixed-model research alongside their students in evaluating the impact of innovations – indeed even to measure the impact of student voice itself. I therefore recommend this as a research

paradigm to be further examined in schools, particularly in association with issues connected with the citizenship programme of study.

### **6.3.3 Researchers**

If citizenship education is to develop a sense of responsibility towards others, and the Government believes that young people will be able to make a difference to the lives of others by enhanced political literacy, it remains somewhat bizarre that there is a two year gap between the end of the statutory right for citizenship education and the right to vote – not that I am suggesting a lowering of the national voting age - although there is a body of opinion at Westminster that does favour this (e.g. HC Deb 23 March 2006 c169WH; HC Deb 29<sup>th</sup> January 2007 c18). However, it is possible that the political strand of citizenship education might be more attractive to older students. While MP 250 (p. 257) suggested maturity beyond school years was a factor, as Head of Sixth Form I have certainly witnessed positive responses from my Year 13 students when I have invited our local politician (and prospective politicians) into school for pseudo-Question Time sessions with these students. However, while the findings from Questionnaire One (p.184) implied that Year 9 students recognised the need to develop skills in debating and valued the importance of voting – significant components of political literacy – this strand was not echoed as convincingly in Phase Two (Tables 4.2 to 4.6). Perhaps future researchers could explore the impact that age has on the development of political literacy – do older students respond better to the concept of political literacy than younger ones, and if so, can evidence be produced to indicate that themes of political literacy would receive a better response as a more fully developed curriculum initiative post-16? Admittedly this would place this strand beyond the years of statutory education, but if it were more successful within these year groups, this success would be more in keeping with Crick’s aspirations relating to this theme.

In Chapter Two I highlighted the sense of responsibility towards others that existed across the centuries due to the impact of Christian teaching, one which encouraged people to make a difference to others by their actions. A ‘Good Samaritan’ philosophy was evidenced in the behaviour of students responding to their global community experiences. Moreover, these were students who, in theory, supported such principles but did not develop the impetus to put these into practice enthusiastically until presented

with real life situations. A belief in Christian values based on social justice and experienced through situations that could be labelled as 'issues dimensions' also surfaced as a significant stimulus within the parliamentary data. While I hold firm to my understanding of citizenship education as one that must permit young people to feel that the way in which they contribute to society matters, if citizenship education is to impact upon young people in any shape or form, the recommendation I consider crucial to any further research into the merits of citizenship education must revolve around further exploration of the factors that impinge upon the attitudinal changes of young people, since a change in attitude has been seen to be one prompt to action. An interesting development from this project might be to compare attitudinal changes among young people, perhaps those in faith schools with those from non-denominational schools – do young people in faith schools feel a greater sense of responsibility towards others in society? Do they take action more readily? It is currently fashionable to favour UK-based twinning schemes; perhaps school twinning of this nature could provide the framework for such research.

#### **6.4 Summary**

This chapter has discussed the conclusions that have been drawn from the research project and suggested recommendations for further consideration. In doing so, it has drawn attention to the problems that can emanate from the in-house research of a controversial curriculum innovation and has urged other practitioners to tread with care in situations where institutional leadership is not evident from the outset. It has also highlighted the need to cultivate the support and expertise of experienced teachers. This chapter has recommended the use of an eclectic research methodology in institutions studying the impact of innovations that impact upon the whole school because a mixed-methods paradigm can offer a holistic view of a case under study and potentially a wealth of data, albeit complex. Within the realms of citizenship education this chapter has recommended that further research could be carried out into the factors that contribute towards attitudinal change in young people. In doing so, a suggestion has been made to consider an investigation into the sense of responsibility to others engendered among students from faith schools compared with those from non-faith schools.

In conclusion, therefore, this thesis has demonstrated some of the issues encountered in introducing citizenship education into one English school. It set out to find a path that would offer a meaningful delivery of citizenship education – a search for a way in which young people would feel a sense of responsibility to others and feel empowered to make a difference to their lives. Elements of discrete delivery of this subject produced some pleasing short term developments in the way in which students engaged in debate with their local Member of Parliament (p.204-5), but the strongest evidence was found in the field of global community projects in which students' perceptions were transformed by their experiences and evidenced in action thereafter (p.229). This is an exciting finding because it is tangible evidence of a contribution to one of the aims of citizenship education as proposed by the Crick Report - albeit not its principle aim – and could provide encouragement to other schools to pursue such approaches. However it remains the task of individual schools to ensure that this experience can find expression within parameters that can be managed and in a manner in which it can be inclusive, rather than be restricted to those who can afford to participate. Without this, meaningful citizenship education of this particular nature could - as in times past - remain the privilege of the elite. It remains the task of other interested practitioners to engage with new approaches and materials that focus on the development of citizenship education in a way that provides meaningful delivery to them and, in doing so, work towards revising the beliefs of sceptics.

# Appendix 1

## Key elements of citizenship education

### Overview of essential elements to be reached by the end of compulsory schooling

Key Concepts	Values and Dispositions	Skills and Aptitudes	Knowledge and Understanding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ democracy and autocracy</li> <li>■ co-operation and conflict</li> <li>■ equality and diversity</li> <li>■ fairness, justice, the rule of law, rules, law and human rights</li> <li>■ freedom and order</li> <li>■ individual and community</li> <li>■ power and authority</li> <li>■ rights and responsibilities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ concern for the common good</li> <li>■ belief in human dignity and equality</li> <li>■ concern to resolve conflicts</li> <li>■ a disposition to work with and for others with sympathetic understanding</li> <li>■ proclivity to act responsibly: that is care for others and oneself; premeditation and calculation about the effect actions are likely to have on others; and acceptance of responsibility for unforeseen or unfortunate consequences</li> <li>■ practice of tolerance</li> <li>■ judging and acting by a moral code</li> <li>■ courage to defend a point of view</li> <li>■ willingness to be open to changing one's opinions and attitudes in the light of discussion and evidence</li> <li>■ individual initiative and effort</li> <li>■ civility and respect for the rule of law</li> <li>■ determination to act justly</li> <li>■ commitment to equal opportunities and gender equality</li> <li>■ commitment to active citizenship</li> <li>■ commitment to voluntary service</li> <li>■ concern for human rights</li> <li>■ concern for the environment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ ability to make a reasoned argument both verbally and in writing</li> <li>■ ability to co-operate and work effectively with others</li> <li>■ ability to consider and appreciate the experience and perspective of others</li> <li>■ ability to tolerate other view points</li> <li>■ ability to develop a problem-solving approach</li> <li>■ ability to use modern media and technology critically to gather information</li> <li>■ a critical approach to evidence put before one and ability to look for fresh evidence</li> <li>■ ability to recognise forms of manipulation and persuasion</li> <li>■ ability to identify, respond to and influence social, moral and political challenges and situations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ topical and contemporary issues and events at local, national, EU, Commonwealth and international levels</li> <li>■ the nature of democratic communities, including how they function and change</li> <li>■ the interdependence of individuals and local and voluntary communities</li> <li>■ the nature of diversity, dissent and social conflict</li> <li>■ legal and moral rights and responsibilities of individuals and communities</li> <li>■ the nature of social, moral and political challenges faced by individuals and communities</li> <li>■ Britain's parliamentary political and legal systems at local, national, European, Commonwealth and international level, including how they function and change</li> <li>■ the nature of political and voluntary action in communities</li> <li>■ the rights and responsibilities of citizens as consumers, employees, employers and family and community members</li> <li>■ the economic system as it relates to individuals and communities</li> <li>■ human rights charters and issues</li> <li>■ sustainable development and environmental issues</li> </ul>

