

# International Civic and Citizenship Education Study

**Assessment Framework** 

Wolfram Schulz Julian Fraillon John Ainley Bruno Losito David Kerr











# **International Civic and Citizenship Education Study**

### **Assessment Framework**

**Wolfram Schulz Julian Fraillon John Ainley Bruno Losito David Kerr** 







Copyright © 2008 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, electrostatic, magnetic tape, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without permission in writing from the copyright holder.

ISBN: 978-90-9023778-7

Copies of this publication can be obtained from: The IEA Secretariat Herengracht 487 1017 BT, Amsterdam, The Netherlands Telephone + 31 20 625 3625 Fax + 31 20 420 7136

Email: Department@IEA.nl

Website: www.iea.nl

The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, known as IEA, is an independent, international consortium of national research institutions and governmental research agencies, with headquarters in Amsterdam. Its primary purpose is to conduct large-scale comparative studies of educational achievement with the aim of gaining more in-depth understanding of the effects of policies and practices within and across systems of education.

## **Contents**

Pretace	5
Overview	7
Purpose of the study	7
Background to the study	7
Research questions, design, and instrumentation	9
Characteristics and structure of the ICCS assessment framework	11
Civic and Citizenship Framework	12
Overview	12
Civic and citizenship content domains	16
Civic and citizenship affective-behavioral domains	22
Civic and citizenship cognitive domains	27
Mapping items to domains	28
Contextual Framework	30
Classification of contextual factors	30
Contextual levels and variables	32
Assessment Design	46
The ICCS instruments	46
The coverage of framework domains	47
Item types	47
The ICCS test booklet design	48
Reporting on the contextual scales	49
References	51
Appendix A: Institutions and Staff	56
The international study center and its partner institutions	56
The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA)	56
The ICCS project advisory committee (PAC)	57
The ICCS sampling referee	57
National research coordinators	57
Annendix R. Sample Test Items	60

## **Preface**

The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) is a non-profit, non-governmental international co-operative association of national research institutions and governmental research agencies from over 60 countries. Its secretariat is located in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, and it has a data processing and research center (DPC) in Hamburg, Germany.

IEA conducts large-scale comparative studies of student achievement that have, as their particular focus, educational policies and practices in numerous countries around the world. The first IEA study was launched in 1958. Since then, almost 30 research studies, reporting on a wide range of topics and subject matters, have been conducted. Together, these studies have contributed to a deeper understanding of educational phenomena within individual countries and within a broad international context.

The *International Civic and Citizenship Study* (ICCS) is the third IEA project investigating the role of schooling in preparing young people for their roles as citizens in society. The first study in this area—the *Study of Civic Education*—began in 1971. This project, which introduced civics and civic education into the IEA research agenda, challenged some of the conceptual and methodological constraints associated with international comparisons in this area of education.

The second *Civic Education Study* (CIVED), undertaken in 1999, focused on investigating school experiences in the context of changes that occurred in the "real world" of the political and social life of nations in the early 1990s. These changes included, on the one hand, the collapse of communism in Central-Eastern Europe and the appearance of new democracies and, on the other hand, a lessening of interest and participation in public life by citizens of the older democracies.

Almost 10 years on, global change has again prompted a new survey of civic and citizenship education. Amongst other considerations, the growing impact of the processes of globalization, external threats to civic societies and their freedoms, and the limited interest and involvement of young generations in public and political life have stimulated renewed reflection on the meanings of citizenship and the roles of and approaches to civic and citizenship education. The IEA General Assembly agreed that it was timely to address these emerging concerns and initiated ICCS in order to collect empirical evidence that individual countries and international organizations can use to improve policy and practice in this area.

The aim of ICCS is to report on student achievement on a test of conceptual knowledge and understandings in civic and citizenship education. It also intends to collect and analyze data about student dispositions and attitudes relating to civic and citizenship education. Because ICCS builds on CIVED (1999), it will give those education systems that participated in the earlier study an opportunity to generate indicators (trend data) of national across-time progress in student achievement. However, ICCS also offers opportunity to pursue new targets in this field of education. A major innovation is that ICCS will attempt, through the introduction of regional modules, to address specific regional issues in civic and citizenship education. Three regional modules (Asian, European, and Latin American) will provide data that will complement the information collected relative to the core part of the study.

International studies of the scale of ICCS rely on the contributions and collaboration of many individuals and input from many countries. This publication contains the ICCS assessment framework, which provides the blueprint for the assessment of the outcomes of civic and citizenship education. The publication has been a collaborative process involving numerous individuals and groups, including the project advisory committee (PAC), national research coordinators (NRCs) from over 30 countries, and other experts. Input from these groups and individuals was sought in the early stages of this study, and strategies were developed to



encourage ICCS participating countries to contribute to the development of the assessment framework, the design of the study, and the study's instruments.

Projects of this magnitude require a significant financial commitment from IEA and its partners. Critical core funding for ICCS has been provided by the following: the European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture in the form of a grant to the European countries participating in the project; the Inter-American Development Bank through SREDECC (the Regional System for the Evaluation and Development of Citizenship Competencies), which supported a number of Latin American countries; and the ICCS participating countries.

The success of this project depends on sound management practices. Three partner institutions, in co-operation with the IEA Secretariat, the IEA DPC, and the NRCs, are responsible for the study's organization. They are the *Australian Council for Educational Research* (ACER), as lead institution, the *National Foundation for Educational Research* (NFER) in the United Kingdom, and the *Laboratorio di Pedagogia sperimentale* (LPS) at the Roma Tre University in Italy.

I express my sincere thanks to the study leaders: John Ainley, Julian Fraillon, and Wolfram Schulz from ACER; David Kerr from NFER; and Bruno Losito from LPS. I also thank the researchers from the consortium institutions: Suzanne Mellor and Naoko Tabata from ACER; Gabriella Agrusti from LPS; and Joana Lopes from NFER.

My special thanks go to the members of the PAC for their thoughtful reviews of earlier versions of the assessment framework. I particularly thank Judith Torney-Purta (University of Maryland), previously the leader and chair of the steering committee for CIVED. The IEA publications and editorial committee (PEC) suggested improvements to earlier versions of the framework, and Paula Wagemaker edited the document.

Finally, I wish to express my appreciation for the contribution made by the NRCs. They are the core of each IEA study because they assure its relevance to the research, policy, and educational practice relevant to the area of investigation.

Hans Wagemaker
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR IEA



## **Overview**

#### Purpose of the study

The purpose of the *International Civic and Citizenship Education Study* (ICCS) is to investigate, in a range of countries, the ways in which young people are prepared and consequently ready and able to undertake their roles as citizens. In pursuit of this purpose, the study reports on student achievement in a test of conceptual understandings and competencies in civics and citizenship. It also collects and analyzes, as additional outcome variables, data about student activities, dispositions, and attitudes related to civic and citizenship education. The collection of contextual data will help explain variation in the outcome variables. The proposal builds on the previous IEA studies of civic education, acknowledges the need for a new study, and is a response to the challenge of educating young people in changed contexts of democracy and civic participation.

#### Background to the study

#### Previous IEA studies

The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) has already carried out two international surveys of student characteristics in the domain of civic education. The first such study (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975) was conducted as part of the so-called Six Subject Study, with data collected in 1971 (for a summary, see Walker, 1976). The second study, the *IEA Civic Education Study* (CIVED), was carried out in 1999. It was designed to strengthen the empirical foundations of civic education by providing up-to-date information about the civic knowledge, attitudes, and actions of 14-year-olds.

CIVED had a twin focus on school-based learning and on opportunities for civic participation outside the school. CIVED concentrated on three civic-related domains: democracy/citizenship; national identity/international relations; and social cohesion/diversity. It was argued that the research outcomes from a study focusing on these domains would be particularly useful to policymakers involved in designing or redesigning curricula and preparing teachers.

CIVED was successful in meeting its aims and objectives. Phase 1 produced a detailed series of national case studies from the 24 participating countries (Torney-Purta, Schwille, & Amadeo, 1999). Phase 2 produced two data-rich international reports, the first on the results from the mandatory standard population of 14-year-olds in 28 participating countries (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001), and the second from the 16 countries that surveyed an older, optional population of 16- to 18-year-olds (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002). CIVED's findings have had a considerable influence on policy and educational practice in civic and citizenship education across the world, in both participating and non-participating countries, and have also influenced further research in this area (Kerr, Ireland, Lopes, & Craig, with Cleaver, 2004; Mellor & Prior, 2004; Menezes, Ferreira, Carneiro, & Cruz, 2004).

#### Recent changes in the world context of civics and citizenship

In the 10 years since CIVED investigated civic education, the conditions relevant to civics and citizenship (especially governance and among-nation relations) have undergone considerable change across the globe. The world context and thus the context in relation to both citizenship and policy and practice in civic and citizenship education have changed.



The catalyst of major political change that swept across the world in the late 1980s and 1990s, and which triggered CIVED, has developed further:

- The last decade has seen a significant change in external threats to civil societies. Terrorist attacks and the ensuing debates about the response civil societies should take have resulted in greater importance being attached to civic and citizenship education. This shift has been accompanied by a growing recognition of the role that civic and citizenship education can play in response to these changes (see Ben Porath, 2006; IDEA, 2006).
- Observation in many developing countries, and particularly those in the Latin American region, indicates that people are giving greater value to democracy as a system of government than in the past, but that increasing social and economic inequalities are simultaneously threatening the continuation of democratic government. Studies have highlighted the consensus in many developing countries of the importance of strengthening and promoting citizenship education among both young people and adults in order to make democracy more sustainable (see Cox, Jaramillo, & Reimers, 2005; Reimers, 2007; USAID, 2002).
- There has been a notable increase in the importance of non-governmental groups from
  civil society serving as alternative vehicles through which active citizenship can unite
  citizens with common purpose. New forms of social movement participation are due to a
  variety of different purposes, ranging from religious motivation to issues such as protection
  of human rights or protection of the environment (see Scheufele, Nisbet, & Brossard,
  2002; Wade, 2007).
- The trend toward more profound cultural changes due to the modernization and globalization of societies, more universal access to new media such as the internet, increasing consumer consumption, and transformation of societal structures (individualism) has continued over the last decade (see Branson, 1999; Rahn, 2004).

Consequently, interest in civic and citizenship education remains, or has become, high in many countries, especially in those with democratic forms of government, but also in those where the establishment of democracy has yet to be achieved.

Linked to these changes is a change in views with regard to the appropriateness of traditional views of citizenship. This development has led to a revisiting of concepts and practices associated with the four dimensions of citizenship: rights and responsibilities, access, belonging, and other identities (see Banks, 2004; Kymlicka, 2001; Macedo, 2000). Current debates include discussions about concepts of national identity, how national identity can be identified, and what might be done to confirm national identity.

Low participation in governance and social dialectic by voters, or populations, is of particular relevance in many countries, and concerns are growing about the lack of interest and involvement of young people and young adults in public and political life (Curtice & Seyd, 2003; Putnam, 2000). However, while young people may reject political practices, the same does not necessarily occur with their endorsement of political values like solidarity, equity, and tolerance. There is also some evidence that young people are becoming increasingly involved in alternative forms of participation (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).



#### Developments in the research of civic and citizenship education

Because of these developments, experts and educational policymakers in many countries are reflecting on the meaning of citizenship, resulting in an increased focus on civic and citizenship education in schools. There has been an increase in the number of countries and regions interested and involved in progressing civic and citizenship education. Such countries have become more proactive, and research in recent years has provided insights into:

- The gap between the intended and the implemented curriculum (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005);
- The conceptualization of citizenship in schools with respect to curriculum, school culture, and the wider community (Kerr et al., 2004);
- Approaches to civic and citizenship education, with an emphasis on active and experiential teaching and learning (Potter, 2002); and
- Those factors that support effective citizenship education (Craig, Kerr, Wade, & Taylor, 2005).

This growing policy and evidence base has helped facilitate increased collaboration and sharing of expertise within and across countries and regions. Generally, the environment for civic and citizenship education has changed considerably since the late 1980s with respect to the scale and complexity of the challenges facing democracy and citizenship. There is a need to update the empirical evidence of this new environment in civic and citizenship education.

#### Research questions, design, and instrumentation

The key research questions for the study concern student achievement, dispositions to engage, and attitudes related to civic and citizenship education. The variables necessary to analyze these research questions can be located in the contextual framework.

RQ 1 What variations exist between countries, and within countries, in student achievement in conceptual understandings and competencies in civics and citizenship?

This research question concerns the distribution of outcome variables across participating countries (at the country level) and within these countries. Analysis to address this research question focuses on the distribution of student achievement based on test data and involves single- and multi-level perspectives (through the use of, for example, models of variance decomposition).

RQ 2 What changes in civic knowledge and engagement have occurred since the last international assessment in 1999?

This research question is mainly concerned with analyzing trends from CIVED to ICCS and will be limited to data from countries participating in both assessments. Analysis focuses at the level of participating countries on changes in overall civic knowledge and indicators of civic engagement and attitudes. Country-level factors (recent curriculum changes, reforms) can be used when interpreting possible changes across time.

RQ 3 What is the extent of interest and disposition to engage in public and political life among adolescents and which factors within or across countries are related to it?

This research question addresses the issue of engagement versus apathy, with indicators of civic participation compared within and across countries and related to explanatory variables at various levels. Both characteristics and process-related variables at the levels of school/classroom and home environment are used to explain variation in outcome variables.



RQ 4 What are adolescents' perceptions of the impact of recent threats to civil society and of responses to these threats on the future development of that society?

Analysis is based on student comprehensions of the relationship between securing societies and safeguarding civil liberties, and on student attitudes toward citizenship rights. Factors located at the country level (recent developments, liberal traditions) might be of particular importance for the analysis.

- RQ 5 What aspects of schools and education systems are related to achievement in and attitudes to civics and citizenship, including:
  - (a) general approach to civic and citizenship education, curriculum, and/or program content structure and delivery?

The analysis requires additional data to be collected at the national level on curriculum and programs as well as from reports from the school and teacher questionnaires. Both background variables and factors related to the process of civic and citizenship learning at the country level and the school/classroom level are therefore of particular importance for the analysis.

(b) teaching practices, such as those that encourage higher order thinking and analysis in relation to civics and citizenship?

Analysis will be based on data about student perceptions of and teacher reports on instructional practices and will involve variables related to the learning process collected from schools, teachers, and individual students.

(c) aspects of school organization, including opportunities to contribute to conflict resolution, participate in governance processes, and be involved in decisionmaking?

The analysis requires data on student perceptions of school governance and reports from school principals or teachers. It involves variables that relate to the opportunities students have to participate within school and that are collected from students, teachers, and schools.

RQ 6 What aspects of student personal and social background, such as gender, socioeconomic background, and language background, are related to student achievement in and attitudes toward civic and citizenship education?

The analysis will rely on student background variables, collected through the student questionnaire and related to the individual students and the home environment. These factors will be used to explain variation in outcome variables assessed in the test and the student perceptions questionnaire.

The research questions played an important role in shaping the design of the study and its instrumentation and in guiding the development of the assessment framework.

The student population surveyed includes students in Grade 8 (on average including students who are approximately 14 years of age), provided that the average age of students in Grade 8 is 13.5 years or above. Where the average age of students in Grade 8 is under 13.5 years, Grade 9 is defined as the target population. In each sampled school, intact classrooms are selected, and all students in a class are assessed for the ICCS survey.

The population for the ICCS teacher survey is defined as all teachers teaching regular school subjects to the students in the target grade at each sampled school. It includes only those teachers teaching Grade 8 during the testing period and employed at school from the beginning of the school year. Fifteen teachers are randomly selected from each school participating in the ICCS survey.