## Appendix 2

# Citizenship and History: QCA scheme of work

Citizenship and history	Years 7–9
<p><b>Unit 12 Why did women and some men have to struggle for the vote in Britain? What is the point of voting today?</b></p> <p><b>About the unit</b></p> <p>Schools need to decide which opportunities to develop as explicit citizenship provision. This unit can be delivered through citizenship or history. History is identified in <b>this typeface</b>.</p> <p>Pupils learn about the key characteristics of government and the electoral system in Britain. They explore the principles of different electoral systems, and ideas about voting. They consider the consequences of disenfranchisement for excluded groups and for society as a whole. Pupils discuss and evaluate how effective democracy is in Britain today. They work in groups to prepare for, and take part in, a debate on a topical issue in front of a particular audience. They monitor and assess their own learning.</p> <p><b>In this unit, pupils learn about the struggle women, and their male supporters, faced in order to achieve universal female suffrage. This is put within the context of the struggle for full male suffrage, and of contemporary ideas about power, voting and the roles of men and women. Pupils will learn that granting the vote to women was, in part, a reflection of changes in society, including changes in beliefs about women's status and role.</b></p> <p><b>Where the unit fits in</b></p> <p>This unit addresses the following aspects of the key stage 3 citizenship programme of study:</p> <p><b>Knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens</b></p> <p>Pupils should be taught about:</p> <p>1a the legal and human rights and responsibilities underpinning society, basic aspects of the criminal justice system, and how both relate to young people</p> <p>1b the diversity of national, regional, religious and ethnic identities in the United Kingdom and the need for mutual respect and understanding</p> <p>1d the key characteristics of parliamentary and other forms of government</p> <p>1e the electoral system and the importance of voting</p> <p><b>Developing skills of enquiry and communication</b></p> <p>Pupils should be taught to:</p> <p>2a think about topical political, spiritual, moral, social and cultural issues, problems and events by analysing information and its sources, including ICT-based sources</p> <p>2c contribute to group and exploratory class discussions, and take part in debates</p>	<p><b>Developing skills of participation and responsible action</b></p> <p>Pupils should be taught to:</p> <p>3a use their imagination to consider other people's experiences and be able to think about, express and explain views that are not their own</p> <p>3b negotiate, decide and take part responsibly, in both school and community-based activities</p> <p>3c reflect on the process of participating</p> <p>This unit links with unit 6 'Government, elections and voting'.</p> <p>This unit addresses the following aspects of the key stage 3 history programme of study:</p> <p><b>Britain 1750–1900</b></p> <p>10 A study of how expansion of trade and colonisation, industrialisation and political changes affected the United Kingdom, including the local area.</p> <p><b>A world study after 1900</b></p> <p>13 A study of some of the significant individuals, events and developments from across the twentieth century, including the two World Wars, the Holocaust, the Cold War, and their impact on Britain, Europe and the wider world.</p> <p>This unit links with unit 2 'How did medieval monarchs keep control?', unit 10 'France 1789–94', unit 11 'Industrial changes', unit 12 'Snapshot 1900' and unit 15 'Black peoples of America in the history scheme of work'.</p>

1 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p><b>How can we start to think about power and exclusion?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• about the consequences of being denied the right to vote and other political rights</li> <li>• that all political systems are underpinned by beliefs about power and people</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ask pupils, in groups, to design a political system. They should decide who will rule, and how the rulers will be chosen. They will all live within this system, but they do not know yet what sort of people they will be, eg <i>old, young, black, white, rich, poor, male, female, able-bodied, sensory impaired, mentally ill, prisoners</i>.</li> <li>• Discuss the political systems with the pupils, using words such as 'fair', 'unfair', 'equal', 'unequal' and 'rights'. Do any systems exclude particular groups? Why? What beliefs about power, people and responsibility led pupils to make these decisions? Ask pupils to reflect on what difference it made not to know 'who' they would be, and why.</li> <li>• Set up a quick vote on any topical issue, but arbitrarily exclude one section of the class. Use the reaction of the pupils to generate ideas about the consequences of disenfranchisement for excluded individuals and groups, as well as for society as a whole.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• demonstrate understanding of the nature and purpose of political systems</li> <li>• reflect on their thinking and make meaningful observations about their beliefs and motives</li> <li>• make valid suggestions about the consequences of disenfranchisement both for excluded groups and for society as a whole</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This section could build on the desert island scenario from introductory unit 1 'Citizenship—what's it all about?'. Teachers should consider how much support pupils will need in order to design their political systems. Use questions to guide and extend the decisions made by pupils, eg <i>who will rule? Everyone? A minority? How will the rules be chosen? What will the function of the government be? What rights will each citizen have?</i></li> <li>• Make links with any school/community/national elections. If the school has elections, are there circumstances in which pupils can be deprived of their vote? What would the impact on the school be if a particular group was excluded from the decision-making process?</li> </ul>

2 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p><b>Who could and could not vote in Britain in 1831?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• about the key characteristics of government in Britain, both today and in 1831</li> <li>• about the function of voting within a representative democracy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Draw a simple diagram to show the key characteristics of government in Britain today. Ask pupils to use the diagram to explain the function of voting within a representative democracy.</li> <li>• Compare the political system in 1831 – ie the system before the passing of the 1832 Reform Act – with today's political system, asking pupils to identify the similarities and differences. Pupils could then make an 'illustrated map' to show the key characteristics of the political system in 1831.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• demonstrate understanding of the characteristics of government and identify valid similarities and differences between two political systems</li> <li>• demonstrate understanding of the function of voting in a representative democracy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This section links with unit 6 'Government, elections and voting'.</li> <li>• The key characteristics of government in Britain include: the function of Parliament; the split between the Commons and the Lords; the way MPs are elected; secret ballots; the distribution of seats/constituencies; the criteria for voting.</li> <li>• In Britain today, everyone is eligible to vote apart from people under 18, the mentally ill, prisoners and peers.</li> <li>• An 'illustrated map' of the political system in 1831 should show the distribution of seats, counties and boroughs, and the size of the electorate. In 1831, approximately 5 per cent of adults could vote. Seats were unfairly distributed, both across the country as a whole and between industrial towns and rural areas.</li> </ul>

3 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p><b>Why did some men have the vote in 1831 and not others?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>about the principles that underpin representative democracy</li> <li>to analyse the social and cultural factors that excluded so many men from the franchise in 1831</li> <li>to explore ideas through role-play (NSE)</li> <li>to develop knowledge of world origins (NSE)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Discuss the sorts of people who could, and could not, vote in 1831. Refer to pupils' own designs for a political system and the discussion about the principles underpinning their decisions. Ask pupils how the main points raised in that discussion could be useful in understanding the beliefs underpinning the political system in 1831. Stress the need to understand contemporary ideas about voting and the roles of men and women.</li> <li>Give pupils fact cards detailing who could and could not vote in 1831. Use these, along with observations and prior learning on serfdom, slavery and the French Revolution, to focus on some of the ideas of early Victorian society, eg <i>ideas about voting, responsibility, men, women, legal freedom, property rights</i>.</li> <li>Check pupils' understanding by interviewing individual pupils posing as characters from the period. Each pupil must explain to their puzzled interviewer why it is a shocking idea that men other than the landed gentry should vote.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>demonstrate understanding of why different people could/could not vote in Britain in the early 19th century</li> <li>demonstrate understanding of beliefs and attitudes that differ from their own</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>In 1831 the right to vote depended on a property qualification, meaning that only wealthy landowners could vote.</li> <li>In this part of the unit, pupils should be helped to understand two fundamental principles that affect beliefs about voting in representative democracies: responsibility and freedom.</li> <li>Link with history: unit 2 'How did medieval monarchs keep control', unit 8 'The civil wars: was England 'turned upside down' in the seventeenth-century?', unit 10 'France 1789-94: why was there a revolution?', unit 15 'Black peoples of America: from slavery to equality?'.</li> <li>Link with NSE: year 7 S&amp;L15, year 8 S&amp;L14, year 9 S&amp;L12.</li> <li>Link with NSE: year 7 Sp10, year 8 Sp6, year 9 Sp4.</li> </ul>

4 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p><b>Why did women not have the vote in 1831?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to analyse the social and cultural factors that excluded Victorian women from the franchise</li> <li>about the connections between Victorian beliefs about women's nature and their role and status in society</li> <li>to distinguish between the early Victorian ideal of womanhood and the reality of many women's lives</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Focus on the beliefs most early Victorians held about voting and about women. Stress that for the majority of people, the idea of women voting was inconceivable because of prevailing social and cultural attitudes. Inform pupils of women's legal status in 1831 as regards (i) property (ii) income (iii) divorce and (iv) the custody of children. Ask pupils to use this legislation to make inferences about Victorian attitudes towards women.</li> <li>Pupils could then test their inferences by examining a range of source material. They should organise any relevant information they find into categories, eg beliefs about the nature of women (<i>personality traits, particular skills/aptitudes</i>), the status of women, the role of women. Ask them to identify links between the categories. Stress that their research must focus only on the early and mid-19th century.</li> <li>Give pupils a list of activities that would have been carried out in early Victorian Britain, eg <i>making laws, caring for the sick, fighting in a war</i>. Pupils could use these to produce a Venn diagram with two segments: 'private and female spheres' and 'public and male spheres'.</li> <li>Refer to unit 11. Industrial changes in the history scheme of work to stress that the early Victorian view of women was an ideal and not a reality. In fact, many women worked outside the home or as domestic servants in other people's homes.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>select and classify relevant information from a range of sources</li> <li>use source material to make inferences about Victorian women's lives</li> <li>identify valid links between Victorian beliefs about women's nature and their role and status in society</li> <li>demonstrate understanding of the different male and female spheres in early Victorian society</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Link with ICT: (1b) pupils could use the internet to find information about women in 19th century Britain. They could also use a drawing package to produce the Venn diagram.</li> <li>As of 1839, an 'innocent' mother could have custody of her children until they were seven years old. Before 1839, mothers had no custody rights.</li> <li>Until the 1857 Divorce (Matrimonial Causes) Act was passed, women had to prove bigamy or incest in order to get a divorce. The case could not be heard in a law court but had to be presented to the House of Lords. Until 1891, a married woman could not leave home if her husband forbade it.</li> <li>Until the 1870 Married Women's Property Act was passed, women had to surrender legal ownership of all their possessions on marriage.</li> </ul>

5 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p><b>Who was struggling for political change in the first half of the 19th century?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• about early 19th century struggles to change the political system and about government repression</li> <li>• about the aims and methods of the Chartists</li> <li>• that ultimately five of the Chartists' six demands were met</li> <li>• to select and classify relevant material when researching the Chartists' methods</li> <li>• that the Chartists' attitudes towards women were typical for their time</li> <li>• about the nature of democracy and key characteristics of representative democracy</li> </ul>	<p><b>Who was struggling for political change in the first half of the 19th century?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tell pupils that both moderates and radicals had been challenging ideas about voting and men since the late 18th century, and that their struggles had always been repressed by the government. Use the story of Peterloo and fact cards about the Six Acts to cast light on the types of people involved in both the struggle and government repression.</li> <li>• Describe the main terms of the 1832 Reform Act and ask pupils why radicals would be disappointed with it. What could they do next, given the existing constraints on action?</li> <li>• Focus on the Chartist Movement. Pupils could annotate a given summary of the Six Point Charter to explain why the government was unlikely to agree to it. They could also use their knowledge of the period to explain why female/universal suffrage was not a demand.</li> <li>• Ask pupils to investigate the Chartists' methods, using a variety of source material. Pupils could classify the different methods as 'direct' and 'non-direct'. What were the arguments in favour of each method?</li> <li>• Tell pupils what happened in 1848 (about the rejection of the Chartists' third and final petition to Parliament leading to the end of the movement), but stress that five of the Chartists' six demands were eventually met. Pupils could annotate their summary of the Six Point Charter to explain how each point was 'democratic'. They should use their knowledge of today's system of government to identify the one demand of the Chartists that was never met, and suggest reasons why.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• select relevant information to find out about the Chartists' methods</li> <li>• use their knowledge of attitudes towards women at the time to cast light on the Chartists' aims</li> <li>• demonstrate understanding of the key characteristics of representative democracy</li> <li>• use specialist vocabulary, eg <i>democratic, militant, radical, moderate, accurately and appropriately</i></li> <li>• demonstrate understanding of how five of the Chartists' Six Points could be considered 'democratic'</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This section could be extended by giving pupils simple accounts of the political ideas of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Thomas Paine (1737 - 1809)</li> <li>- Edmund Burke (1729 - 1797)</li> <li>- Mary Wollstonecraft (1759 - 1797)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Ask pupils to decide which thinker was the most radical, and which was the most conservative.</li> <li>• The Chartists' demand for 'annual parliaments' was not met. A change of government every year would not normally be considered democratic because it would be likely to lead to unstable rule.</li> </ul>
<p><b>What has 19th century political history got to do with citizenship today?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• about the importance of political history, and its relevance to citizenship today</li> <li>• to reflect on and apply their learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils should reflect on the knowledge and understanding of 19th century political history they have gained from the units so far. Brainstorm the question 'What has this got to do with me?' Use questions and spray diagrams to help pupils consider issues of relevance today, eg <i>repression, struggles for change</i>.</li> <li>• Pupils could then discuss the contribution made by history to an 'informed and responsible' citizenry.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• demonstrate understanding of the importance of history to an informed citizenry</li> <li>• articulate links between their own lives and the events, issues, individuals, trends, characteristics, etc of political history</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Extension activity: this section could be extended by analysing current media articles that refer to political history.</li> </ul>

6 Learning objectives	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes	Points to note
Pupils should learn: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• why the Reform Acts of 1867 and 1884 were passed</li> <li>• to develop an understanding of causation by constructing diagrams</li> </ul>	Why did more people get the vote in the second half of the 19th century? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tell pupils the terms of the Reform Acts of 1867 and 1884. Give them a list of possible reasons why these Acts were passed, including some bogus reasons. Pupils should use their knowledge of the period to select the reasons they think are most likely to be correct.</li> <li>• Give pupils simple accounts of life in 1867 and 1884, <i>eg stories, relevant source material</i>, and ask them to check if they identified the correct reasons. Pupils could then summarise the main changes to the franchise, emphasising how they affected the proportion of men who could vote.</li> <li>• Assess pupils' understanding by asking them to produce simple causation diagrams showing why either/ both of the Acts were passed.</li> </ul>	Pupils: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• select likely reasons for the passing of the 1867 and 1884 Reform Acts</li> <li>• organise these reasons into a causation diagram, classifying them appropriately</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Probable reasons why the 1867 and 1884 Reform Acts were passed could include 'Political parties wanted the support of new voters'. Bogus reasons might include 'holding elections would be fun'.</li> <li>• Link with thinking skills: evaluation</li> <li>• Extension activity: this section could be extended by studying the debates about giving women the vote that took place at the time. Pupils should discuss the significance of the fact that women's suffrage was debated in both 1867 and 1884, and should analyse the arguments made against giving women the vote then.</li> </ul>