<sup>1</sup> An option to include Grade 9 as an additional year level is offered to countries that participated in CIVED using their Grade 9 population and who are assessing Grade 8 in ICCS.

An important feature of ICCS is the establishment of regional modules. Regional modules compromise groups of countries from the same geographic region that together administer additional instruments to assess region-specific aspects of civic and citizenship education. Three regional modules have been implemented as part of ICCS for participating countries in the regions of Europe, Latin America, and Asia respectively.

The following instruments are administered as part of the ICCS survey:

- An international cognitive student test consisting of items measuring students' civic knowledge and ability to analyze and reason.
- A student questionnaire consisting of items measuring student background variables and student perceptions and behaviors.
- A regional student instrument, administered after the international student assessment and possibly consisting of region-specific cognitive and questionnaire-type items. This instrument will only be used in countries participating in a regional module.
- A teacher questionnaire, administered to selected teachers teaching any subject in the target grade. It gathers information about teacher background variables and teachers' perceptions of factors related to the context of civic and citizenship education in their respective schools.
- A school questionnaire, administered to school principals of selected schools to capture school characteristics and school-level variables related to civic and citizenship participation.
- An online national contexts survey, completed by national center experts with regard to the
  structure of the education systems, the status of civic and citizenship education in the
  national curriculum, and recent developments. The data obtained from this survey assist
  with the interpretation of the results from the student, school, and teacher questionnaires,
  and provide a description of the context for civic and citizenship education in each
  country.

The assessment framework provides a conceptual underpinning for the international instrumentation for ICCS and has also been a point of reference for the development of regional instruments.

#### Characteristics and structure of the ICCS assessment framework

Given the central role of the assessment framework in the process of instrument development, it has been important to:

- Maintain a strong connection to the constructs used in the IEA CIVED survey of 1999;
- Reflect contemporary research understandings of manifestations of civic and citizenship education in school students;
- Meet the needs of participating countries;
- Address the research questions outlined in the ICCS proposal for the IEA General Assembly of 2005;
- Include only content that can be measured;
- Compile content descriptors that are agreed to be significant and discrete and that describe the breadth of civic and citizenship education for school students; and
- Address the contexts within which civic and citizenship education takes place.

The assessment framework consists of two parts:

- The *civic and citizenship framework* outlines the aspects to be addressed when collecting the outcome measures through the cognitive test and the student perceptions questionnaire.
- The *contextual framework* provides a mapping of context factors that might influence outcome variables and explain their variation.



## **Civic and Citizenship Framework**

#### Overview

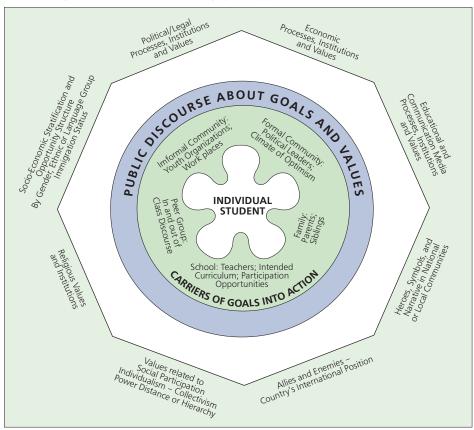
Continuities between CIVED and ICCS

#### Key conceptual continuities

The overall model for CIVED is represented as an octagon that gives detail to the "nested context for young people's thinking and action in the social environment" (Torney-Purta et al., 2001, p. 21). The detailed CIVED model is reproduced as Figure 1.

The CIVED theoretical model places the individual student at its center, with the student influenced by "agents" of socialization. The model is based on the assumption that students' "learning about citizenship" is not limited to teachers explicitly instructing young people about their rights and duties (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

Figure 1: Model of the IEA Civic Education Study (CIVED)



The ICCS assessment framework thus reflects the pivotal assertion of the CIVED model that the individual student exists as the central agent in their civic world, with both an influence on and being influenced by their multiple connections with their civic communities. Consequent to this is the assertion posited in CIVED, and further reflected by the ICCS assessment framework, that young people learn about civics and citizenship through their interactions with their multiple civic communities and not just through formal classroom instruction (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

#### Construct operationalization continuities

The CIVED conceptual model was operationalized to collect student outcomes data, using a cognitive test and questionnaire instruments with a range of question types relating to civic and



citizenship content in three domains. The three domains of the CIVED conceptual model of civics and citizenship are:

- Domain I: Democracy/Citizenship
- Domain II: National Identity/International Relations
- Domain III: Social Cohesion/Diversity.

A set of the secure CIVED trend cognitive items and items from some of the attitude and concept CIVED scales are included in the ICCS assessment instruments.

#### Representing civics and citizenship in the ICCS assessment framework

The ICCS assessment framework is organized around three dimensions: a content dimension specifying the subject matter to be assessed within civics and citizenship; an affective-behavioral dimension that describes the types of student perceptions and activities that are measured; and a cognitive dimension that describes the thinking processes to be assessed.

The four content domains in the ICCS assessment framework are:

- Content Domain 1: Civic society and systems
- Content Domain 2: Civic principles
- Content Domain 3: Civic participation
- Content Domain 4: Civic identities.

It is important to distinguish the different types of student perceptions and behaviors relevant within the context of civics and citizenship. For this purpose, four affective-behavioral domains are identified in the ICCS assessment framework:

- Affective-behavioral Domain 1: Value beliefs
- Affective-behavioral Domain 2: Attitudes
- Affective-behavioral Domain 3: Behavioral intentions
- Affective-behavioral Domain 4: Behaviors.

Similar to the domains within the assessment framework for TIMSS (Mullis, Martin, Ruddock, O'Sullivan, Aroa, & Erberber, 2005), the cognitive domains in the ICCS assessment framework define the cognitive processes assessed with test items. The two cognitive domains in the ICCS framework are:

- Cognitive Domain 1: Knowing
- Cognitive Domain 2: Reasoning and analyzing.

#### Mapping assessment domains to the assessment instruments

The ICCS assessment of the outcomes of civic and citizenship education comprises two instruments:

- A student test measuring cognitive processes
- A student questionnaire measuring perceptions and behaviors.

The data from the cognitive test will be used to construct a scale of civic and citizenship knowledge and understandings as described by the two cognitive domains, and representing the substance of the four content domains.

The data from the student questionnaire will be used to articulate perceptions constructs pertaining to the four affective-behavioral domains and relating to the substance of the four content domains. The amount and type of assessment information accessed by each instrument will vary across the four content domains.



Data dealing with active citizenship behaviors will be used as indicators of active citizenship and as possible explanatory variables of civic and citizenship achievement. Indicators of student activities are also important context variables and are therefore also included in the contextual framework.

Structures and key terms in the ICCS assessment framework

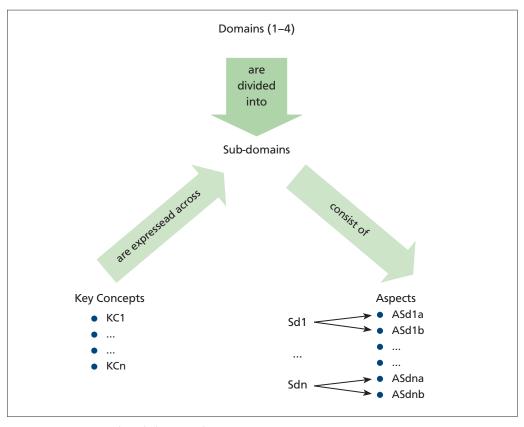
#### Structure of the content domains

The four content domains of the ICCS assessment framework share the following structures:

Sub-domain	This refers to a substantive or contextual component of a content domain. The sub-domains are described if they include sufficient discrete content to warrant individual definition and articulation. This model anticipates some overlap between the sub-domains within each domain.
Aspect	This refers to specific content regarded as largely situated within a given sub-domain.
Key concept	This refers to concepts and processes common to sub-domains within a given content domain.

In short, each content domain is divided into sub-domains, and each sub-domain consists of one or more aspects. The key concepts can be expressed within the contexts of any of the sub-domains. Figure 2 illustrates the structure of the content domains in the ICCS assessment framework.

Figure 2: The structure of the ICCS assessment framework content domains





Note: KC = Key concept; Sd = Sub-domain; ASd = Aspect.

#### Structure of the affective-behavioral domains

The four affective-behavioral domains are described in terms of the types of student perceptions and behaviors relevant with respect to the civic and citizenship content domains.

#### Structure of the cognitive domains

The two cognitive domains are each defined in terms of the cognitive processes that comprise them.

#### Key terms

Civic

The ICCS assessment framework uses a set of key terms. Definitions of these follow. Note that the exact definitions of many of the terms used in the framework are the subject of ongoing and vigorous academic dialogue. The definitions of the key and domain-specific terms in this framework have been constructed to support consistent understandings of the framework's contents across the broad range of countries participating and interested in ICCS.

Community	A group of people who share something in common (for example, history, values, loyalties, a common goal). In this framework, community membership includes membership based on externally defined criteria relating to the function of the community (such as attending a school as a student) and membership defined by individuals' own belief of their membership (such as through identification with "like-minded" people regarding a political or social issue). <sup>2</sup>
Society	A community defined by its geographical territory and within which the population shares a common culture (which may comprise and celebrate multiple and diverse ethnic or other communities) and way of life under conditions of relative autonomy, independence, and self-sufficiency.
Citizenship	1. The legal status of being a citizen.
	2. The fact of individuals' participation, or lack of participation, in their communities. The term "citizenship," unlike the term "active citizenship," does not assume certain levels of participation.
Civil	Refers to the sphere of society in which the shared connections between people are at a level larger than that of the extended family but do not include connections to the state.

Refers to any community in which the shared connections between people are at a level larger than that of the extended family (including the state). Civils also refers to the principles, mechanisms, and processes

the state). Civic also refers to the principles, mechanisms, and processes of decisionmaking, participation, governance, and legislative control that exist

in these communities.



<sup>2</sup> Note that a community may still contain any level of diversity.

#### Civic and citizenship content domains

The first content domain, *civic society and systems*, comprises the mechanisms, systems, and organizations that underpin societies. The second domain, *civic principles*, refers to the shared ethical foundations of civic societies. *Civic participation* deals with the nature of the processes and practices that define and mediate the participation of citizens in their civic communities (often referred to as active citizenship). The ICCS assessment framework recognizes the centrality of the individual citizen through the *civic identities* domain. This domain refers to the personal sense an individual has of being an agent of civic action with connections to multiple communities. Together, these four domains describe the civic and citizenship content to be assessed in ICCS.

#### Content Domain 1: Civic society and systems

Civic society and systems focuses on the formal and informal mechanisms and organizations that underpin both the civic contracts that citizens have with their societies and the functioning of the societies themselves. The three sub-domains of civic society and systems are:

- Citizens
- State institutions
- Civil institutions.

#### Citizens

*Citizens* focuses on the civic relationships between individuals and groups of citizens and their societies. The aspects of this sub-domain relate to knowledge and understanding of:

- Citizens' and groups' assigned and desired roles within their civic society
- Citizens' and groups' assigned and desired rights within their civic society
- Citizens' and groups' assigned and desired responsibilities within their civic society
- Citizens' and groups' opportunities and abilities to support the ongoing development of their civic society.

#### State institutions

*State institutions* focuses on those institutions central to the processes and enacting of civic governance and legislation in the common interest of the people they represent and serve.

The aspects of this sub-domain are:

- Legislatures/parliaments
- Governments
- Supranational/intergovernmental governance bodies
- Judiciaries
- Law enforcement bodies
- National defense forces
- Bureaucracies (civil or public services)
- Electoral commissions.



#### Civil institutions

*Civil institutions* focuses on those institutions that can mediate citizens' contact with their state institutions and allow citizens to actively pursue many of their roles in their societies.

The aspects of this sub-domain are:

- Religious institutions
- Companies/corporations
- Trade unions
- Political parties
- Non-governmental organizations (NGOs)
- Pressure groups
- The media
- Schools
- Cultural/special-interest organizations.

#### **Key concepts**

dividuals to make binding	
Listed together as concepts dealing with the nature and consequences of the right or capacity of bodies or individuals to make binding decisions on behalf of others that these others are then required to accept and adhere to.	
licit prescriptions for behavior. ot required to be, and are body. Laws are considered to overeign body.	
siple governing the politics of a	
ring public policy and affairs.	
which decisions are made utions.	
rident in negotiation, and the eans of decisionmaking.	
answer to those they represent heir duties and use of their sumption that representatives hir failures and to take action to	
ots the broadest definition This definition refers both the and to the principles of that underpin democratic promotion of human rights. This is (such as national parliaments) those in some local-community the das democratic systems under this framework.	

<sup>3</sup> See Civic and Citizenship Content Domain 2, page 19.

The claim of each individual state/nation to have the ultimate power Sovereignty in making political decisions relevant to that state/nation and the recognition that this power underpins the operation and viability of international organizations, agreements, and treaties. Nation-building The process of developing among the people of a nation some form of a unified sense of national identity, with the aim of fostering long-term harmony and stability. Within the parameters of the ICCS assessment framework, nation-building is assumed to be a dynamic ongoing process in all nations rather than a process associated only with newly independent nations. Statelessness The circumstances of people who do not have any legal bond of nationality or citizenship with any state. Included in this concept are the causes and consequences of statelessness. Franchise/voting Listed together, these concepts refer to the rights, responsibilities, and expectations of people to vote in formal and informal settings. These concepts also refer, more broadly, to issues associated with voting and voting processes, such as compulsory and voluntary voting and secret ballots. The economy Systems governing the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services within states, including industrial regulation, trade, taxation, and social welfare. The welfare state The role of a government in providing for the social and economic security of its people through support such as health care, pensions, and social welfare payments and benefits. Treaties Binding agreements under international law entered into by eligible bodies such as states and international organizations. Sustainable Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own development needs. Factors that can be considered in terms of sustainable development include environmental protection, economic development, social equality, and social justice. Globalization The increasing international movement of commodities, money, information, and people; and the development of technology, organizations, legal systems, and infrastructures to allow this movement. The ICCS assessment framework acknowledges that a high level of international debate surrounds the definition, perceptions, and even the existence of globalization. Globalization has been included in the framework as a key concept for consideration

by students. The definition is not a statement of belief about the

existence or merits of globalization.



#### Content Domain 2: Civic principles

*Civic principles* focuses on the shared ethical foundations of civic societies. The framework regards support, protection, and promotion of these principles as civic responsibilities and as frequently occurring motivations for civic participation by individuals and groups. The three sub-domains of civic principles are:

- Equity
- Freedom
- Social cohesion.

#### Equity

*Equity* focuses on the principle that all people have the right to fair and just treatment and that protecting and promoting this equity is essential to achieving peace, harmony, and productivity within and among communities. The principle of equity is derived from the notion of equality—that all people are born equal in terms of dignity and rights.

#### Freedom

Freedom focuses on the concept that all people should have freedom of belief, freedom of speech, freedom from fear, and freedom from want as articulated in the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1948). Societies have a responsibility to actively protect the freedom of their members and to support the protection of freedom in all communities, including those that are not their own.

#### Social cohesion

Social cohesion focuses on the sense of belonging, connectedness, and common vision that exists amongst the individuals and communities within a society. When social cohesion is strong, there is active appreciation and celebration of the diversity of individuals and communities that comprise a society. It is acknowledged (in regard to this sub-domain) that manifestations of social cohesion vary between societies, that there may be tensions within societies between social cohesion and diversity of views and actions, and that the resolution of these tensions is an ongoing area of debate within many societies.