7 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p>To what extent did ideas about women change during the second half of the 19th century?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to evaluate the extent of the changes made to women's economic, legal and political status from 1830 to 1901</li> <li>to research change and continuity, and present their findings to an audience</li> <li>to undertake independent research using a range of reading strategies (NSE)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Draw a timeline showing the legislation affecting women that was passed between 1830 and 1901. What do pupils notice about the changes to the law? About continuity? About the pace of change? In what ways did women in 1901 have greater control over their lives, enshrined in law, than women in the early and mid-Victorian periods?</li> <li>Using their earlier research on women in the early Victorian period, pupils could devise questions for an enquiry into how far beliefs about women and their position and status had changed by 1901. They should identify a range of sources, including ICT, to research their questions, and should present their findings to the class.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>discuss and evaluate conflicting evidence</li> <li>select questions and sources for research</li> <li>find relevant information and present their findings</li> <li>show understanding of the beliefs prevalent in 1901 about women and their position and status</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Link with thinking skills: evaluation.</li> <li>Relevant legislation includes:             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 1857 Divorce (Matrimonial Causes) Act: if her husband divorced her, a wife had the same property rights as a single woman. Men could divorce for a wife's adultery.</li> <li>women had to prove both adultery and cruelty</li> <li>- 1870 Married Women's Property Act: married women could keep their own earnings and any property acquired after marriage, and could hold their own savings account</li> <li>- 1882 Married Women's Property Act: married women could keep any property acquired before marriage</li> <li>- 1870 Education Act: women ratepayers could elect and serve on school boards</li> <li>- 1873: an 'innocent' mother (the innocent party in divorce proceedings) could have custody of her children until they were 16 years old</li> <li>- 1875: women could be elected Poor Law Guardians</li> </ul> </li> <li>Link with NSE: year 7 R2, year 8 R2, year 9 R2.</li> </ul>

8 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p><b>Who was campaigning for votes for women? How did they campaign?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• about the arguments for and against female suffrage in the late 19th and early 20th century</li> <li>• about the campaigning methods used by suffragettes and suffragists</li> <li>• to use the classifying skills they developed earlier</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Give pupils fact cards about a range of individuals who were either pro or anti-women's suffrage, eg <i>the Pankhursts, Mrs Humphrey Ward, Millicent Fawcett, Annie Kenny, John Stuart Mill, Queen Victoria, George Eliot</i>. The cards should include details of their beliefs and background. Give pupils sample arguments about women's suffrage and ask them to match these to the relevant individuals. Discuss the wide range of attitudes held on the issue.</li> <li>• Pupils could investigate the suffragette and suffragist campaigns. As with the work they carried out earlier into the methods used by the Chartists, they should classify the different methods used and the reasons why they were chosen. Pupils could use timelines and timeline commentaries to indicate when and why methods changed, and what the differences were between the two groups.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• demonstrate understanding of late Victorian arguments for and against female suffrage</li> <li>• explain why some groups and individuals did not support votes for women</li> <li>• select and organise information on suffragette and suffragist campaigning methods</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In order to avoid stereotyping of women/suffragettes/people opposed to women's suffrage, give pupils a wide range of opinions. Be sure to include the views of both men and women.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Why did women get the vote in 1918 and not before?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• about the role that women in Britain played during the First World War</li> <li>• to analyse the impact of women's war work on attitudes towards female suffrage</li> <li>• to evaluate the changes made to the franchise in 1918 and 1928</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use a range of sources to give pupils an overview of the work carried out by women during the First World War. Focus on the propaganda directed at women at the time. Why was there so much of it? How did it portray women? Pupils could annotate a poster encouraging women to take part in the war effort, noting (i) the propaganda devices used (ii) the attitudes displayed about/towards women.</li> <li>• Remind pupils of some of the ideas related to voting, eg <i>freedom, responsibility</i>. Ask them to speculate on how attitudes to women might have changed following the First World War.</li> <li>• Ask pupils to look at source material on the franchise legislation of 1918 and 1928. They should note how the acts affected both women and men; list the reasons why the 1918 Act was passed when it was; and suggest why it was not until 1928 that all women had the vote.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• annotate a poster to show their understanding of propaganda devices and attitudes towards women during the First World War</li> <li>• suggest reasons why women's war work helped change attitudes towards female suffrage</li> <li>• explain the consequences of the suffrage legislation of 1918 and 1928, and list the reasons for the passing of the 1918 Act</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils may notice that First World War propaganda directed at women included contradictory messages about women's nature and their role in society. Ask them to suggest some reasons for these messages.</li> <li>• Link with thinking skills: reasoning</li> </ul>

9 Learning objectives	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes	Points to note
Pupils should learn:	<b>Why did women and some men have to struggle for the vote? What is the point of voting today?</b>	Pupils:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• how to construct an extended piece of formal writing, using selecting, sorting and arranging techniques</li> <li>• to organise and present in writing a range of information cohesively (NSE)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ask pupils to write an extended essay with the title 'Why did women and some men have to struggle for the vote? What is the point of voting today?'. They should structure the essay around (i) 19th century views on voting (ii) 19th century views on men (iii) 19th century views on women (iv) how views on voting, men and women changed.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• recall, select and organise relevant information to explain why it took longer for women than men to get the vote</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Link with thinking skills: reasoning.</li> <li>• In history, pupils will be used to returning to the 'big question' at the end of a unit. Most of the activities already carried out will have prepared them to start planning the essay. Give lower-attaining pupils sample sentence stems to illustrate the appropriate style for a piece of formal writing, and provide them with sorting devices to help them structure their work.</li> <li>• Extension activity: this section could be extended by looking at the limitations of what female suffrage achieved. Contrary to the expectations of many suffragettes, giving women the vote did not immediately lead to them gaining equal social and economic rights.</li> <li>• Link with NSE: year 7 W-r10, year 8 W-r10, year 9 W-r9.</li> </ul>

10 Learning objectives Pupils should learn:	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes Pupils:	Points to note
<p><b>What is the point of voting today?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to apply their knowledge and understanding of political history to contemporary issues</li> <li>about the electoral system in Britain today</li> <li>about issues relating to minority groups within a representative democracy</li> <li>about present-day arguments relating to different forms of campaigning, the responsibility of voting and electoral reform</li> <li>to work responsibly and effectively as members of a group</li> <li>to use their knowledge and understanding to participate in a debate on a topical political issue in an informed and responsible way</li> <li>to discuss, evaluate and develop thinking about different points of view (NSE)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Pupils could use carefully selected source material to identify some of the issues relating to voting today, and to prepare a debate on voting. Different groups of pupils could be given different topics to research and present, eg             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– <i>What is 'voter apathy'? Who suffers from it?</i></li> </ul> </li> <li>Pupils investigate who is most/more/less/least likely to vote. They reach conclusions about voter apathy: the type of people who are unlikely to vote (age/class/gender/race); the causes of voter apathy; the consequences of voter apathy, both for the voters themselves and for society as a whole.             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– <i>Is voting for change enough?</i></li> </ul> </li> <li>Refer to the militant methods used by the Chartists and suffragettes, and the arguments used in favour of military. Ask pupils in what circumstances those arguments could be relevant today. Pupils investigate modern campaigns, eg <i>those carried out by anti-racist, environmental or animal rights pressure groups.</i></li> <li>– <i>How democratic is our voting system?</i></li> <li>Pupils research the arguments of a pressure group such as Charter 88, which campaigns for proportional representation. Using the results of the last General Election, they work out: the total percentage of the vote gained by the ruling party; the total number of seats gained by the ruling party; and how the results would have differed under a system of proportional representation. Ask pupils to discuss arguments for and against reforming the electoral system.             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– <i>Should the voting age in the UK be lowered? (to 16? to 14?)</i></li> </ul> </li> <li>Pupils investigate questions relating to this issue, eg <i>why are they excluded from voting? Is this fair? Who has the power to change the system? How can they campaign for change?</i> They discuss the arguments for and against reform. In small groups, pupils prepare arguments and supporting evidence in favour of/against the motion 'Everyone must vote. It is their democratic right and their responsibility'. The debate could be conducted in front of a particular audience.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>use source material to find relevant information on topical issues</li> <li>describe, explain and analyse political issues using knowledge and understanding of political history</li> <li>identify some arguments relating to campaigning, voter responsibility and electoral reform</li> <li>listen to other people during a debate, responding to their views and showing respect for differences of opinion</li> <li>use their knowledge during a discussion to present arguments and persuade others</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Care should be taken when encouraging pupils to access the websites of pressure groups, as some of these may be offensive.</li> <li>A number of websites provide useful information on topical political issues. They include those of:             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– UK Parliament</li> <li>– UK Online</li> <li>– AlertNet (news service funded by Reuters)</li> <li>– Scottish Parliament</li> <li>– Northern Ireland Office</li> <li>– National Assembly for Wales</li> <li>– British Youth Council (represents young people's views on topical issues)</li> <li>– Citizen's Online Democracy</li> <li>– YouGov (allows electronic voting on topical issues)</li> <li>– Electoral Reform Society</li> <li>– Charter 88</li> <li>– GreenNet (provides information on a range of political and environmental organisations, including the Voting Reform Group)</li> <li>– Child Rights Information Network</li> <li>– WWF</li> <li>– UK Food Group (a site providing information on food issues)</li> <li>– Save the Children (a site dealing with disability and development issues)</li> <li>– Friends of the Earth</li> </ul> </li> </ul> <p>The addresses of these websites can be found at <a href="http://www.stancarcis.dfes.gov.uk/schemes">www.stancarcis.dfes.gov.uk/schemes</a>.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Link with NSE: year 7 S&amp;L14, year 8 S&amp;L12, year 9 S&amp;L9.</li> </ul>

11	Learning objectives	Possible teaching activities	Learning outcomes	Points to note
	Pupils should learn:		Pupils:	
	What is the point of voting today? (continued)			
	Optional review activity			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• to reflect on the process of participating in order to assess their and others' performance and make progress</li> <li>• to become more skilled in self- and peer assessment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Help pupils design a 'self- and peer-assessment sheet' for use following group work. The criteria for assessment could include:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– participating in the group without being prompted</li> <li>– listening to what was being said</li> <li>– offering suggestions and ideas that helped the group achieve its task</li> <li>– making encouraging comments that helped the group</li> <li>– involving other group members by asking questions and allocating tasks</li> <li>– speaking clearly so they could be understood by other group members</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Give a 'rating' for each criterion, eg 'Always', 'Often', 'Sometimes', 'Rarely'.</li> <li>• At the end of each group activity, pupils could complete a self-assessment sheet. This should then be circulated within the group. Do the other pupils agree or disagree with what is written on the self-assessment sheet? Pupils then have the opportunity to change their self-assessments in the light of their peers' comments.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• reflect on and assess their own progress and that of their peers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This section links with unit 6 'Government, elections and voting'. Teachers could use this part of the unit to make comparisons between the British electoral system and electoral systems in other countries. One possible angle would be to look at the European Union in terms of proportional representation and voting rights.</li> <li>• Extension activity: ask pupils to draw up a quick list entitled 'Conditions for healthy democracy' for use by the Prime Minister.</li> <li>• Link with thinking skills: evaluation.</li> </ul>

## Appendix 3

### Quasi-experimentation: student responses

<b>What is the point of voting? (A selection of responses given)</b>	
<p>1. <i>What is the main purpose of voting for something?</i></p> <p>So that you can represent your opinion.</p> <p>To get someone to win something.</p> <p>So the people can have a say in choosing the government</p>	<p>2. <i>If you could vote in a general election tomorrow, what 3 changes would you want made by the people you voted for?</i></p> <p>That politicians should fulfil their promises.</p> <p>No top-up fees for universities.</p> <p>Ban foxhunting.</p>
<p>3. <i>When would it be wrong to vote?</i></p> <p>When you are too young.</p> <p>When you don't have a good reason for it.</p> <p>If the voter has been bribed.</p>	<p>4. <i>All players: Come up with 3 ways to make the idea of voting at elections more exciting/attractive/meaningful to young people.</i></p> <p>Simplify the language used.</p> <p>Talk about things that appeal to young people.</p> <p>Ask us for our opinions.</p>
<p>5. <i>How well does the voting system work? Ask the player on your right for help.</i></p> <p>It's easy to do.</p> <p>It can't be working well because people aren't bothering to vote.</p> <p>Not so good. Some people don't know what they're voting for.</p>	<p>6. <i>Identify examples of when voting is used.</i></p> <p>Electing parliaments.</p> <p>School councils.</p> <p>Pop idol.</p>
<p><u>Rules of the game [for 3-4 players]</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 Players take turns rolling the die. Each player has one roll per turn. The player with the last birthday in the calendar year rolls first.</li> <li>2 Roll the die &amp; answer the thinking challenge that matches the number that faces up. The person who rolls the die records the response on the Response Sheet.</li> <li>3 Go around the circle until all of the challenges have been answered.</li> <li>4 Some questions ask the whole group to respond. For group challenges, the player who rolls the die records the group's responses on the Response Sheet.</li> </ol> <p>Sometimes the same thinking challenge comes up twice in a row. If this happens, the player or group must respond to the challenge again. If the challenge comes up more than twice, roll the die until a new thinking challenge emerges.</p>	

Copy up onto plain paper  
Write on 2 sheets, not back to back

Refer to him  
X Dear Politician, <sup>by his name</sup>

I am writing about the way people vote in our country, and suggesting ways to improve the Percentage of voting in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

In the 1830's few people in the country had the right to vote. You had to live in the right area, be a man, or own land and a large house.

Basically rich men living in the right place could vote. The working class in particular, and women felt strongly about voting, but were not allowed because of politicians. Women went to great extents just to be heard, <sup>because</sup> that they wanted voting laws to change. They formed a group called Suffragettes. They went around the country rioting, smashing windows and chaining themselves to railings. This did not work so they even went on a food eating strike. Even this made no change. Women only received the right to vote over 21 by the year 1928. ~~£~~

People in the 1800's thought the right to vote was so important because, they wanted to improve their country. The working class living in towns, realized they could improve on their disgusting living conditions, if they could just get the right to vote. They felt strongly about this so their living conditions could be improved. The middle class manufactur<sup>ers</sup> and merchants were growing at this time so they wanted the right to vote to receive recognition for their hard work. All people of the past had good views which they could not put forward

because of politicians, and they wanted change. ●

I do believe in 2001 in the General Election only 59% of the <sup>adult</sup> population voted. I think this percentage needs to be increased, and more younger <sup>adults</sup> voting. To increase this number politicians could <sup>lower</sup> decrease the age of voting, so more people of a younger age who cannot vote can do so. Which ever party wins, improvements and changes should be taken from other parties to give every person who votes <sup>some of the</sup> changes they want. Also I think (new) <sup>ideas for</sup> ~~views~~ changes which appeal to a younger age group should be considered, so voting is more appealing and attractive. These suggestions of change could help towards attracting younger adults to vote, and hopefully increase the number of votes. The number one priority to attract the <sup>approval</sup> approval of younger people should be, something to change what younger people want, find out the needs of young people and use these to increase voting. (eg <sup>provide</sup> sport, music) more football or better music coaching. This <sup>good point</sup>