#### **Key concepts**

Concern for the common good	The concept that the ultimate goal of civic and community action is to promote conditions that advantage all members of the community.
Human rights	A form of inalienable moral entitlement that, for the purpose of the ICCS assessment framework, is framed by the contents of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1948).
Empathy	Intellectually or emotionally taking the role or perspective of others.
Respect	The concept that all people are to be valued because they are human.
Social justice	The distribution of advantage and disadvantage within communities.
Inclusiveness	The concept that communities have a responsibility to act in ways that support all their members to feel valued as members of those communities.
Equality	The notion that all people are born equal in terms of dignity and rights regardless of their personal characteristics (such as gender, race, religion).



#### Content Domain 3: Civic participation

*Civic participation* refers to the manifestations of individuals' actions in their communities. Civic participation can operate at any level of community and in any community context. The level of participation can range from awareness through engagement to influence. The three subdomains of civic participation are:

- Decisionmaking
- Influencing
- Community participation.

#### Decisionmaking

*Decisionmaking* focuses on active participation that directly results in the implementation of policy or practice regarding the individual's community or a group within that community. The aspects of this sub-domain are:

- Engaging in organizational governance
- Voting.

#### Influencing

*Influencing* focuses on actions aimed at informing and affecting any or all of the policies, practices, and attitudes of others or groups of others in the individual's community. The aspects of this sub-domain are:

- Engaging in public debate
- Engaging in demonstrations of public support or protest
- Engaging in policy development
- Developing proposals for action or advocacy
- Selective purchasing of products according to ethical beliefs about the way they were produced (ethical consumption/ethical consumerism)
- Corruption.

#### Community participation

*Community participation* focuses on participation, with a primary focus on enhancing one's connections with a community, for the ultimate benefit of that community. The aspects of this sub-domain are:

- Volunteering
- Participating in religious, cultural, and sporting organizations
- Keeping oneself informed.

#### **Key concepts**

Civic involvement	The concept that civic communities benefit from the active involvement
	of their citizens and that therefore there is an onus on civic communities
	to facilitate the right of active citizenship and an onus on citizens to
	participate actively in their civic communities.
Civic self-efficacy	Individuals' own judgments of their capacity to complete courses of

action that will influence their civic communities.



Co-operation/ collaboration	The concept that communities benefit most when their members act together in pursuing the common goals of the community. (This definition allows for disagreement within communities about the best way to achieve their goals.)
Negotiation/ resolution	The concept that peaceful resolution of differences is essential to community wellbeing and that negotiation is the best way to attempt to reach resolutions.
Engagement	The concept that citizens need to concern themselves with issues and information in their communities in order to participate effectively.

#### Content Domain 4: Civic identities

Civic identities includes the individual's civic roles and perceptions of these roles. As was the case with the CIVED model, ICCS assumes that individuals both influence and are influenced by the relationships they have with family, peers, and civic communities. Thus, an individual's civic identity explicitly links to a range of personal and civic interrelationships. This framework asserts and assumes that individuals have multiple articulated identities rather than a single-faceted civic identity.

Civic identities comprises two sub-domains:

- Civic self-image
- Civic connectedness.

#### Civic self-image

Civic self-image refers to individuals' experiences of their place in each of their civic communities. Civic self-image focuses on individuals' civic and citizenship values and roles, individuals' understanding of and attitudes toward these values and roles, and individuals' management of these values and roles whether they are in harmony or in conflict within each of these people.

#### Civic connectedness

Civic connectedness refers to the individual's sense of connection to their different civic communities and to the different civic roles the individual plays within each community.

Civic connectedness also includes the individual's beliefs about and tolerance of the levels of diversity (of civic ideas and actions) within and across their communities, and their recognition and understanding of the effects of the range of civic and citizenship values and belief systems of their different communities on the members of those communities.

#### **Key concepts**

Civic self-concept	Individuals' views of themselves as citizens in their civic communities. This view includes individuals' sense of the communities to which they belong and their capacity to identify the nature and parameters of their civic roles in their communities.
Multiplicity	Individuals' sense of the range of different roles and potentials they have within and across their different communities. Included in this concept is the understanding that an individual's roles and potentials are ever changing and that these depend on the context of each separate community connection.



Diversity Individuals' sense and level of acceptance of the range of people and viewpoints that exist within and across their communities. Cultures/location Individuals' sense of the value and place of the cultures they associate with their communities in their own civic lives and the civic lives of the other members of their communities. Love for or devotion to one's country (or countries), which can lead Patriotism to a willingness to act in support of one's country (or countries). Nationalism The politicization of patriotism into principles or programs based on the premise that national identity holds precedence over other social and political principles. Civic and citizenship Individuals' central ethical and moral beliefs about their civic values communities and their roles as citizens within their communities.

#### Civic and citizenship affective-behavioral domains

The items measuring the affective-behavioral domains do not require correct or incorrect responses. They are typically measured through use of a Likert-type item format in the student questionnaire.

#### Affective-behavioral Domain 1: Value beliefs

Value beliefs can be defined as beliefs about the worth of concepts, institutions, people, and/ or ideas. Value beliefs are different from attitudes insofar as they are more constant over time, deeply rooted, and representative of broader and more fundamental beliefs. Value beliefs help individuals resolve contradictions, and they form the basis of how we see ourselves and others. Value systems are sets of value beliefs that individuals adopt and that, in turn, influence both attitudes and behavior.<sup>4</sup>

Value beliefs relevant in the context of civics and citizenship include beliefs about fundamental concepts or ideas (freedom, equity, social cohesion). Two types of value beliefs are measured in ICCS:

- Students' beliefs in democratic values
- Students' beliefs in citizenship values.

#### Students' beliefs in democratic values

This construct refers to student beliefs about democracy and relates mainly to Content Domain 2 (civic principles). In the IEA CIVED survey, students were asked to rate a number of characteristics of society as either "good or bad for democracy." Contrary to expectations, the results did not show similar patterns of conceptual dimensions along which students rate these items. However, several items represented a factor related to a "rule of law" model of democracy that was consistent across countries (see Torney-Purta et al., 2001). Instead of asking about positive or negative consequences for democracy, the ICCS assessment framework includes a set of nine items that seek out the extent of student agreement as to what a society should be like. The items, adapted from a subset of those included in CIVED, reflect students' endorsement of basic democratic values. In addition, three items reflect students' beliefs about what should be done in response to groups that pose threats to national security.



<sup>4</sup> Rokeach (1973, p. 5) gives the following definitions: "A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. A value system is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning desirable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance."

#### Students' beliefs in citizenship values

This construct refers to student beliefs regarding "good citizenship" and relates mainly to Content Domain 1 (civic society and systems). Items asking about the importance of certain behaviors for "good citizenship" were included in the first IEA study on civic education in 1971 (Torney et al., 1975). In CIVED, a set of 15 items asked students to rate the importance of certain behaviors relative to being a good citizen (see Torney-Purta et al., 2001, p. 77f). Two sub-scales on conventional and social-movement-related citizenship were reported (see Schulz, 2004). Kennedy (2006) distinguishes *active* (conventional and social-movement-related) from *passive* citizenship elements (national identity, patriotism, and loyalty). ICCS includes 12 items on good citizenship behavior, most of which are similar to those used in CIVED.

#### Affective-behavioral Domain 2: Attitudes

Attitudes can be defined as states of mind or feelings about ideas, persons, objects, events, situations, and/or relationships. In contrast to value beliefs, attitudes are narrower in nature, can change over time, and are less deeply rooted. It is also possible for individuals to harbor contradictory attitudes at the same time.

The different types of attitudes relevant with respect to civics and citizenship include:

- Students' self-cognitions related to civics and citizenship
- Students' attitudes toward rights and responsibilities
- Students' attitudes toward institutions.

#### Students' self-cognitions related to civics and citizenship

Interest in political events and social issues: This construct reflects students' motivation relative to politics and relates to Content Domain 4 (civic identities). The first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971 included measures of interest in public affairs television, which turned out to be a positive predictor for civic knowledge and participation (Torney et al., 1975). An item on political interest was used in the CIVED survey (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). Similar to earlier findings, CIVED results also showed interest in politics as a positive predictor of civic knowledge and likelihood to vote (Amadeo et al., 2002). ICCS uses a list of items covering students' interest in a broader range of six different political and social issues. An additional item, optional for European countries and referring to interest in European politics, is also included.

Self-concept regarding political participation (political internal efficacy): This construct refers to students' self-concept regarding political involvement and relates to Content Domain 3 (civic participation). The broader concept of political efficacy has played a prominent role in studies on political behavior and political socialization. Political efficacy is the "feeling that political and social change is possible and that the individual citizen can play a part in bringing about this change" (Campbell, Gurin, & Miller, 1954, p. 187). Analyses of items typically used to measure political efficacy reveal a two-dimensional structure of political efficacy, where internal efficacy can be defined as individuals' confidence in their ability to understand politics and to act politically, whereas external efficacy constitutes individuals' beliefs in the responsiveness of the political system (see Balch, 1974; Converse, 1972).

The CIVED survey used three items measuring internal political efficacy, which was positively associated with indicators of civic engagement (see Schulz, 2005). In ICCS, the three CIVED items are complemented with three additional items.

Citizenship self-efficacy: This construct reflects students' self-confidence in active citizenship behavior and relates primarily to Content Domain 3 (civic participation). Individuals' "judgements of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain



designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391) are deemed to have a strong influence on individual choices, efforts, perseverance, and emotions related to the tasks. The concept of self-efficacy constitutes an important element of Bandura's (1993) *social cognitive theory* xabout the learning process, which advocates that learners direct their own learning.

The distinction between self-concept regarding political participation (political internal efficacy) and citizenship self-efficacy is as follows: whereas internal political efficacy considers global statements regarding students' general capacity to act politically, citizenship self-efficacy considers students' self-confidence to undertake specific tasks in the area of civic participation. ICCS includes seven items reflecting different participation activities.

#### Students' attitudes toward rights and responsibilities

The following constructs reflect students' attitudes toward rights and responsibilities and are relevant with regard to civics and citizenship.

Attitudes toward gender rights: This construct reflects student beliefs about rights for different gender groups in society. It relates to Content Domain 2 (civic principles). The first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971 included four items measuring support for women's political rights. The CIVED survey used a set of six items to capture students' attitudes toward women's political rights (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). ICCS includes seven items on gender rights, some of them identical with or similar to those used in CIVED.

Attitudes toward the rights of ethnic/racial groups: This construct reflects students' beliefs about rights for different ethnic/racial groups in society. It relates primarily to Content Domain 2 (civic principles) and is measured with five items. Four of these items were present in the CIVED survey but the results were not included in the international report (Schulz, 2004).

Attitudes toward the rights of immigrants: This construct reflects students' beliefs about rights for immigrants and it relates to Content Domain 2 (civic principles). CIVED measured this construct with eight items, five of which were included in a scale reflecting attitudes toward immigrants (Schulz, 2004; Torney-Purta et al., 2001). ICCS includes a slightly modified version of the same five items used for scaling, together with one additional item.

#### Students' attitudes toward institutions

The following constructs reflect students' attitudes toward institutions and are deemed important for civic and citizenship education.

Trust in institutions: This construct reflects students' feelings of trust in a variety of state and civic institutions in society, and relates mainly to Content Domain 1 (civic society and systems). The first IEA Civic Education Study (1971) included one item on trust in government (Torney et al., 1975). CIVED used a set of 12 items covering political/civic institutions, media, the United Nations, schools, and people in general. ICCS uses a similar range of 11 core items in modified format together with three optional items on European institutions and state/provincial institutions.

Confidence in student participation at school: This construct reflects students' beliefs regarding the usefulness of becoming actively involved at school. Adolescents are generally not able to vote or stand for office in "adult politics," but they experiment as students to determine what degree of power they have to influence the ways schools are run (Bandura, 1997, p. 491). CIVED included seven items asking about students' perceptions of their influence at school. Four of these questions focused on general confidence in school participation (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). ICCS uses a set of four (partly modified) CIVED items and one additional item reflecting student attitudes toward student participation at school. The construct relates to Content Domain 3 (civic participation).



Attitudes toward one's nation: This construct reflects students' attitudes toward abstract concepts of nation. One can distinguish different forms of national attachment (symbolic, constructive, uncritical patriotism, nationalism). These are different from feelings of national identity (Huddy & Khatib, 2007).

The CIVED survey included 12 items reflecting students' attitudes toward their respective countries. Four of these items were used to measure "positive attitudes toward one's nation" (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). ICCS uses a set of eight items (four of them from CIVED) to measure students' attitudes toward the country they live in and to cover students' symbolic patriotism and uncritical patriotism. Two of these items relate to the concept of national pride (Huddy & Khatib, 2007) but avoid the use of the term "pride" and focus instead on students' perceptions of satisfaction with different aspects (political system and respect for the environment) of their respective countries. The construct relates mainly to Content Domain 4 (civic identities).

Attitudes toward religion: Religion is sometimes viewed as an important catalyst of civic participation (see Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). ICCS uses a set of six items to assess students' attitudes toward religion. This construct relates mainly to Content Domain 4 (civic identities). The set of items forms part of an international option on religious denomination, practices, and attitudes toward religion.

#### Affective-behavioral Domain 3: Behavioral intentions

Behavioral intentions refers to student expectations of future civic action. This affective-behavioral domain, assessed in the student perceptions questionnaire, contains items that ask students about their intentions toward civic action in the near future or when they are adults. Given the age group surveyed in ICCS and the limitations for 14-year-olds to participate as active citizens, behavioral intentions are of particular importance when collecting data about active citizenship.

One important aspect of measuring behavioral intentions in the area of civics and citizenship is political participation. This aspect can be defined as "activity that has the intent or effect of influencing government action—either directly by affecting the making or implementation of public policy or indirectly by influencing the selection of people who make those policies" (Verba et al., 1995, p. 38).

During the 1970s and 1980s, protest behavior as a form of participation became more prominent in Western democracies (Barnes et al., 1997). Scholars have distinguished "conventional" (voting, running for office) from "unconventional" (social movement) activities (grassroots campaigns, protest activities). They have also distinguished, among the latter, legal from illegal forms of behavior (Kaase, 1990).

Verba et al. (1995) identify the following three factors as predictors of political participation: (a) resources that enable individuals to participate (time, knowledge); (b) psychological engagement (interest, efficacy); and (c) "recruitment networks," which help to bring individuals into politics (these networks include social movements, church groups, and political parties).

The CIVED survey included 12 items measuring expected participation (voting, active, conventional, unconventional, protest). ICCS has developed a broader set of items that cover a wider range of behavioral intentions related to the following constructs or sets of constructs:

- Preparedness to participate in forms of civic protest
- Behavioral intentions regarding future political participation as adults
- Behavioral intentions regarding future participation in citizenship activities.



#### Preparedness to participate in forms of civic protest

This set of nine items reflects students' beliefs about future involvement in protest activities (for example, collecting petitions, participating in protest marches, blocking traffic). It relates to Content Domain 3 (civic participation). The items relate to two different dimensions of protest behavior—legal and illegal.

#### Behavioral intentions regarding future political participation as adults

This set of seven core and two optional items reflects two different constructs (voting-related participation, political activities) that were measured in CIVED. The set of items reflects students' beliefs about future political participation as an adult (for example, voting in elections, active campaigning, joining a party, becoming a candidate) and relates mainly to Content Domain 3 (civic participation).

#### Behavioral intentions regarding future participation in citizenship activities

This construct was also included in the CIVED student questionnaire, and it relates mainly to Content Domain 3 (civic participation). It reflects students' beliefs about their future participation in citizenship activities (for example, volunteer work, opinion leadership, writing letters to newspapers), and is measured with a set of five items in the ICCS assessment.