Thankyou for reading my views for improvement. I hope they increase the number of votes. ●

Yours <sup>sincerely</sup> sincerely

Your overview of the struggle for the vote is good and demonstrates an understanding of the reasons behind this. (4/5)

You suggest lowering the voting age. What do you consider to be an acceptable age and why? ●

What are your views on some of the questions raised on the instruction sheet? (2/5)

Dear [redacted]

Dear [redacted]

I am writing to say about the voting in the <sup>past</sup> ~~past~~. The struggle people had was ~~astrosious~~ <sup>people</sup> people had to live in the right area to be able to vote. You even had to have the right type of job or ~~be~~ <sup>upper</sup> in the right type of class. ~~not~~ (middle class or working class etc) The people in the middle class had just got the right to be able to vote, but the working class ~~still~~ couldn't vote. Women could not vote either. These people thought the right to vote was important because they ~~did~~ <sup>might</sup> not like the way in which the country has been ran. They also thought that it was unfair because most other people were able to vote and have their ~~say~~ <sup>voice</sup> say. I think that people in our age day should have a right to vote from the age of 16 year old and up. I think they should teach children about this issue so they know what the elections are all about. I think that the government should make it more friendly for people who are voting and I think that if your vote isn't the one that wins you should get a book token or gift voucher. <sup>How?</sup> who should pay for this? If the government funds this, where will it get the money from?

(2/5)

No - this contradicts what you have written above

(3/5)

Dear [REDACTED]

I thought that I should write to you about the terribly low percentage of voting in ~~the~~ England for the last general election. If you didn't know, only 59% voted, unlike in the past when people treasured a chance to vote. In fact, they struggled for years to get their chance. Only a very small number of people could vote. You had <sup>to</sup> own property, be rich and live in the right area of the country to even stand a chance to vote. But the poor people of England, and the middle class, were very irritated by this as their views weren't being listened to, so nothing that they needed to change, actually ~~to~~ changed. So they protested and argued and eventually, after many, many years, <sup>when?</sup> every one was able to vote above the age of 21 years. After that, people always used their vote and were very excited about how much change it was making. <sup>this paragraph needs more details about this struggle</sup>

<sup>(2/5)</sup> These days, people don't appreciate the right to vote, <sup>and</sup> ~~to~~ decide not to. I think that this is because they can't see any changes happening. To make changes happen quicker, therefore getting more people to vote would be to change the government every other year. This would force them to make changes quicker, and get more people <sup>(1/5)</sup> to vote for them. Can you think of any disadvantages in changing governments every year?

Yours Sincerely [REDACTED]

## Appendix 4

### The view from the inside: student overview

Name: [REDACTED]

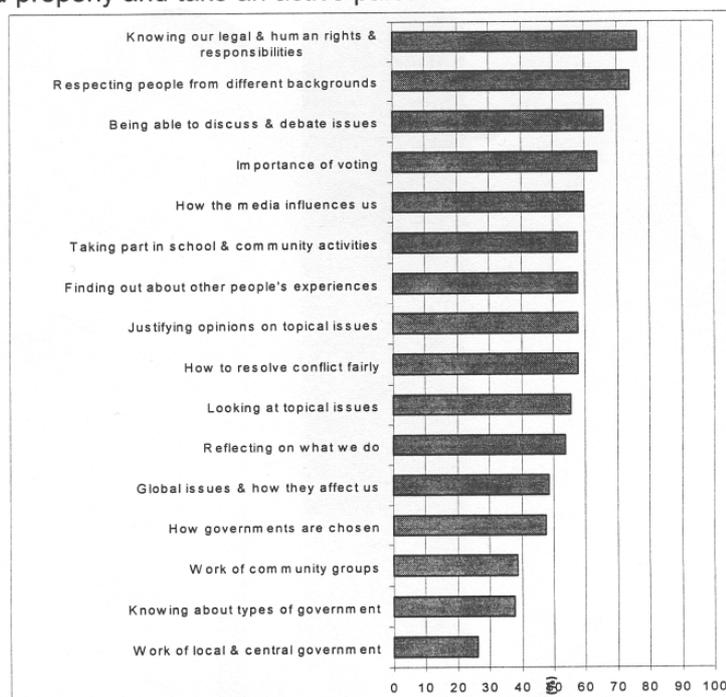
Tutor Group: [REDACTED]

#### Year 9 Citizenship Survey

'Citizenship' is a new subject that schools have to handle, although some aspects of it have been happening in [REDACTED] for many years.

The aim of Citizenship Education is to help you become more confident and informed about the world in which you live.

In October you were asked to fill in questionnaires. Can you remember doing these? The bar chart below is a summary of the results. It shows the percentage of Year 9 students who were positive about each of the themes that the government thinks you need to learn about if you are to understand the world properly and take an active part in it.



What themes/issues do **you** personally think teenagers should learn about if they want to understand the world and take an active part in it?

[You can choose any themes – don't feel bound by those already mentioned above.]

Use the space below [and overleaf if you want] to explain your choices.

I think we should learn about responsibilities and about backgrounds of different races. I also think we should learn less about government and know more about the community maybe go around [REDACTED]

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

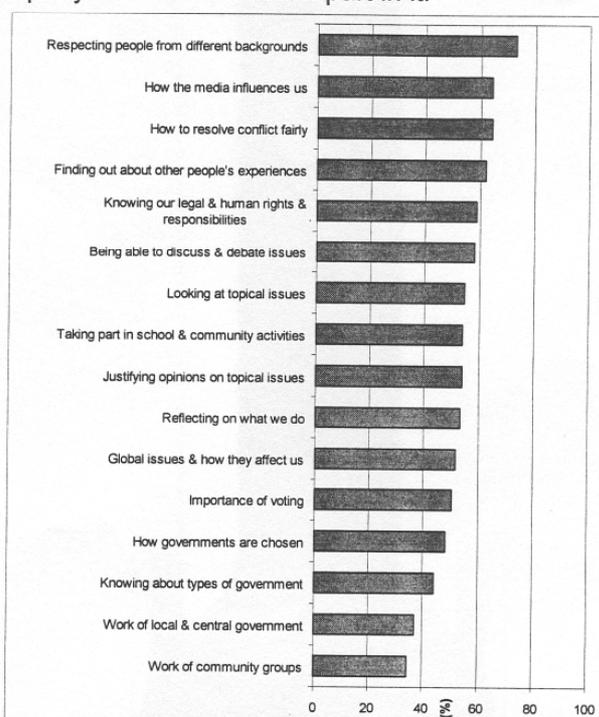
Tutor Group \_\_\_\_\_

### Year 10 Citizenship Survey

'Citizenship' is a new subject that schools have to handle, although some aspects of it have been happening in \_\_\_\_\_ for many years.

The aim of Citizenship Education is to help you become confident and informed about the world in which you live.

In October you were asked to fill in questionnaires. Can you remember doing these? The bar chart below is a summary of the results. It shows the percentage of Year 10 students who were positive about each of the themes that the government thinks you need to learn about if you are to understand the world properly and take an active part in it.



What themes/issues do **you** personally think teenagers should learn about if they want to understand the world and take an active part in it? [You can choose any themes – don't feel bound by those already mentioned above.] Use the space below [and overleaf if you wish] to explain your choices.

I think that 'Respecting people from different backgrounds' should be understood by teenagers because there are many different people in the world and the school and many get pick on by others and maybe if they understood these issue it would create less bullying.