#### Affective-behavioral Domain 4: Behaviors

Civic-related behavior is limited for 14-year-old students, and many activities for citizens are not available at this age. However, several civic-related behaviors can occur among 14-year-olds, and the aim is to capture these through the student questionnaire.

The IEA CIVED survey used a wide range of participation forms both inside and outside of school. Reported student participation in a school council or in a student parliament turned out to be a positive predictor of civic knowledge and engagement (Torney-Purta et al., 2001; Amadeo et al., 2002). Participation in political youth organizations had a positive effect on feelings of political efficacy (Schulz, 2005). From their analysis of NAEP data, Niemi and Junn (1998) found that participation in role-playing elections or mock trials related positively to civic knowledge.

The ICCS student questionnaire collects data on students' involvement in

- Civic-related activities in the community
- Civic-related activities at school.

#### Involvement in civic-related activities in the community

Students are asked about current or past participation in organizations such as human-rights groups, religious associations, and/or youth clubs. The underlying construct relates mainly to Content Domain 3 (civic participation) but is also a relevant contextual variable, as described in the contextual framework.

#### Involvement in civic-related activities at school

The ICCS student questionnaire includes questions about a wide range of civic-related participation at school (for example, in school councils/parliaments, in student debates). The underlying construct relates primarily to Content Domain 3 (civic participation) and is also relevant as a contextual variable, as described in the contextual framework.



#### Civic and citizenship cognitive domains

To respond correctly to the ICCS cognitive test items, students need to know the core set of civic and citizenship content being assessed. Students also need to be able to apply more complex cognitive processing to their civic and citizenship knowledge and to relate their knowledge and understandings to real-world civic action.

The two ICCS cognitive domains comprise the cognitive processes that students are expected to demonstrate in the ICCS cognitive test. The data derived from the test items constructed to represent the processes in the cognitive domains will be used to construct a global scale of civic and citizenship knowledge and understandings of the four content domains. The first cognitive domain, *knowing*, outlines the types of civic and citizenship information that students are required to demonstrate knowledge of. The second domain, *reasoning and analyzing*, details the cognitive processes that students require to reach conclusions. These processes are broader than the contents of any single piece of knowledge, and include the processes involved in understanding complex sets of factors influencing civic actions and in planning for and evaluating strategic solutions and outcomes.

#### Cognitive Domain 1: Knowing

Knowing refers to the learned civic and citizenship information that students use when engaging in the more complex cognitive tasks that help them make sense of their civic worlds. Students are expected to recall or recognize definitions, descriptions, and the key properties of civic and citizenship concepts and content, and to illustrate these with examples. Because ICCS is an international study, the concrete and abstract concepts students are expected to know in the core cognitive assessment are those that can be generalized across societies. There is scope in the regional modules (where applicable) to target regionally specific knowledge.

#### **Processes**

Define	Identify statements that define civic and citizenship concepts and content.
Describe	Identify statements that describe the key characteristics of civic and citizenship concepts and content.
Illustrate with examples	Identify examples that support or clarify statements about civic and citizenship concepts and content.

#### Cognitive Domain 2: Reasoning and analyzing

Reasoning and analyzing refers to the ways in which students use civic and citizenship information to reach conclusions that are broader than the contents of any single concept. Reasoning extends from the direct application of knowledge and understanding to reach conclusions about familiar concrete situations through to the selection and assimilation of knowledge and understanding of multiple concepts. These outcomes are then used to reach conclusions about complex, multifaceted, unfamiliar, and abstract situations.



#### **Processes**

Interpret information Identify statements about information presented in textual, graphical, and/or tabular form that make sense of the information within the context of a civic and citizenship concept. Relate Use the key defining aspects of a civic and citizenship concept to explain or recognize how an example illustrates a concept. Justify Use evidence and civic and citizenship concepts to construct or recognize a reasoned argument to support a point of view. Identify connections between different concepts across themes and Integrate across civic and citizenship content domains. Generalize Identify civic and citizenship conceptual principles manifested as specific examples and explain how these may apply in other civic and citizenship contexts. Evaluate Identify judgments about the advantages and disadvantages of alternative points of view or approaches to civic and citizenship concepts and actions. Solve problems Identify courses of action or thought that can be used to alleviate civic and citizenship problems expressed as conflict, tension, and/or unresolved or contested ideas. Hypothesize Predict and support with evidence the effects and outcomes of civic and citizenship policies, strategies, and/or actions. Understand civic Identify the factors that motivate individuals or groups to engage in motivation civic action. Understand civic Identify and explain the factors and processes that lead to change in the substance and structure of civic and citizenship concepts and change

#### Mapping items to domains

The content domains relate to both cognitive and affective-behavioral domains. Any items that measure one of the two cognitive domains can be mapped to any of the four content domains. The same is true for items measuring any of the affective-behavioral constructs. Table 1 shows how items can be placed in different cells and mapped to either cognitive or affective-behavioral domains as well as to content domains.

Cognitive items from both domains (*knowing* and *reasoning and analyzing*) and affective-behavioral items from two domains (*value beliefs* and *attitudes*) were developed in the contexts of all four content domains. Because these mappings are guided by the compatibility of each content domain to the different affective-behavioral and cognitive domains, they do not necessarily spread evenly across the content domains. Items developed to measure behavioral intentions or actual behaviors are only related to Content Domain 3.



Table 1: Relationship between cognitive or affective-behavioral and content domains

	Content Domain 1: Civic society and systems	Content Domain 2: Civic principles	Content Domain 3: Civic participation	Content Domain 4: Civic identities
Cognitive Domains				
Knowing	I	II	Ш	IV
Analyzing and reasoning	V	VI	VII	VIII
Affective- behavioral Domains				
Value beliefs	А	В	С	D
Attitudes	E	F	G	Н
Behavioral intentions			I	
Behaviors			J	

The following examples illustrate the mapping of items to domains:

- A cognitive item that measures student knowledge about the role of parliament is located in cell I (Cognitive Domain: Knowing; Content Domain 1: Civic society and systems).
- A cognitive item measuring student ability to identify the underlying reason for a civic protest is found in cell VII (Cognitive Domain: Analyzing and reasoning; Content Domain 3: Civic participation).
- An affective-behavioral item asking about students' agreement that everyone should have the right to express his or her opinions freely appears in cell B (value belief related to Content Domain 2: Civic principles).
- An affective-behavioral item asking about students' trust in parliament is located in cell E (attitude related to Content Domain 1: Civic society and systems).
- An affective-behavioral item asking about students' expectation to participate in a peaceful protest march is located in cell I (behavioral intention related to Content Domain 3: Civic participation).
- An affective-behavioral item asking about students' past voting in a school election appears in cell J (behavior related to Content Domain 3: Civic participation).



## **Contextual Framework**

#### Classification of contextual factors

A study of civic-related learning outcomes and indicators of civic engagement needs to be set in the context of the different factors influencing them. Young people develop their understandings about their roles as citizens in contemporary societies through a number of activities and experiences that take place within the contexts of home, school, classrooms, and the wider community.

It is therefore important to recognize that young people's knowledge, competencies, dispositions, and self-beliefs are influenced by variables that can be located at different levels in a multi-level structure (see a similar conceptual view in Scheerens, 1990). The individual student is located within overlapping contexts of school and home. Both contexts form part of the local community that, in turn, is embedded in the wider sub-national, national, and international contexts. The contextual framework for ICCS distinguishes the following levels:

- Context of the wider community: This level comprises the wider context within which schools
  and home environments work. Factors can be found at local, regional, and national levels.
  For some countries, the supra-national level might also be relevant as, for example, in
  member countries of the European Union.
- *Context of schools and classrooms:* This level comprises factors related to the instruction students receive, the school culture, and the general school environment.<sup>5</sup>
- Context of home environments: This level comprises factors related to the home background and the social out-of-school environment of the student (for example, peer-group activities).
- Context of the individual: This level includes the individual characteristics of the student.

Another important distinction can be made by grouping contextual factors according to those related to either antecedents or processes:

- Antecedents are those factors that affect how student learning and acquisition of civic-related understandings and perceptions take place. Note that these factors are level-specific and may be influenced by antecedents or processes at a higher level. For example, civic-related training of teachers may be affected by historical factors and/or policies implemented at the national level.
- Processes are those factors related to civic-related learning and the acquisition of
  understandings, competencies, and dispositions. They are constrained by antecedents and
  influenced by factors relating to the higher levels of the multi-level structure.

Antecedents and processes are factors that shape the outcomes at the level of the individual student. Learning outcomes related to civic and citizenship education at the student level also can be viewed as aggregates at higher levels (school, country) where they can affect factors related to process. For example, higher levels of civic understanding and engagement among students can influence the way schools teach civic and citizenship education.

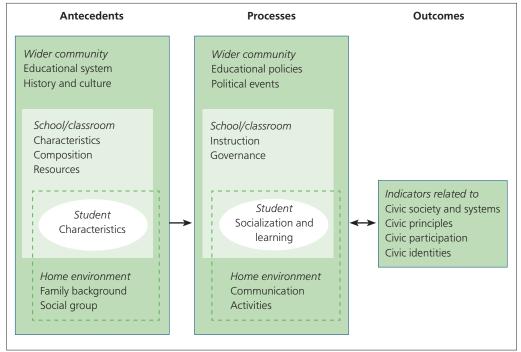
Figure 3 illustrates which contextual factors might influence the learning outcomes of civic and citizenship education. The (double-headed) arrow between processes and outcomes signals a reciprocal relationship. It is important to emphasize that "feedback" occurs between civic-related learning outcomes and processes. For example, students with higher levels of civic knowledge and engagement are those students most likely to participate in activities (at school, at home, and within the community) that promote these outcomes.



<sup>5</sup> Because of the sampling design for ICCS, school level and classroom level cannot be disentangled. Generally, only one classroom is selected within each sampled school.

The (single-headed) arrow between antecedents and processes describes the relationship between these two types of factors at each level as uni-directional. However, higher-level processes can influence antecedents, and it is likely that, from a long-term perspective, outcomes may affect variables that are antecedents for learning processes.

Figure 3: Contexts for the development of learning outcomes related to civics and citizenship



This general contextual framework for ICCS makes it possible to map variables for which data are collected on a three-by-four grid, with antecedents, processes, and outcomes as columns, and the levels of nation/community, school/classroom, student, and home environment as rows. Although the last column for outcomes is not split into levels, it is important to recognize that, for the analysis, aggregates can also be used at country and school/classroom levels.<sup>6</sup>

Table 2 maps examples of potential variables (or groups of variables) collected with different ICCS instruments to each cell in this grid. Variables related to the context of nation/community are collected primarily through the national context survey and other possible data sources. Variables related to the context of schools and classrooms are collected through the school and teacher questionnaires. The student background questionnaire provides information on antecedents of the individual student and the home environment. It also provides information about process-related variables (for example, learning activities). The student test and the student perceptions questionnaire collect data on outcomes. In addition, the student background questionnaire includes questions regarding student participation in civic-related activities, which are also used as indicators of active citizenship related to Content Domain 3 (civic participation).

Some potential variables that can be measured at one level pertaining to another level are not included in the mapping. Student observations of learning practices in the classroom can be aggregated and used as classroom or school variables. Student, school, and teacher questionnaires might also provide civic-related information about the context of the local community.



<sup>6</sup> Note that similar conceptualizations have been used for the planning of other international studies (see, for example, Harvey-Beavis, 2002; OECD, 2005; Travers, Garden, & Rosier, 1989; Travers & Westbury, 1989).

Table 2: Mapping of variables to contextual framework (examples)

Level of	Antecedents	Processes	Outcomes	
National and other communities	NCS & other sources: Democratic history Structure of education	NCS & other sources: Intended curriculum Political developments		
School/classroom	ScQ & TQ: School characteristics Resources	ScQ & TQ: Implemented curriculum Policies and practices	StT & StQ: Test results Student perceptions	
Student	StQ: Gender Age	StQ: Learning activities Practiced engagement	Student behaviors	
Home environment	StQ: Parent SES Ethnicity Language Country of birth	StQ: Communication Peer-group activities		

Note: NCS = national context survey; ScQ = school questionnaire; TQ = teacher questionnaire; StQ = student questionnaire; StT = student test; SES = socioeconomic status.

#### Contextual levels and variables

#### The context of the wider community

The context of the wider community consists of different levels. The first is the local community in which are sited students' schools and home environments. The second is the broader realm of regional, national, and possibly supra-national contexts within which students' schools and homes are embedded. The most relevant levels for ICCS are the national and the community contexts.

#### National context survey data on the context of the education system

The ways students develop civic-related dispositions and competencies and acquire understandings with regard to their role as citizens are strongly influenced by variables found at the country level. Historical background, the political system, the structure of education, and the curriculum need to be taken into account when interpreting results from an international assessment of civic and citizenship education.

The national context survey is designed to systematically collect relevant data on the structure of the education system, education policy and civic and citizenship education, teacher qualifications for civic and citizenship education, and the extent of current debates and reforms in this area. The survey also collects process data at the national level regarding assessment of and quality assurance in civic and citizenship education and in school curriculum approaches.

Data from the national context survey are useful for comparing profiles of civic and citizenship education in participating countries. In addition, the survey provides data on contextual factors that help inform analysis of differences among countries in student knowledge of and engagement in civic and citizenship education.

The structure of the education system: Although a number of global trends in education have led to similarities in policies and structures (Benavot et al., 1991), the differences between education systems continue to have a considerable effect on the outcomes of education (Baker & LeTendre, 2005).



To capture these basic differences, the national context survey collects data on length of schooling, structure of school education (study programs, public/private management), and autonomy of educational providers.

Education policy and civic and citizenship education: Results from the IEA CIVED survey (Torney-Purta et al., 1999) showed that the status of and priority given to civic and citizenship education were generally low across countries. Even though civic goals were deemed important, their place in the curricula was often not well defined, with civic education typically integrated into different subjects. This situation also highlighted the fact that explicit civic and citizenship education rarely begins before students reach age 14.

The national context survey therefore collects data on the definition of, and the priority given to, civic and citizenship education in the educational policy and provision of each country, the place of civic and citizenship education in educational reforms, and the main aims and goals of civic and citizenship education. The survey also asks about the inclusion of specific contexts with regard to whole-school approaches, school curriculum approaches, links to the wider community in the national or official definition of civic and citizenship education, and the influence of different institutions or groups on decisions about the goals and aims of civic and citizenship education.

Approaches to civic and citizenship education: One important aspect of the study is its investigation of the extent to which schools in different countries provide support for civic and citizenship education through school culture or ethos, democratic school governance, and the establishment of links with the wider community (Birzea et al., 2004). Educational policies, for example, may include recommendations with regard to the establishment of democratic school practices.

The national context survey provides country-level data on mandatory or non-mandatory recommendations as well as pilot projects or programs concerned with school governance, school culture, student participation, parental involvement, and school—community links. It also asks these official sources the extent to which they see these aspects as contributing to civic and citizenship education.

Civic and citizenship education and school curriculum approaches: Countries take different approaches to the implementation of civic and citizenship education in their curricula (Cox et al., 2005; Eurydice, 2005). Some education systems include civic and citizenship education in the national curriculum as a compulsory or optional (stand-alone) subject whereas others include it as an integral part of other subjects. An alternative approach to civic and citizenship education is to implement it as a cross-curricular theme.

The national context survey gathers data on the inclusion of civic and citizenship education (as a separate subject, or integrated into different subjects, or as a cross-curricular approach) in the formal curriculum at different stages of schooling and in different study programs. The survey also captures the names of specific curriculum subjects and whether they are compulsory or optional in each study program.

Because the ICCS surveys students at a specific target grade in lower secondary programs (typically Grade 8), the national context survey includes specific questions relative to this grade. The questions concern the common or differentiated curriculum, the main goals of civic and citizenship education at this grade, and the extent to which these goals are influenced by different institutions and groups. The survey also gathers data on the emphasis the curriculum places on teaching different processes (for example, knowing basic facts or understanding key concepts) and student learning of specific topics. It furthermore asks about the use of different methods for implementing the curriculum (for example, through instructional or pedagogical guides) and the amount of instructional time given to civic and citizenship education and the amount and type of information given to parents about this area of education.



Teachers and civic and citizenship education: The teacher survey undertaken as part of the CIVED survey showed considerable diversity in the subject-matter background, professional development, and work experience of teachers involved in civic and citizenship education (Losito & Mintrop, 2001). With regard to teacher training in this field, research showed a rather limited and inconsistent approach to in-service training and professional development (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005).

To assess the variety of different approaches to teacher education in the field at the level of education systems, the national context survey gathers general data about the requirements for becoming a teacher and about licensing or certification procedures for teachers. More specifically, the survey gathers data about the background of civic and citizenship teachers. It provides information on the extent to which civic and citizenship education is part of preservice or initial teacher education, on the availability of in-service or continuing professional development education for civic and citizenship education, on the providers of these activities, and on expectations relating to how teachers learn about changes in the curriculum.

Civic and citizenship education and assessment and quality assurance: Comparisons of assessment and quality assurance for civic and citizenship education are difficult and complex due to the diversity of approaches to teaching this subject area across countries. In particular, research in Europe shows that, in most countries, and compared to other subject areas, monitoring and quality assurance in civic and citizenship education are often unconnected and carried out on a smaller scale (Birzea et al., 2004). However, over the last decade, some countries have started to implement nationwide assessments, such as CIVED (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

The national context survey includes questions about the assessment of student knowledge in civic and citizenship education at the lower secondary level, how implementation of this subject area is evaluated, and how parents are informed about current approaches to this field of learning.

Current debates and reforms: The last decade has witnessed numerous examples of educational reforms in many countries, with the overall aim of improving educational provision and outcomes, including those concerning civic and citizenship education. Many of these educational reforms were implemented in response to the challenges of learning and living in modern societies and because of changes in respective political systems (Cox et al., 2005; Torney-Purta et al., 1999).

The national context survey assesses whether civic and citizenship education is a focus of current debates in the country, the nature of such debates, and the general level of interest in this area. It also gathers information on current revisions of the curriculum for students at the target grade and any revisions of school approaches to civic and citizenship education. It additionally collects information about possible educational reforms that may affect the way this subject area is taught in schools.

Data from other sources: Data from official statistics will provide complementary context data at the level of countries regarding the structure of the education system, the nature of the political system, and the economic and social context of the society.



#### School questionnaire data on the context of the local community

The community characteristics in which schools and homes are situated vary in their economic, cultural, and social resources, and in their organizational features. Inclusive communities that value community relations and facilitate active citizen engagement, especially if they are well resourced, can offer much to schools and individuals in terms of civic and citizenship opportunities for partnerships and involvement. The capacity and the interest of a community to engage with its young people can have a strong bearing on young people's civic and citizenship knowledge, dispositions, and competencies in relation to their roles as citizens.

ICCS uses the school questionnaire to gather data on the contexts and characteristics of the local community. Variables pertaining to the community level include urbanization (antecedent), resources for citizenship learning in the local area (antecedent), and the existence of civic-related activities to promote civic engagement in the context of the local community (process).

*Urbanization:* ICCS collects data about the size of the community in which the school is located in order to understand if, and to what extent, the level of urbanization (measured in terms of number of inhabitants) influences the quantity and the quality of the resources available for both schools and students at the community level.

Resources for citizenship learning in the local area: Differences in quantity and quality of resources for citizenship learning available in the local area may have a dual effect. On the one hand, they may favor the organization of community-oriented projects (such as environmental education projects) and student participation in projects requiring the development of activities involving the community, both of which can contribute to developing skills and competencies related to civic and citizenship education. On the other hand, community participation in the life of the school and in its various levels can be a factor of greater openness and democratization of the school itself.

The model adopted in CIVED recognized the importance of students' daily lives in their social, civic, and political contexts (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). The links between the school and its community represent an opportunity for motivating student participation in activities related to civic and citizenship education and for offering them real opportunities for exercising the skills and competencies necessary for a conscious democratic civic engagement.

Furthermore, the level of resources may influence the possibilities for the provision of local support to schools. Local support can be very important for effective school improvement (Reezigt & Creemers, 2005). National support sets the background for improvement whereas local support can influence the efforts of schools more directly. Local support includes the wider community of the school, the parents of school students, district officials, school administrators, and school boards.

School interactions with their local communities, and the links that have been established with other civic-related and political institutions, can also influence student perceptions of their relationship with the wider community and of the different roles they may play in it.

The ICCS school questionnaire includes a set of items asking principals about cultural and social resources existing at the local community level (such as libraries, museums, and theatres, as well as playgrounds and sports facilities).

Existence of community activities to promote civic engagement: The characteristics of the community in which the school operates can influence the development of effective civic and citizenship education. The presence of associations enabling the active exercising of student civic engagement and participation is an important factor of possible continuity or discontinuity in the students' experiences in this field, both inside and outside school.



The ICCS school questionnaire asks principals about the opportunities students have to participate in citizenship-related activities at the community level.

Existence of social tensions in the community: Because the school is part of the community within which it is located, it may be affected by issues and problems existing at the community level. Issues of social tension within the local community can influence students' social relationships and the quality of their social lives and everyday experiences, both inside and outside the school.

The ICCS school questionnaire collects data related to principals' perceptions of those issues and the impact these issues have on school life.

## Teacher questionnaire data on the context of the local community

The teacher questionnaire collects data on teacher/student participation in civic-related activities in the local community and teachers' personal participation in groups or organizations in the local community.

Teacher/student participation in civic-related activities in the local community: The teacher questionnaire includes a set of items asking teachers about students' and their own commitment to constructing relationships between the school and its community. Items refer to teachers' participation in projects envisaging co-operation between schools and communities and to teachers' direct participation in activities related to civic and citizenship education.

Two different constructs are investigated: teacher/student participation in civic-related activities organized by the school in the local community and teachers' personal participation in citizenship activities in the local community.

Similar items are included in the school and in the student questionnaires. The teachers' answers on student engagement in activities related to civic and citizenship education outside the school will be analyzed in relation to the principals' and the students' answers in order to compare their reports.

# The context of schools and classrooms

It is important, when conducting a study of civic and citizenship education, to take school contexts and characteristics into account because these influence the development of young people's knowledge about civics and citizenship, and their dispositions and competencies in relation to their roles as citizens. Predominant amongst these is the school's general ethos, culture, and climate within which the policies concerning both the formal and the informal civic and citizenship curriculum develop.

Students' learning experiences that contribute to their civic and citizenship understandings include classroom organization and management, classroom and cross-curricular activities and projects, and the resources, materials, and technologies employed in the teaching and assessment processes undertaken. The relationships among students and between teacher and students are other important aspects of the school context. These relationships are influenced by the school's decisionmaking processes and the opportunities for participation in formal and informal governance processes.

## School questionnaire data on the context of schools and classrooms

The school questionnaires include items seeking information on important antecedent variables at the school level, such as principals' characteristics and school characteristics and resources. It also asks about process-related variables concerning school management, school climate, teacher, parent, and student participation at school, and the implementation of civic and citizenship education at school.



School characteristics and resources: School resources consist of both material and human resources, and there is strong debate on the extent to which school resources can contribute to school development and improvement (Hanushek, 1994, 1997). Beyond the quality of teachers, there is evidence that teacher density—as measured by the students to teacher ratio—is associated with some student outcomes (McNeal, 1997).

The ICCS school questionnaire includes items asking about the demographic characteristics of schools (Anderson, Ryan, & Shapiro, 1989). These characteristics are associated with the variables usually included in a description of a school. The questionnaire also includes a few questions asking for fundamental information, notably the type of school (public/private), students' enrolment, and number of teachers.

School management: Schools differ within and across countries with reference to the degree of autonomy in defining their own educational policies in terms of their management in the narrowest sense (school governance, financing, teaching and non-teaching staff) and their organization of curricular and teaching and learning activities (curricular contents, cross-curricular activities, choice of textbooks, assessment and evaluation) (Eurydice, 2007). Individual schools' degree of autonomy is a factor affecting the possibility of establishing specific courses and activities (both curricular and extra-curricular ones) linked to civic and citizenship education. A broader degree of autonomy can give greater opportunities for the effective participation within democratic school governance of not only teachers and students but also of administrative staff, parents, and the community as a whole. The school improvement literature shows that at least some autonomy favors the success of improvement efforts (Reezigt & Creemers, 2005).

The questions included in the school questionnaire investigate the level of schools' autonomy in management and in educational planning. Opportunity to organize specific courses, projects, curricular and extra-curricular activities, to choose textbooks, and to define criteria and procedures for assessment, evaluation, and self-evaluation all contribute to characterizing the school educational plan as one that is more or less consistent with the development of effective civic and citizenship education. Furthermore, the existence of national legislation and regulations and of standards concerning the results that students should achieve, can act, within different school systems, as a resource or a constraint for the development of activities related to civic and citizenship education.

The principals' answers to the questionnaire items also give insight into the extent to which a school has autonomy to determine its own educational planning and educational activities and how these relate to the construction of an open and democratic school culture. These responses furthermore show the extent to which the organization of decisionmaking processes influences the participation of teachers, parents, and students in the running of the school.

Teacher, parent, and student participation at school: Participative governance practices help characterize schools as democratic learning environments. Allowing for the participation of teachers and parents assists each school to understand the variety of student learning needs and to secure teachers' and parents' commitment to supporting school educational activities (Ranson, Farrell, Peim, & Smith, 2005).

Students' participation in the running of the school helps to build a democratic school environment and to give students opportunity to develop skills and attitudes related to civic and citizenship education. CIVED showed that students' participation in school councils and student parliaments related positively to students' civic knowledge and engagement (Losito & D'Apice, 2003; Torney-Purta et al., 2001).



The ICCS school questionnaire includes a set of items asking about students' participation in class/school representative elections, as well as about teachers' and parents' participation in the running of the school.

School climate: This construct refers to "the shared beliefs—the relations between individuals and groups in the organization, the physical surroundings, and the characteristics of individuals and groups participating in the organization" (Van Houtte, 2005, p. 85). In a civic and citizenship education context, school climate can be referred to as the "impressions, beliefs, and expectations held by members of the school community about their school as a learning environment, their associated behavior, and the symbols and institutions that represent the patterned expressions of the behavior" (Homana, Barber, & Torney-Purta, 2005, p. 3).

A variety of learning situations can affect civic and citizenship education at schools. These include leadership and management, everyday activities within the school, and the quality of relationships inside the school itself and between the school and the outside community. The students' daily experience in school is a factor that strongly influences students' perception of school as a democratic environment. The possibility of establishing and experiencing relationships and behaviors based on openness, mutual respect, and respect for diversity, as well as the possibility of giving and asserting one's own opinion and points of view, allow students to practice a democratic lifestyle, to begin exercising their own autonomy, and to develop a sense of self-efficacy.

School climate also relates to the school culture and ethos that contribute to define the school as a social organization as well to distinguish each individual school from others (Stoll, 1999). School culture refers to patterns of meaning that include norms, beliefs, and traditions shared by the members of the school community and that contribute to shaping their thinking and the way they act (Stolp, 1994).

School climate and culture contribute to the development among students, teachers, and non-teaching staff of a sense of belonging to the school, thereby enhancing the commitment and motivation that these groups have toward improving school educational activities. School staff must feel motivated and committed to developing school activities if these are to be successful (Reezigt & Creemers, 2005).

The ICCS school questionnaire includes a set of items asking about the extent to which teachers, students, and non-teaching staff numbers feel a sense of belonging to the school.

Implementation of civic and citizenship education: The CIVED teacher questionnaire included a set of items relating to the implementation of civic education at the school level. The ICCS school questionnaire includes a set of items that focus on how civic and citizenship education is delivered at the school level, the principals' perceptions of the importance of the aims of this area of education, and how specific responsibilities for civic and citizenship education are assigned within the school.

Data from the school instrument are used to look at the actual implementation of civic and citizenship education at the level of schools in order to compare the development and implementation of this area of education at the national level. The data also provide information about the relationships between the intended curriculum and the implemented curriculum.

## Teacher questionnaire data on the context of schools and classrooms

The teacher questionnaire aims to gather information about teacher characteristics, teachers' participation in school governance, teachers' views of student influence on school-based decisions, teachers' confidence in teaching methods, teachers' perception of school climate, teaching practices in the classroom, and teachers' perception of classroom climate and



discipline. In addition, one optional section includes questions for teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education. These questions ask teachers for their views on civic and citizenship education at school and on practices used to teach this subject area at school.

Teacher characteristics: The ICCS teacher questionnaire includes a set of items asking about teachers' demographic variables (gender, age) and work experience (in general and also their experience inside their current school). The number of years of teaching inside the current school and the holding of specific positions and responsibilities are factors that may influence how teachers consider their own relationship with the school, their sense of belonging to it, and the extent to which they are willing to take an active part in their school community. These factors are therefore ones that contribute to the openness of the school climate. Variables related to the teachers' work experience are subject/s taught in the target grade, years of teaching, years of teaching in the (current) school, and specific positions/responsibilities within the school (head teacher, coordinator of subject areas, department coordinator).

Teachers' participation in school governance: The ICCS teacher questionnaire includes a set of items asking about teachers' participation in school governance. The items refer to teacher participation in school representative bodies, to their willingness to take on responsibilities besides those of teaching, and to their participation in drafting the school education plans. The questions also ask the teachers about their participation in civic- and citizenship-related activities carried out by the school in the community, and their personal engagement (that is, beyond their teaching) in activities of this type. Teacher participation can be seen as a measure of both the degree of openness of the school management and of teachers' commitment toward and sense of belonging to their respective schools.

Teachers' confidence in teaching methods: The use of teaching and learning methods and classroom management procedures that are primarily learner-centered may contribute to the creation of an open and democratic classroom climate favorable to acquisition of the skills and competencies necessary for active participation and for dealing with situations necessitating problem-solving and conflict resolution. Teachers' confidence in using particular methods and procedures relates to both their professional experience and their learning opportunities during their initial and in-service training. Indications in this regard also emerged in CIVED. When asked about training needs, many of the teachers who participated in this survey expressed their preference for training in content areas (Losito & Mintrop, 2001). However, teachers of some countries indicated, as important, pedagogical training related to leading classroom discussions and fostering an open classroom climate for discussion.

Because the ICCS teacher questionnaire is addressed to teachers of all subjects, the items concerning this construct focus mainly on teachers' general pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1987). The teachers' ability to take on a range of managerial responsibilities within and outside the classroom ("managerial competence") as well as their recognition of and "commitment to the acknowledgement of the dignity of others [that is, 'empathy']" are identified as two of the dimensions that contribute to defining quality in teaching (OECD, 1994, p. 35).

*Teachers' perception of school climate:* The ICCS teacher questionnaire includes a set of items asking about school climate. The items refer to the school as a democratic learning environment and to the contribution of teachers in bringing about a democratic ethos inside the school.

The teachers' answers are analyzed in relation to the answers given by the school principals in the school questionnaire, as well as to students' answers to a similar question in the student questionnaire, in order to compare the different perspectives.



Teaching practices in the classroom: The ICCS teacher questionnaire includes items asking about the use of different teaching approaches, including the use of assessment. The use of teaching methods that focus on individual students and that favor students' active participation in learning activities contributes to the development of a classroom climate that is open and favors the acquisition and exercising of skills and competencies related to civic and citizenship education.