## Appendix 5

### Implicit versus explicit delivery: student responses

#### UNICEF

- 1 What does UNICEF stand for? (A)
- 
- 2 Have you heard of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child?  
 (B/D)  Yes  No  
 If yes ... name any one right this charter says children have. (C)
- Can't remember certain one*
- 
- 3 How many children's rights do you think are on this charter? (E)
- 20*
- 
- 4 UNICEF thinks that it is important for children worldwide to know about the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Why do you think this is the case? (F)
- ✓ So that every child knows their rights and is given them*
- 
- 5 This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Cambodia and Tanzania.
- [a] Why do you think this is so? (G)
- ✓ They need food and clean water*
- 
- [b] What do you think UNICEF might be doing to help these people? (H)
- 
- [c] Do you think you could do anything to help UNICEF help these people? (I)
- ✓ Donate money*
- 
- 6 Is a non-uniform day a good way of making you think or talk about problems elsewhere in the world? Give a reason for your answer. (J/K/L)
- No because people are only interested in wearing no uniform not the reason behind it*
-

## UNICEF

- 1 What does UNICEF stand for? (A)  
United Nations Children Foundation?
- 2 Have you heard of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child?  
 (B/D)  Yes  No  
 If yes ... name any one right this charter says children have. (C)  
To have a good education?
- 3 How many children's rights do you think are on this charter? (E)  
 ✓ 42?
- 4 UNICEF thinks that it is important for children worldwide to know about the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Why do you think this is the case? (F)  
?
- 
- 5 This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Cambodia and Tanzania.
- [a] Why do you think this is so? (G)  
They need money or are treated unfairly.
- [b] What do you think UNICEF might be doing to help these people? (H)  
?
- [c] Do you think you could do anything to help UNICEF help these people? (I)  
 ✓ Donate money, fundraise.
- 6 Was the assembly delivered by the Year 12 students a good way of finding out about the work of UNICEF? Yes/No. Give a reason. (M/N/O)  
No, I couldn't hear what they said
- 7 Did you take any notice of the posters on UNICEF that were around the school?  Yes  No. (P/Q)  
?
- 8 Was today's non-uniform day a good way of making you think or talk about problems elsewhere in the world? Give a reason for your answer. (R/S/T)  
No because people are more concerned with what to wear.

## UNICEF Review, February 2004

1 What do the letters UNICEF stand for? (A) [1]

2 United Nations international children Emergency fund  
 What were the most important things you learnt from the research and presentation you did? (E) [2]

That we should not take water for granted and we should appreciate being able to have education.

3 This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Vietnam and Ghana.

[a] Why is this necessary? (B) [1]

Because they don't have any water. But in Vietnam there are major floods.

[b] What is UNICEF doing to help these people? (C) [2]

They are giving children bikes and raising money for water pumps.

[c] What did you do to help these people? (D) [1]

Our school raised money by having a non-uniform day for £1.50.

4 On April 23<sup>rd</sup> 2004 our local MP, [REDACTED], will be in school to meet Year 9 students. We will be telling him about the right to education for all people. We want him to go back to Parliament and persuade the government to do more to help children get a quality education everywhere. What do you think are the most important things we should be saying to him? (F) [3]

- A lot of people can't have education in the world.
- People are dying every day.
- without water they will become very ill + die. And we need to provide water pumps!

$\frac{10}{10}$   
 excellent

## UNICEF Review, February 2004

- 1 What do the letters UNICEF stand for?(A) [1]  
 United Nations International Childrens Emergency Fund ✓
- 2 What were the most important things you learnt from the research and presentation you did? (E) [2]  
 That unicef are not funded by the UN and they could only survive with our contributions. What else did you learn of importance? ✓
- 3 This year UNICEF is focusing on helping people in Vietnam and Ghana.  
 [a] Why is this necessary? (B) [1]  
 because people in Ghana do not have enough water and Vietnam suffers from flooding. ✓
- [b] What is UNICEF doing to help these people?(C) [2]  
 They are making wells so that people can get clean and in Vietnam they have built water tanks on stilts so that the water does not get contaminated. ✓
- [c] What did you do to help these people? (D) [1]  
 Donated £1.50 on non-uniform day to support UNICEF. ✓
- 4 On April 23<sup>rd</sup> 2004 our local MP, [REDACTED], will be in school to meet Year 9 students. We will be telling him about the right to education for all people. We want him to go back to Parliament and persuade the government to do more to help children get a quality education everywhere. What do you think are the most important things we should be saying to him? (F) [3]  
 ✓ good points ✓  
 ▪ That education is the only way to escape poverty ✓  
 ▪ That it is a human right to get education ✓  
 ▪ There are ways to raise money. ✓

9/10 well done

## Appendix 6

### The global link: student responses

Kenya 2004

FEMALE (2)

YEAR 12

Name: [REDACTED]



#### Pre -visit

1 Have you ever been to Kenya before? YES/NO

2 If NO to question 1:

[a] What do you imagine the way of life of the people of Kenya will be like?

*Simple, completely different to life in the UK*

[b] What influences have led you to think this?

*Images on TV, news programmes*

3 If YES to question 1:

Why do you want to return to Kenya?

4 What do you hope to learn/achieve by your visit?

*Experience of seeing what life is like in a completely different environment and culture.*

**Thank you for completing this.**  
Please return to Mrs. Allen

## Kenya 2004 Post-visit

FEMALE (2)

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ 12<sup>th</sup> \_\_\_\_\_

YEAR 12

1 In what ways was the 'Kenya experience' different from what you imagined?

The way different areas which were right next to each other varied so dramatically in terms of wealth.

2 Are there any aspects of Kenya's culture that you think we, in England, should adopt? Why?

Not wasting anything and making the best use of everything we have.

3 What do you think the students in Kenya might have learnt about English people from the time you spent with them?

I think overall we learnt more about their lifestyle than they did about ours but we did compare things such as schools, <sup>and</sup> the landscape.

4 What will remain as your best memory of Kenya?

Talking to the people about their cultures and sharing ours.

5 Has this experience changed your thinking/attitudes/viewpoints or your approach to life in any way? If so, how?

It has added reality to the things we see on the news and raised awareness and need to do something about issues such as AIDS.

Thank you for completing this,  
Please return it to Mrs. Allen

**The Gambia 2005 Pre -visit**

MALE STUDENT (1)

Name: [REDACTED] IRNLE

YEAR 12

1 Have you ever been to the Gambia before?  YES/NO

2 If NO to question 1:

[a] What do you imagine the way of life of the people of the Gambia will be like?

Poorer than here, obviously but I think family will be quite important to them. I think the people will also be welcoming. However I think the area we are going to will be better than the typical African nation.

[b] What influences have led you to think this?

TV reports, what I have heard from Mrs Herbert, what I've seen on the Internet about Gambia

3 What do you hope to learn/ achieve from this visit?

A wider and better knowledge of the culture and life of Gambians and an insight into how they live.

4 If YES to question 1:

Why do you want to return to the Gambia?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

5 Have you any previous experience of community work? If yes, briefly explain your involvement.

Yes, community work in Dof E

6 Has any member of your family been involved in community work? If yes, briefly explain this involvement.

No

**Thank you for completing this questionnaire.****Please return it to Mrs. Allen**

### The Gambia 2005 Post-visit

MALE STUDENT (i)  
YEAR 12

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- 1 In what ways was the 'Gambian experience' different from what you imagined?

Not as much poverty as I thought there would be however we didn't see the rural area.

The friendliness of the people and it wasn't as barren as I thought it would be (there was more flora).