Teachers' perception of classroom climate and discipline: Classroom climate is a general concept, the definitions of which focus mainly on the level of co-operation in teaching and learning activities, fairness of grading, and social support. Democratic classroom climate focuses mainly on the implementation of democratic and liberal values in the classroom (Ehman, 1980; Hahn, 1999). A democratic classroom climate may help students understand the advantages of democratic values and practices and may have a positive effect on their active assimilation (Perliger, Canetti-Nisim, & Pedahzur, 2006).

CIVED results highlighted the importance of classroom climate in civic and citizenship education (Tornet-Purta et al., 2001). With respect to other variables, classroom climate seemed to be one of the factors more directly correlated to student performance and to student willingness to engage in civic-related activities. In further analysis, "open classroom climate" was used as a predictor of the expectation of participating as an informed voter and of expectations of community participation (Torney-Purta & Barber, 2004).

The construction of an open classroom climate presents a challenge for policy development and practice. Students who had high scores on this scale agreed that "students feel free to disagree openly with their teachers about political and social issues" and also that "teachers encourage the discussion of political social issues about which people have different opinions" (Torney-Purta & Barber, 2004, p. 17). Although many teachers across countries agree in principle that such discussions are valuable, not every teacher is sufficiently skilled to guide such a discussion.

The ICCS teacher questionnaire includes a set of items asking teachers about their perception of classroom climate and about students' participation in classroom activities and class discussion.

Teachers' views on civic and citizenship education: The ICCS teacher questionnaire includes a set of items asking teachers how they conceptualize civic and citizenship education, what they see as the objectives of this form of education, and how this subject area is delivered in their schools. Two constructs are assessed: teachers' perception of the aims of civic and citizenship education at school; and teachers' opinion on which people should be responsible for civic and citizenship education at school.

The constructs relate to which, in the teachers' view, are the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (development of knowledge and skill, development of a sense of responsibility toward the environment, one's own opinions and social cohesion, development of active participation). The items included in the ICCS teacher questionnaire derive in part from the CIVED teacher questionnaire.

Citizenship education and teaching practices at school: The ICCS teacher questionnaire includes an international option on civic and citizenship education at school and on the teaching practices adopted for teaching civic and citizenship education. This part of the questionnaire is restricted to teachers of civic- and citizenship-education-related subjects.

Constructs and variables included in the international option relate to the planning of civic and citizenship education, teaching and learning activities in civic and citizenship education, student assessment in civic and citizenship education, teacher confidence in teaching civic- and citizenship-related topics, and possible improvements to civic and citizenship education.

Most of the items for the international option derive from the CIVED teacher questionnaire.



#### Student questionnaire data on the context of schools and classrooms

The student questionnaire includes questions regarding the classroom climate for civic and citizenship education, students' views of their influence on decisionmaking at school, and students' perceptions of school climate.

Classroom climate for civic and citizenship education at school: The CIVED survey included a set of items measuring students' perceptions of what happened in their civic education classes. Six items were used to measure an index of open climate for classroom discussion (see Schulz, 2004) that had earlier been identified as a positive predictor of civic knowledge and students' expectations to vote as an adult (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). The ICCS student questionnaire includes a similar instrument that measures students' perceptions of what happens in their classrooms during discussions of political and social issues.

Perceptions about students' influence on decisionmaking at school: Some scholars argue that more democratic forms of school governance contribute to higher levels of student engagement in school (see, for example, Mosher, Kenny, & Garrod, 1994, p. 83). However, a more recent Swedish study found evidence that student perceptions of direct influence on school or classroom matters are negatively associated with civic knowledge (Almgren, 2006). ICCS includes a set of seven items asking about the extent to which students think they have a direct influence on different types of school matters.

Student perceptions of school climate: School climate is widely regarded as an important factor in explaining student learning outcomes. Scheerens and Bosker (1997, p. 112 ff) view school climate as a synonym for a school culture that manifests a range of variables centered on student engagement, student absenteeism, student conduct and behavior, staff motivation, and the relationships among students, teachers, and the school itself. Homana et al. (2005) emphasize the importance of a positive school climate for engaging students in civic-related learning experiences.

The ICCS student questionnaire includes a set of seven items measuring students' perceptions of school and their perceptions of student—teacher relationships at school.

## The context of the home environment

The home and family contexts and characteristics that can influence the development of young people's knowledge, competencies, behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs in the context of civics and citizenship are considerable. They include peer-group interactions, educational resources in the home, culture, religion, values, language use, the relationship status young people have within their respective families, parental education, incomes and employment levels, access to different kinds of media, the quality of the school—home connections, and the wide range of civic-related opportunities out of school the young people can access.

Research findings often emphasize the role of family background for developing positive attitudes toward engagement by and participation of young people (see, for example, Renshon, 1975). However, the school as an agent competing with the home background has been seen as even more influential (see, for example, Hess & Torney, 1967). Nonetheless, there is a general consensus that family background is an influential variable in the political development of adolescents. The role of socioeconomic background can be seen as influential in providing a more stimulating environment and enhancing the educational attainment and future prospects of adolescents. These factors, in turn, foster political involvement as an individual resource.

Studies of political socialization and participation emphasize the importance of the extent to which families and individuals can access different forms of capital. Bourdieu (1986) sees economic capital as the sources of other forms of capital and distinguishes between human, cultural, and social capital. Whereas *human capital* refers to an individual's skills, knowledge,



and qualifications, *cultural capital* refers to those "widely shared, high-status cultural signals (attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviours) used for social and cultural exclusion" (Lamont & Lareau, 1988, p. 156). *Social capital* is conceptualized as a societal resource that links citizens to one another so that they can achieve goals more effectively (Stolle with Lewis, 2002).

In his study of institutional performance in Italy, Putnam (1993, p. 185) positioned social capital as the "key to making democracy work." His conceptual view built on Coleman's (1988) concept of social capital that is generated by the relational structure of interactions inside and outside the family and which facilitates the success of individuals' actions and also their learning outcomes. According to Putnam (1993), three components of social capital (social trust, social norms, and social networks) form a "virtuous cycle" that provides a context for successful co-operation and participation in a society.

Social capital research uses various groups of different factors, including socioeconomic status, personal networks, memberships in organizations, interpersonal trust, and personal communication (media, discussions). The concept of social capital consequently is often criticized for its lack of clarity and the problems it presents in terms of finding suitable indicators (Woolcock, 2001).

Within the context of ICCS, the concept of social capital is viewed as helpful in that it describes mechanisms that explain why some students have higher levels of civic knowledge and engagement than others. Measures of different aspects of social capital (trust, norms, and social interaction) include attitudinal and background variables. Some variables reflecting social capital are related to the home environment, in particular interactions with parents, peers, and media. Other variables relevant in this context are measures of interpersonal trust and voluntary participation in civic-related organizations (see Civic and Citizenship Framework above).

Variables related to the home environment that are antecedents of student learning and development and are measured through the student background questionnaire include (i) parental socioeconomic status, (ii) cultural and ethnic background, (iii) parental interest in political and social issues, and (iv) family composition. The ICCS student background questionnaire also collects data on process-related variables that reflect social interactions outside of school (for example, discussing political and social issues with parents and peers and accessing media information).

Parental socioeconomic status: Socioeconomic status (SES) is widely regarded as an important explanatory factor that influences learning outcomes in many different and complex ways (Saha, 1997). There is general agreement that SES is represented by income, education, and occupation (Gottfried, 1985; Hauser, 1994) and that using all three variables is better than using only one (White, 1982). However, there is no agreement among researchers on which measures should be used in any one analysis (Entwisle & Astone, 1994; Hauser, 1994). In international studies, the additional caveats imposed on the validity of background measures and the cross-national comparability of family background measures present an ongoing challenge for researchers in this area (see Buchmann, 2002).

The ICCS survey collects three different types of measures through the student background questionnaire:

• Data on *parental occupation* are collected through open-ended student reports on mother's and father's jobs and coded according to the ISCO-88 classification (International Labour

<sup>7</sup> Putnam's view of social capital, however, is narrower and more specific than Coleman's concept. Putnam saw social capital as a collective resource and stated that horizontal interactions tend to foster trust and participation whereas vertical relationships lead to distrust and disengagement (Stolle with Lewis, 2002).

Organisation, 1990), which in turn is scored using the International Socio-economic Index (SEI) of occupational status in order to obtain SES measures (Ganzeboom, de Graaf, & Treiman, 1992).

- Data on parental education are collected through closed questions in which educational levels are defined by the ISCED-97 classifications (UNESCO, 2006) and then adapted to the national context.
- Data on *home literacy environment* are collected through a question about the number of books at home.

Cultural/ethnic background: International studies confirm differences in reading literacy relative not only to language and immigrant status (see, for example, Elley, 1992; Stanat & Christensen, 2006) but also to mathematics literacy (Mullis et al., 2000). Students from immigrant families, especially those recently arrived in a country, tend to lack proficiency in the language of instruction and to be unfamiliar with the cultural norms of the dominant culture. Also, ethnic minorities often have a lower SES, which correlates highly with learning and engagement; there is also evidence that immigrant status and language have a unique impact on student literacy (Lehmann, 1996).

ICCS measures cultural and ethnic family background via the following variables:

- Country of birth (mother, father, and student): This information is used to distinguish "native," "first-generation" (parents born abroad but student born in country), and "immigrant" (parents and student born abroad) students.
- Language of use at home (language of test versus other languages).
- *Student self-reports on ethnicity* (this question is optional for countries).

Parental interest: There is evidence that young people with parents engaging them in discussions about politics and civic issues tend to have higher levels of civic knowledge and engagement (see, for example, Lauglo and Øia, 2006; Richardson, 2003). The ICCS survey asks students to what extent their parents are interested in political and social issues.

Family composition: Family structure represents an important factor of socialization, which may affect learning outcomes. Research in the United States, for example, shows that students from single-parent families perform less well than those from two-parent households. This finding typically has been associated with economic stress and lack of human or social capital in the household (McLanahan & Sandefur, 1994; Seltzer, 1994). However, the effects of single-parent upbringing on learning outcomes are generally considered to be relatively small (for a review, see Marjoribanks, 1997).

ICCS measures family structure by asking students about the composition of their respective households, that is, parents, guardians, siblings, relatives, and/or other persons. (This question is optional for countries.)

Indicators of social interaction: Analysis of CIVED data showed that frequency of political discussions is a positive predictor of both feelings of efficacy and expected participation (see, for example, Richardson, 2003). Similar results were found in a comparative study of lower and upper secondary students in 15 countries that participated in CIVED (Schulz, 2005).

One popular explanation for the waning of civil society in the United States is the negative effect of television viewing (Putnam, 2000), which leads to decreases in interest, sense of efficacy, trust, and participation (see also Gerbner, 1980; Robinson, 1976). However, research shows that media use (in particular for information) is usually positively related to political participation. Norris (2000), for example, found no conclusive evidence from an extensive literature review and findings from a large-scale study for a negative relationship between media



use and political participation. CIVED showed that obtaining information through television news is a positive predictor of civic knowledge and expected participation in elections (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

Researchers suggest that religious affiliation may help to foster political and social engagement (see, for example, Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995) because religious organizations provide networks focused on political recruitment and motivation. However, there is also evidence of negative effects of religious affiliation on democratic citizenship, as reflected in lower levels of political knowledge and feelings of efficacy among strongly religious people (Scheufele et al., 2003). In the case of young people, religious affiliation and participation can be seen as part of the home environment and its influence on civic-related learning.

The following variables reflect students' interactions in the context of the home environment and/or peer-group:

- Participation in discussions about political social issues with parents or peers
- Media information from television, radio, newspapers and/or the internet
- Participation in religious services (optional).

#### The context of the individual student

The extent to which each student develops understandings, competencies, and dispositions can be influenced by a number of characteristics, some of which link to family background. Antecedents at this level, collected through the student questionnaire, include the student characteristics of age, gender, and expected educational qualifications. The student questionnaire also collects process-related factors, such as leisuretime activities and active civic participation at school and in the community.

Age: Research has found that adolescent students' civic knowledge and (at least some forms of) engagement increase with age (Amadeo et al., 2002; Hess & Torney, 1967). However, there is also evidence that students' feelings of trust in the responsiveness of institutions and willingness to engage in conventional forms of active political participation decrease as they near the end of their secondary schooling (Schulz, 2005).

In cross-sectional research based on grade sample data, age tends to be negatively correlated with student performance in general. This association is particularly evident in countries with higher rates of grade repetition. The reason why is that the older students in the class are typically those students who are repeating a grade because of low achievement.

Gender (male, female): The first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971 found considerable gender differences relative to cognitive achievement, with males tending to have the higher civic knowledge scores (Torney et al., 1975). The IEA CIVED survey, however, presented a different picture: whereas in some countries males showed (slightly and not significantly) higher average scores, in other countries females were performing better (although only one country reported the difference as significant). Interestingly, somewhat higher gender differences in favor of males were found in the follow-up study of upper secondary students (Amadeo et al., 2002).

CIVED also showed that gender differences were usually larger with regard to indicators of civic engagement: in most countries, males tended to have higher levels of political interest and expected participation. Gender differences were also important with regard to attitudes toward immigrants' and women's rights (Amadeo et al., 2002; Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

Expected educational level: In the first two IEA studies on civic education, expected years of future education were important predictors of civic knowledge (Amadeo et. al., 2002; Torney et al., 1975; Torney-Purta et al., 2001). This variable reflects individual aspirations. However,



responses can also be influenced by parent or peer expectations and/or, in some education systems, by limitations brought about by students studying in programs that do not give access to university studies.

A shortcoming of asking about years of further education is that students do not necessarily know how long they might take to reach certain qualifications (in particular at the tertiary level). A decision was therefore made to include a modified question in the ICCS survey that asks students about the educational qualifications they expect to attain. The educational qualifications listed in the survey follow the ISCED qualifications (UNESCO, 2006) and are adapted to each country's education system.

Out-of-school activities: CIVED included a few indicators of student activities outside of school. Higher frequencies of students spending time with peers outside their homes were found to be a negative predictor of civic knowledge (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). The ICCS student questionnaire includes a set of items regarding student behavior outside of school. These items include television watching, spending time with peers, and reading for enjoyment.

*Civic participation:* The ICCS student questionnaire collects data on students' involvement in civic-related activities in the community and on their involvement in civic-related activities at school. These variables are described in detail as behavioral constructs in the Civic and Citizenship Framework above.



# **Assessment Design**

## The ICCS instruments

The ICCS instruments collect data relative to outcome as well as contextual variables. Given the specific nature of a study on civic and citizenship education, outcome variables are assessed through cognitive test material and a student questionnaire. Contextual data that explain variation in outcome variables are collected through student, teacher, and school questionnaires as well as through the national context survey.

Table 3 lists the instruments used in ICCS, their approximate administration times, and their respondents. The student assessment instrument consists of two parts: (i) an international core, including the cognitive test and the student questionnaire; and (ii) an optional regional instrument that includes a regional test and a questionnaire.<sup>8</sup>

Three regional modules are available for the countries in Asia, Europe, and Latin America. Student-level instruments have been developed for each module. Regional instruments are administered in the countries participating in these regional modules, but not until the two international core instruments (student test and student questionnaire) have been completed.

Table 3: ICCS instruments

Instrument	Length	Respondent	
International cognitive test	45 min.	Student	
International student questionnaire	40 min.	Student	
Regional module instrument	~30 min.	Student	
Teacher questionnaire	~30 min.	Teacher	
School questionnaire	~30 min.	Principal	
National context survey	30–60 min.	NRC	

Note: NRC = national research coordinator or designate.

Both the international student test and the international student questionnaire include sets of items that were used in the IEA CIVED survey in 1999. A set of 17 non-released CIVED test items will be used to estimate measures of trends for those countries participating in both surveys. The student questionnaire assesses a number of constructs that were also measured in CIVED through use of identical or similar sets of items.

The assessment framework has been central to the process of instrument development because it provides a theoretical underpinning and describes the areas of assessment. It has guided the development of all ICCS instruments and served as a point of reference for the development of instruments for the three regional modules.



<sup>8</sup> The Asian regional instrument consists of a questionnaire only.

# The coverage of framework domains

Table 4 shows the mapping of cognitive and affective-behavioral domains to content domains. It also shows, within each cell, coverage of the cognitive and perceptions items included in the international student test and questionnaire.

Table 4: Coverage of cognitive/affective-behavioral and content domains in the ICCS student survey

	Content domains				
	Civic society and systems	Civic principles	Civic participation	Civic identities	Total
Cognitive domains					
Knowing	15	3	1	0	19
Analyzing and reasoning	17	22	17	5	61
Total	32	25	18	5	80
Affective-behavioral domains					
Value beliefs	12	12	0	0	24
Attitudes	12	18	18	14	62
Behavioral intentions			21		21
Behaviors			14		14
Total	24	30	53	14	121

Note: The table does not include optional student questionnaire items.

The cognitive items from both domains (*knowing* and *reasoning and analyzing*) and the affective-behavioral items from two domains (*value beliefs* and *attitudes*) were developed within the contexts of all four content domains. However, the items are not spread evenly across the cells in the table: most items measuring the cognitive domain *knowing* relate to the content domain *civic society and systems*. The affective-behavioral items measuring value beliefs relate to two of the four content domains only (*civic society and systems* and *civic principles*).

## Item types

The ICCS instruments include a range of different item types in order to assess a diversity of cognitive, affective-behavioral, or contextual aspects.

The cognitive test contains two item types:

- *Multiple-choice (MC):* Each item has four response options, one of which is the correct response and the other three of which are distracters.
- Open-ended response (OR): Students are requested to write a short response to an open-ended question. The responses are scored by scorers working for the national centers.

Six of the 80 ICCS test items are open-ended response items. All other items have a multiple-choice format. Test questions are typically organized in units within which the content of all items refers to a stimulus describing a particular situation or problem and, in a few cases, is accompanied by a graphic. Appendix B provides examples of ICCS test questions.



The student, teacher, and school questionnaires have the following item types:

- *Likert-type items*: For each item, respondents are asked to rate a number of statements, typically on a four-point scale. For most of these items, the rating scale ranges from (1) strongly agree to (4) strongly disagree. The rating scales for other questions indicate frequencies (never, rarely, sometimes, often) or levels of interest, trust, or importance.
- *Multiple-response items:* Respondents are asked to indicate the three aspects they view as most important.
- Categorical response items: Respondents are required to choose from two or more response
  categories the response that they consider most appropriate. These questions are primarily
  used for collecting contextual information (for example, on gender, educational level
  of parents, books in the home, subjects taught at school, and public or private school
  management).
- Open-response items: Respondents are asked to write short responses that are coded by the national centers. (These items are used only used for collecting information on parental occupation.)

# The ICCS test booklet design

ICCS uses a rotated design for test administration, making it possible to include more test material and thus ensure greater coverage of the assessment framework without increasing the testing time for each student. This procedure also enables a sufficient number of score points to be generated to provide the basis for comprehensive descriptions of the scale. Rotating the clusters throughout the booklets ensures that the different tests are linked and can be scaled using IRT (item response theory) methods (Hambleton, Swaminathan, & Rogers, 1991).

Table 5 shows the booklet design for the ICCS main survey. Cluster C07 contains the CIVED link items and that will appear in Booklets 4, 6, and 7. The booklet design is completely balanced, which means that each cluster appears in three booklets in three different positions.

Table 5: Field trial test booklet design

		Position	
Booklet	А	В	С
1	C01	C02	C04
2	C02	C03	C05
3	C03	C04	C06
4	C04	C05	C07
5	C05	C06	C01
6	C06	C07	C02
7	C07	C01	C03



# Reporting on the contextual scales

ICCS will report outcomes of civic and citizenship education on a number of international scales derived from the student test and the student questionnaire.

The cognitive test items will be scaled to obtain scores of *civic knowledge and understanding*. The scale will cover student knowledge and understanding with regard to the four content domains and the two cognitive domains. Items will be used to describe student knowledge and understandings at different levels of student proficiency.

The student questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain the following scales reflecting students' value beliefs:

- Students' support for democratic value beliefs
- Students' support for the importance of conventional citizenship
- Students' support for the importance of social-movement related citizenship.

The student questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain scales reflecting the following attitudes:

- Students' interest in political and social issues
- Students' civic self-concept
- Students' support for equal gender rights and responsibilities
- Students' support for equal rights for ethnic/racial groups
- Students' support for equal rights for immigrants
- Students' confidence in school-based participation
- Students' trust in government-related institutions
- Students' sense of citizenship self-efficacy
- Students' attitudes toward their country.

The student questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain scales reflecting the following behavioral intentions:

- Students' expectations to participate in legal protest activities
- Students' expectations to participate in illegal protest activities
- Students' expectations to participate in elections
- Students' expectations to engage in active political participation
- Students' expectations to participate in informal political participation.

The student questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain scales reflecting the following behaviors:

- Students' reports of civic participation outside of school
- Students' reports of civic participation at school.

Additional scales reflecting contextual factors are derived from the student, teacher, and school questionnaires. These scales are designed to describe the learning context for civic and citizenship education and to explain variation in learning outcomes.



The student questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain scales reflecting the learning context of students:

- Students' perceptions of student-teacher relationships at school
- Students' perceptions of open classroom climate for discussion
- Students' perceptions of student influence on decisionmaking at school
- Students' reports of discussion of political and social issues with parents and peers.

The teacher questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain scales reflecting the following teacher perceptions of the school environment:

- Teachers' personal participation in activities outside school
- Teachers' participation in school governance
- Teachers' perceptions of student activities in the community
- Teachers' perceptions of student influence at school
- Teachers' perceptions of social problems at school.

The teacher questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain scales reflecting the following teacher perceptions of school and classroom climate:

- Teachers' perceptions of students' sense of belonging to the school
- Teachers' perceptions of student participation in class activities
- Teachers' perceptions of student participation in class discussion
- Teachers' perceptions of classroom climate.

The international option included in the teacher questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain a scale reflecting teachers' perceptions of how civic and citizenship education is implemented at the school level:

- Teachers' reports on the use of traditional teaching methods in civic and citizenship education
- Teachers' reports on the use of active teaching and learning in civic and citizenship education.

The school questionnaire includes items that are used to obtain scales reflecting principals' perceptions of the school environment:

- Principals' perceptions of school autonomy in management
- Principals' perceptions of school autonomy in educational planning
- Principals' perceptions of teacher participation in school governance
- Principals' perceptions of student opportunities to participate in community activities
- Principals' perceptions of parents' participation in school life
- Principals' perceptions of student influence at school
- Principals' perceptions of student behavior at school
- Principals' perceptions of teachers' sense of belonging to the school
- Principals' perceptions of students' sense of belonging to the school
- Principals' perceptions of non-teaching staff's sense of belonging to the school
- Principals' perceptions of social tension in the local community
- Principals' perceptions of social problems at school.



# **References**

Almgren, E. (2006). Att fostra demokrater: Om skolan i demokratin och demokratin i skolan (To educate democracy: On democracy in school or school in democracy). Dissertation. Uppsala: University of Uppsala.

Amadeo, J., Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Husfeldt, V., & Nikolova, R. (2002). *Civic knowledge and engagement: An IEA study of upper secondary students in sixteen countries.* Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

Anderson, L. W., Ryan, D. W., & Shapiro, B. J. (Eds.). (1989). *The IEA Classroom Environment Study*. Oxford/New York: Pergamon Press.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28(2), 117–148.

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Balch, G. I. (1974). Multiple indicators in survey research: The concept "sense of political efficacy." *Political Methodology, 1*(2), 1–43.

Baker, D., & LeTendre, G. (2005). National differences, global similarities: World culture and the future of schooling. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Banks, J. A. (Ed.). (2004). Diversity and citizenship education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Barnes, S. H., Kaase, M. et al. (Eds.). (1979). *Political action: Mass participation in five Western democracies* (pp. 487–521). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Ben Porath, S. R. (2006). Citizenship under fire: Democratic education in times of conflict. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Benavot, A., Cha, Y., Kamens, D., Meyer, J., & Wong, S. (1991). Knowledge for the masses: World models and national curricula, 1920–1986. *American Sociological Review*, 56, 85–100.

Birzea, C., Kerr, D., Mikkelsen, R., Pol, M., Froumin, I., Losito, B., & Sardoc, M. (2004). *All-European Study on Education for Democratic Citizenship Policies*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for sociology and education* (pp. 241–248). New York: Greenwood Press.

Branson, M. S. (1999). *Globalization and its implications for civic education*. Paper presented at the Globalization of Politics and Economy International Conference in Bad Urach, Germany, October 3–8.

Buchmann, C. (2002). Measuring family background in international studies of education: Conceptual issues and methodological challenges. In A. C. Porter & A. Gamoran (Eds.), *Methodological advances in cross-national surveys of educational achievement* (pp. 150–197). Washington DC: National Academy Press.

Campbell, A., Gurin, G., & Miller, W. E. (1954). *The voter decides*. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson, and Company.

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology, 94*(supplement), 95–120.

Converse, P. E. (1972). Change in the American electorate. In A. Campbell & P. E. Converse (Eds.), *The human meaning of social change* (pp. 263–337). New York: Sage.

Cox, C., Jaramillo, R., & Reimers, F. (2005). *Education for citizenship and democracy in the Americas: An agenda for action.* Washington DC: Inter-American Development Bank.

Craig, R., Kerr, D., Wade, P., & Taylor, G. (2005). *Taking post-16 citizenship forward: Learning from the Post-16 Citizenship Development Projects* (DfES research report 604). London: Department for Education and Skills (DfES).

Curtice, J., & Seyd, B. (2003). Is there a crisis of political participation? In A. Park, J. Curtice, K. Thomson, L. Jarvis, & C. Bromley (Eds.), *British social attitudes: The 20th report—continuity and change over two decades* (pp. 93–107). London: Sage.



Ehman, L. H. (1980). Change in high school pupils' political attitudes as a function of social studies classroom climate. *American Educational Research Journal*, 17, 253–265.

Elley, W. B. (1992). *How in the world do students read?* The Hague: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

Entwistle, D. R., & Astone, N. M. (1994). Some practical guidelines for measuring youth's race/ethnicity and socioeconomic status. *Child Development, 65*, 1521–1540.

Eurydice. (2005). Citizenship education at school in Europe. Brussels: Author.

Eurydice. (2007). School autonomy in Europe: Policies and measures. Brussels: Author.

Ganzeboom, H. B. G., de Graaf, P. M., & Treiman, D. J. (1992). A standard international socioeconomic index of occupational status. *Social Science Research*, 21, 1–56.

Gerbner, G. (1980). The mainstreaming of America. Journal of Communication, 30, 10-29.

Gottfried, A. W. (1985). Measures of socioeconomic status in child development research: Data and recommendations. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 31*(1), 85–92.

Hahn, L. (1999). Citizenship education: An empirical study of policy, practices and outcome. *Oxford Review of Education, 25*, 231–250.

Hambleton, R. K., Swaminathan, H., & Rogers, H. J. (1991). Fundamentals of item response theory. Newbury Park/London/New Delhi: Sage.

Hanushek, E. A. (1994). Money might matter somewhere: A response to Hedges, Laine, & Greenwald. *Educational Researcher*, 23, 5–8.

Hanushek, E. A. (1997). Assessing the effects of school resources on student performance: An update. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 19, 141–164.

Harvey-Beavis, A. (2002). Student and school questionnaire development. In R. Adams and M. Wu (Eds.), *PISA 2000 technical report* (pp. 33–38). Paris: OECD Publications.

Hauser, R. M. (1994). Measuring socioeconomic status in studies of child development. *Child Development*, 65, 1541–1545.

Hess, R. D., & Torney, J. (1967). The development of political attitudes in children. Garden City, NY: Anchor.

Homana, G., Barber, C., & Torney-Purta, J. (2005). *Assessing school citizenship education climate: Implications for the social studies* (Circle Working Paper 48). Available online at http://www.civicyouth.org/PopUps/WorkingPapers/WP48 Homana.pdf.

Huddy, L., & Khatib, N. (2007). American patriotism, national identity, and political involvement. *American Political Science Review, 51*(1), 63–77.

IDEA. (2006). Democracy, conflict and human security policy summary: Key findings and recommendations. Stockholm: Author.

International Labour Organisation (ILO). (1990). *International Standard Classification of Occupations: ISCO-88*. Geneva: Author.

Kaase, M. (1990). Mass participation. In M. K. Jennings, J. W. van Deth et al. (Eds.). *Continuities in political action* (pp. 23–67). Berlin/New York: Walter de Gruyter.

Kennedy, K. (2006). Towards a conceptual framework for understanding active and passive citizenship. Unpublished report.

Kerr, D., Ireland, E., Lopes, J., & Craig, R., with Cleaver, E. (2004). *Making citizenship real: Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study. Second annual report. First longitudinal survey* (DfES Research Report 531). London: Department for Education and Skills (DfES).

Kymlicka, W. (2001). *Politics in the vernacular: Nationalism, multiculturalism, and citizenship.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lamont, M., & Lareau, A. (1988). Cultural capital: Allusions, gaps and glissandos in recent theoretical developments. *Sociological Theory, 6,* 153–168.



Lauglo, J., & Øia, T. (2006). Education and civic engagement among Norwegian youths (NOVA report 14/06). Oslo: Norwegian Social Research.

Lehmann, R. (1996). Reading literacy among immigrant students in the United States and former West Germany. In M. Binkley, K. Rust, & T. Williams (Eds.), *Reading literacy in an international perspective* (pp. 101–114). Washington DC: National Center for Education Statistics (NCES).

Losito, B., & D'Apice, A. (2003). Democracy, citizenship, participation: The results of the second IEA Civic Education Study in Italy. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 39(6), 609–620.

Losito, B., & Mintrop, H. (2001). The teaching of civic education. In J. Torney-Purta, R. Lehmann, H. Oswald, & W. Schulz (Eds.), *Citizenship and education in twenty-eight countries* (pp. 157–173). Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

Macedo, S. (2000). *Diversity and distrust: Civic education in a multicultural democracy*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

McLanahan, S. S., & Sandefur, G. D. (1994). *Growing up with a single parent: What hurts, what helps.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

McNeal, R. B. (1997). High school dropouts: A closer examination of school effects. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78, 209–222.

Marjoribanks, K. (1997). Children of single-parent families. In L. J. Saha (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of the Sociology of Education* (pp. 589–595). Oxford/New York/Tokyo: Elsevier.

Mellor, S., & Prior, W. (2004). Citizenship education in Asia and the Pacific: Promoting social tolerance and cohesion in the Solomon Islands and Vanuatu. In W. O. Lee, D. L. Grossman, K. Kennedy, & G. P. Fairbrother (Eds.), *Citizenship education in Asia and the Pacific: Concepts and issues* (pp. 175–194). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC) and Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Menezes, I., Ferreira, P. D., Carneiro, N. S., & Cruz, J. B. (2004). Citizenship, empowerment and participation: Implications for community interventions. In A. Sánchez Vidal, A. Zambrano Constanzo, & L. M. Palacín (Eds.), *Psicologia Comunitaria Europea: Comunidad, ética y valores* (*European Community psychology: Community, ethics and values*) (pp. 301–308). Barcelona: Publicacions Universitat de Barcelona.