- 2 Are there any aspects of Gambian culture that you think we, in England, should adopt? Why?

The friendliness and welcoming nature of the Gambians. While in Gambia we got an amazing reception from everybody whether it was at the school, at the families compound, in the hotel and outside at the shops/market.

- 3 What do you think the students in the Gambia might have learnt about English people from the time you spent with them?

I asked a Gambian person at the school what they expected and ~~they~~ he said he expected people who would come and then leave without taking an interest or caring.

So I think they learnt we do care and take an interest - if you know what I mean - which can only be good.

- 4 What will remain as your best memory of the Gambia?

Visit to the families' compound → seeing how the people live and seeing things such as the shops, internet cafes etc along the way. It's probably this as it was such an eye-opening experience.

- 5 Has this experience changed your thinking/attitudes/viewpoints or your approach to life in any way? If so, how?

Yes. I'm much more aware of how other cultures live and made me want to help people more. It has made me realise how lucky each one of us is, having a warm, dry place to live and knowing where our next meal will come and not having to worry about if we are short of money. Also, little things such as having money to get a bus to school. I think it has made me less materialistic.

Thank you for completing this,  
Please return it to Mrs. Allen

Name: [REDACTED] Kenya 2006 FEMALE STUDENT (3)  
YEAR 13

Pre-visit

- 1 Have you any previous experience of voluntary community work? If yes, briefly explain what your involvement was.

I am a <sup>leader</sup> ~~young member~~ of G.B and spend every Wednesday <sup>night</sup> ~~planning~~ etc.

- 2 Has any member of your family been involved in voluntary community work? If yes, briefly explain what this was.

All my family have been involved in a variety of committees things i.e. GB+BB etc.

- 3 What do you hope to learn/achieve by your visit to Kenya?

I want to discover new cultures and see how they live, and learn from their way of life.

- 4 Have you ever been to Kenya before? YES/NO

YES/NO

- 5 If NO to question 4:

[a] What do you imagine the way of life of the people of Kenya will be like?

I think it will be a lot simpler as they don't rely on material possessions but I think their life is hard.

[b] What influences have led you to think this?

When I visited Tunisia and visited the southern areas, as well as speaking to family contacts in Kenya.

If YES to question 4:

Why do you want to return to Kenya?

Thank you for completing this. Please return to Mrs. Allen's office (next to the common room) before the end of this week.

## Kenya 2006 Post-visit

FEMALE STUDENT (3)

YEAR 13

Name: [REDACTED]

- 1 In what ways was the 'Kenyan experience' different from what you imagined?

It was 100% better, the people were so friendly and welcoming and the food was amazing - I thought I wouldn't like it!

- 2 Are there any aspects of Kenyan culture that you think we, in England, should adopt? Why?

They have such a positive attitude even when they have nothing! The clinic in the village were so proud even

- 3 What do you think the students in Kenya might have learnt about English people from the time you spent with them?

Hopefully that we are willing to try and help and do our best for them.

- 4 What will remain as your best memory of Kenya?

Helping to build the hospital and the reception we got from the villagers. The children performance at the school ceremony.

- 5 Has this experience changed your thinking/attitudes/viewpoints or your approach to life in any way? If so, how?

I am so grateful for everything I have and the opportunities given to me. I hope to go back some day to give more to the community.

Thank you for completing this.

Please return this questionnaire to Mrs Allen's room in the Post-16 Centre by 6<sup>th</sup> April.

P.S. Trying to not be negative in my opinion year 11 students shouldn't be aloud on the trip - I don't really think they were mature enough to understand the situations facing them.

## Appendix 7

### Reflections from Westminster: MP responses

(ANON.)

13

1. What was the approximate size of the school you attended from 14-16 years?

- a) Under 600 pupils      b) 600-1000      c) Over 1000

2. Did your secondary education play a significant role in moulding your desire to become politically active?      Yes/No  
 Yes       No

3. If yes to question 2, was this due to:

- a) The ethos of the school as a whole?  
 b) The impact of certain individuals?  
 c) Experiences within specific subject areas?  
 d) Other [please state]

4. If no to question 2, what stimulus led you to enter the political arena?

My family were active in the community in my village - always helping others. I saw extreme poverty (eg children walking the streets without shoes) + poor housing in places like Liverpool in the past - was years.

5. Please feel free to add any other comments you might like to make on the above or on citizenship education in general.

I visit many schools in my constituency to promote the citizenship agenda - UNICEF's "Put It To Your MP" campaign forms the backbone of my visits. "Children have a right to be heard" is one of the 42 Articles in their Children's Charter.

1. What was the approximate size of the school you attended from 14-16 years?
  - a) Under 600 pupils
  - b) 600-1000
  - c) Over 1000
2. Did your secondary education play a significant role in moulding your desire to become politically active? Yes/No
3. If yes to question 2, was this due to:
  - a) The ethos of the school as a whole? AU
  - b) The impact of certain individuals?
  - c) Experiences within specific subject areas?
  - d) Other [please state] | stood as candidate during Mock Election
4. If no to question 2, what stimulus led you to enter the political arena?
5. Please feel free to add any other comments you might like to make on the above or on citizenship education in general.

I suspect that, like most people, my political beliefs were forged in the home. However, as I began to raise these issues at school, the teachers were very good at encouraging me and stimulating argument/debate. That may have had something to do with the fact that it was the mid-80s and times were perhaps more ideological than now! I was at a Catholic school and believe the link with religion was important. I have long believed that the basic Christian values are incompatible from the principles of the Left.

Hope this is helpful and good luck with your studies.

(101)  
(LABOUR)

1. What was the approximate size of the school you attended from 14-16 years?  
 a) Under 600 pupils    b) 600-1000    c) Over 1000
2. Did your secondary education play a significant role in moulding your desire to become politically active?  
 Yes/No Yes
3. If yes to question 2, was this due to:  
 a) The ethos of the school as a whole?  
 b) The impact of certain individuals?  
 c) Experiences within specific subject areas?  
 d) Other [please state] — school Debating Society and inter school debating competition
4. If no to question 2, what stimulus led you to enter the political arena?
5. Please feel free to add any other comments you might like to make on the above or on citizenship education in general.

My parents, although neither were political activists, were extremely politically interested and there was much political discussion at home

(LIB. DEM.)

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HOUSE OF COMMONS  
LONDON SW1A 0AA

1) What was the approximate size of the school you attended from 14-16 years?

b) 600-1000

2) Did your secondary education play a significant role in moulding your desire to become politically active?

No

3) If yes to question 2, was that due to:

- a) The ethos of the School as a whole?
- b) The impact of certain individuals?
- c) Experiences within specific subject areas?
- d) Other [please state]

N/A

4) If no to question 2, what stimulus led you to enter the political arena?

During the 1970's I saw Britain decline to the extent that we could no longer be proud of our country. By the 1980's I was old enough to understand politics, and what I saw was Mrs Thatcher literally transform our country and make it great again.

It was therefore the desire to stand up for our country that encouraged me into politics rather than any School work.

5) Please feel free to add any other comments you might like to make on the above or on citizenship education in general.

Citizenship is a misnomer. If we want our children to have a strong sense of their national identity we should be teaching them about the history of our country rather than about German and French history. We should use every lesson (especially History) to develop young people's sense of community. If all we do is talk about rights for one hour a week in 'Citizenship' then we have failed our children.

I would also advocate a US style Oath of Allegiance to Her Majesty every morning in every class room in Britain. This may sound unusual for British children, but our sense of nation and our pride have declined to such an extent that it is necessary.

*(Right wing; Eurosceptic; Conservative)*

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