Mosher, R., Kenny, R. A., & Garrod, A. (1994). Preparing for citizenship: Teaching youth to live democratically. Westport/London: Praeger.

Mullis, I. V. S., Martin, M. O., Gonzalez, E. J., Gregory, K. D., Garden, R. A., O'Connor, K. M., Chrostowski, S, J., & Smith, T. A. (2000). TIMSS 1999 international mathematics report: Fndings from IEA's repeat of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study at the eighth grade. Chestnut Hill, MA: Boston College.

Mullis, I. V. S., Martin, M. O., Ruddock, G. J., O'Sullivan, C. Y., Aroa, A., & Erberber, E. (2005). *TIMSS 2007 assessment frameworks*. Boston, MA: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

Norris, P. (2000). *A virtuous circle: Political communication in postindustrial societies.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Niemi, R., & Junn, J. (1998). Civic education: What makes students learn? New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (1994). *Quality in teaching*. Paris: Author.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2005). Technical report for the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment 2003. Paris: OECD Publications.

Perliger, A., Canetti-Nisim, D., & Pedahzur, A. (2006). Democratic attitudes among high-school pupils: The role played by perceptions of class climate. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,* 17(1), 119–140.



Potter, J. (2002). Active citizenship in schools. London: Kogan Page.

Putnam, R. D. (1993). Making democracy work. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Putnam, R. D. (2000). Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Rahn, W. M. (2004). *Globalization, the decline of civic commitments and the future of democracy*. Paper presented at the conference on Democracy in the Twenty-First Century: Prospects and Problems, University of Illinois, October 24–26.

Ranson, S., Farrell, C., Peim, N., & Smith, P. (2005). Does governance matter for school improvement? *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 16(3), 305–325.

Reezigt, G. J., & Creemers, B. P. M. (2005). A comprehensive framework for effective school improvement. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 16(4), 407–424.

Reimers, F. (2007). Civic education when democracy is in flux: The impact of empirical research on policy and practice in Latin America. *Citizenship and Teacher Education, 3*(2), 5–21.

Renshon, S. A. (1975). The role of personality development in political socialization. In D. C. Schwartz & S. Schwartz (Eds.), *New Directions in Socialization* (pp. 29–68). New York: Free Press.

Richardson, W. (2003). Connecting political discussion to civic engagement: The role of civic knowledge, efficacy and context for adolescents. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, College Park, MD.

Robinson, M. J. (1976). Public Affairs television and the growth of political malaise: The case of "the selling of the Pentagon." *American Political Science Review, 70,* 409–432.

Rokeach, M. (1973). The nature of human values. New York: The Free Press.

Saha, L. J. (1997). Introduction: The centrality of the family in educational processes. In L. J. Saha (Ed.), *International encyclopedia of the sociology of education* (pp. 587–588). Oxford/New York/Tokyo: Elsevier.

Scheerens, J. (1990). School effectiveness and the development of process indicators of school functioning. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 1*, 61–80.

Scheerens, J., & Bosker, R. J. (1997). The foundations of educational effectiveness. Oxford: Pergamon.

Scheufele, D. A., Nisbet, M. C., & Brossard, D. (2003). Pathways to political participation? Religion, communication contexts, and mass media. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 15(3), 300–324.

Schulz, W. (2004). Scaling procedures for Likert-type items on students' concepts, attitudes and actions. In W. Schulz & H. Sibberns (Eds.), *IEA Civic Education Study: Technical report* (pp. 193–126). Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

Schulz, W. (2005). *Political efficacy and expected political participation among lower and upper secondary students.* Paper presented at the ECPR General Conference, Budapest, September 8–10.

Seltzer, J. (1994). Consequences of marital dissolution for children. *Annual Review of Sociology, 20*, 235–266.

Shulman, L. S. (1987). *Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform.* Harvard Educational Review, *57*(1), 1–22.

Stanat, P., & Christensen, G. (2006). Where immigrant students succeed: A comparative review of performance and engagement in PISA 2003. Paris: OECD Publications.

Stoll, L. (1999). School culture: Black hole or fertile garden for school improvement? In J. Prosser (Ed.), *School culture* (British Educational Management series). London: Sage.

Stolle, D., with Lewis, J. (2002). Social capital: An emerging concept. In B. Hobson, J. Lewis, & B. Siim (Eds.), *Contested concepts in gender and European social politics* (pp. 195–229). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Press.

Stolp, S. (1994). *Leadership for school culture* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 91). East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning.



Torney, J., Oppenheim, A. N., & Farnen, R. F. (1975). Civic education in ten countries: An empirical study. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Torney-Purta, J., & Barber, C. (2004). *Democratic school participation and civic attitudes among European adolescents: Analysis of data from the IEA Civic Education Study*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, DGIV/EDU/CIT (2004) 40.

Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H., & Schulz, W. (2001). *Citizenship and education in twenty-eight countries*. Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

Torney-Purta, J., Schwille, J., & Amadeo, J. A. (1999). *Civic education across countries: Twenty-four case studies from the IEA Civic Education Project.* Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

Travers, K. J., Garden, R. A., & Rosier, M. (1989). Introduction to the study. In D. A. Robitaille & R. A. Garden (Eds.), *The IEA Study of Mathematics II: Contexts and outcomes of school mathematics curricula*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Travers, K. J., & Westbury, I. (1989). *The IEA Study of Mathematics I: Analysis of mathematics curricula*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

UNESCO. (2006). ISCED 1997: *International Standard Classification of Education* (rev. ed.). Paris: UNESCO-UIS.

USAID. (2002). *Approaches to civic education: Lessons learned* (Technical Publication Series PNP-ACP-331). Washington DC: Clearinghouse.

Van Houtte, M. (2005). Climate or culture? A plea for conceptual clarity in school effectiveness research. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 16(1), 71–89.

Verba, S., Schlozman, K. L., & Brady, H. E. (1995). *Voice and equality*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wade, R. C. (2007). Community action rooted in history: The CiviConnections model of service learning. Silver Spring, MD: National Council for the Social Studies.

Walker, D. A. (1976). *The IEA Six Subject Study: An empirical study of education in twenty-one countries.* Stockholm/New York: Almqvist and Wiksell International/John Wiley and Sons.

White, K. R. (1982). The relation between socioeconomic status and educational achievement. *Psychological Bulletin*, *91*(3), 461–481.

Woolcock, M. (2001). The place of social capital in understanding social and economic outcomes. *ISUMA Canadian Journal of Policy Research, 2*(1), 11–17.



# **Appendices**

## APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONS AND STAFF

The international study center and its partner institutions

The international study center is located at the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) and serves as the international study center for ICCS. Center staff are responsible for the design and implementation of the study in close co-operation with the center's partner institutions NFER (National Foundation for Educational Research, Slough, United Kingdom) and LPS (Laboratorio di Pedagogia Sperimentale at the Roma Tre University, Rome, Italy) as well as the IEA Data Processing and Research Center (DPC) and the IEA Secretariat.

#### Staff at ACER

John Ainley, project coordinator
Wolfram Schulz, research director
Julian Fraillon, coordinator of test development and the Asian regional module
Naoko Tabata, project researcher
Tim Friedman, project researcher

#### Staff at NFER

David Kerr, associate research director Joana Lopes, senior research officer

#### Staff at LPS

Bruno Losito, associate research director Gabriella Agrusti, project researcher

The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA)

IEA provides overall support in coordinating ICCS. The IEA Secretariat in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, is responsible for membership, translation verification, and quality control monitoring. The IEA Data Processing and Research Center (DPC) in Hamburg, Germany, is mainly responsible for sampling procedures and the processing of ICCS data.

## Staff at the IEA Secretariat

Hans Wagemaker, executive director Barbara Malak, manager membership relations Jur Hartenberg, financial manager

#### Staff at DPC

Heiko Sibberns, co-director
Dirk Hastedt, co-director
Falk Brese, ICCS coordinator
Michael Jung, researcher
Olaf Zuehlke, researcher (sampling)
Sabine Meinck, researcher (sampling)



### The ICCS project advisory committee (PAC)

PAC has, from the beginning of the project, advised the international study center and its partner institutions during regular meetings. PAC also reviewed draft versions of the assessment framework and the instruments.

#### **PAC** members

John Ainley (chair), ACER, Australia

Barbara Malak, IEA Secretariat

Heiko Sibberns, IEA Technical Expert Group

John Annette, University of London, United Kingdom

Leonor Cariola, Ministry of Education, Chile

Henk Dekker, University of Leiden, the Netherlands

Bryony Hoskins, Center for Research on Lifelong Learning, European Commission

Rosario Jaramillo F., Ministry of Education, Colombia

Judith Torney-Purta, University of Maryland, United States

Lee Wing-On, Hong Kong Institute of Education, Hong Kong SAR, China

Christian Monseur, University of Liège, Belgium

## The ICCS sampling referee

Jean Dumais from Statistics Canada in Ottawa is the sampling referee for the study. He has provided invaluable advice on all sampling-related aspects of the study.

#### National research coordinators

The national research coordinators (NRCs) play a crucial role in the development of the project. They provided policy- and content-oriented advice on the development of the assessment framework and instruments and are responsible for the implementation of ICCS in participating countries.

#### Austria

Günther Ogris

SORA Institute for Social Research and Analysis, Ogris & Hofinger GmbH

## Belgium (Flemish)

Saskia de Groof

Center of Sociology, Research Group TOR, Free University of Brussels (Vrije Universiteit Brussel)

# Bulgaria

Svetla Petrova

Center for Control and Assessment of the Quality in Education, Ministry of Education and Science, Bulgaria

## Chile

Catalina Covacevich

Unidad de Curriculum y Evaluación, Ministerio de Educación

## Chinese Taipei

Meihui Liu

Taiwan Normal University, Department of Education

## Colombia

Margarita Peña

Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior (ICFES)

## Cyprus

Mary Koutselini

University of Cyprus, Department of Education



## Czech Republic

Petr Soukup

Institute for Information on Education

#### Denmark

Jens Bruun

The Danish University of Education, Department of Educational Anthropology

### **Dominican Republic**

Julio Leonardo Valeirón Ureña

Evaluación y Control de la Calidad de la Educación, Secretaría de Estado de Educación

### **England**

Julie Nelson

National Foundation for Educational Research

#### Estonia

Anu Toots

Tallinn University

## **Finland**

Pekka Kupari

Institute for Educational Research, University of Jyväskylä

#### Greece

Georgia Polydorides

Department of Early Childhood Education

#### Guatemala

Luisa Muller Durán

SINEIE-Ministerio de Educación

#### Hong Kong SAR, China

Wing-On Lee

Hong Kong Institute of Education

#### Indonesia

Diah Haryanti

Balitbang Diknas, Depdiknas

## Republic of Ireland

Jude Cosgrove

Educational Research Centre, St Patrick's College

## Italy

Genny Terrinoni

**INVALSI** 

#### Republic of Korea

Tae-Jun Kim

Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI)

#### Latvia

Andris Kangro

Faculty of Education and Psychology, University of Latvia

#### Liechtenstein

Horst Biedermann

Universität Freiburg, Pädagogisches Institut

# Lithuania

Zivile Urbiene

National Examination Center



# Luxembourg

Joseph Britz

Ministère de l'Éducation nationale

#### Malta

Raymond Camilleri

Department of Planning and Development, Education Division

#### **Netherlands**

M. P. C. van der Werf

GION, University of Groningen

#### New Zealand

Sharon Cox

Comparative Education Research Unit, Ministry of Education

#### Norway

Rolf Mikkelsen

University of Oslo

#### **Paraguay**

Agustina Solamía Burgos

Dirección General de Desarrollo Educativo, Ministerio de Educación y Cultura

#### **Poland**

Krzysztof Kosela

Institute of Sociology, University of Warsaw

## Russia

Peter Pologevets

Institution for Education Reforms of the State University Higher School of Economics

#### Slovak Republic

Ervin Stava

Department of Educational Measurements, National Institute for Education

#### Slovenia

Marjan Simenc

University of Ljubljana

## Spain

Rosario Sánchez

Instituto de Evaluación, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia

## Sweden

Fredrik Lind

The Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket)

## **Switzerland**

Fritz Oser

Universität Freiburg, Pädagogisches Institut

#### **Thailand**

Siriporn Boonyananta

The Office of the Education Council, Ministry of Education

Somwung Pitiyanuwa

The Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment



# **APPENDIX B: SAMPLE TEST ITEMS**

# Example Item 1

Example Item 1 is an adaptation of an item used in the ICCS field trial. This item accesses:

• Content Domain 1: Civic Society and Systems

o Sub-domain: State institutions

• Aspect: Legislatures/parliaments

o Key concept: Voting/franchise.

Cognitive Domain 1: Knowing

o Process: Describe

E1	Which people are allowed to vote in a country's national <parliament legislature="">?</parliament>
*	representatives voted into office in national elections
	judges who sit in the highest court in the country
	business leaders who pay a fee to be allowed to vote
	senior members of the national police force

Note: • = correct answer.



# Example Items 2 and 3

Example Items 2 and 3 were presented together as a unit in the ICCS field trial. A unit is one or more items that appear in sequence and refer to a common theme or set of information. Example item 2 accesses:

• Content Domain 1: Civic Society and Systems

o Sub-domain: State institutions

• Aspect: Government

o Key concept: Power/authority

• Cognitive Domain 2: Reasoning and analyzing

o Process: Generalize

The United Nations has election monitors who check whether national elections have taken place fairly. The United Nations can only send election monitors to visit a country if the government of that country asks them to come.

<Zedland> asked the United Nations to monitor their national election. After the election, the election monitors reported that the election was fair.

E2	How does the report that the election was fair help the newly elected government lead <zedland>?</zedland>
	People who did not vote for the new government are more likely to change their minds and agree with all the decisions the new government makes.
*	People who did not vote for the new government are more likely to accept the authority of the new government to make decisions.
	People who voted for the new government are more likely to vote for it again in the future.
	People who voted for the new government are more likely to agree with everything it does.

Note: • = correct answer.



Example Item 3 accesses:

• Content Domain 1: Civic Society and Systems

o Sub-domain: State institutions

Aspect: Government
 Key concept: Democracy

Cognitive Domain 2: Reasoning and analyzing

o **Process:** Integrate

E3	What message might the United Nations hope to give the world by working with countries to monitor their elections?
	Most countries do not want to conduct fair elections.
	Countries only need to have fair elections when the election monitors are involved.
*	Countries have a responsibility to make sure that elections are fair.
	Fair elections can only be guaranteed if election monitors are present.

Note: • = correct answer.

## Example Item 4

Example Item 4 is a CIVED release item and was therefore developed with reference to the CIVED conceptual model. Seventeen of the 80 ICCS test items are CIVED-trend (non-release) items. Example Item 4 illustrates both the "nature" of the CIVED items and their similarity to and congruence with the newly developed ICCS items. The ICCS assessment framework incorporates and builds on the CIVED conceptual model. The CIVED non-release trend items were included in the ICCS test instrument to facilitate the measurement of student cognitive achievement in ICCS on the same metric used in CIVED. It is therefore possible to map the CIVED test items (trend and release) onto the ICCS assessment framework. Example Item 4 can be mapped to:

• Content Domain 1: Civic Society and Systems

Sub-domain: Civil institutions
 Aspect: Political parties
 Key concept: Democracy
 Cognitive Domain 1: Knowing

o Process: Describe

E4	In democratic countries what is the function of having more than one political party?
*	To represent different opinions [interests] in the national legislature [e.g. Parliament, Congress]
	To limit political corruption
	To prevent political demonstrations
	To encourage economic competition



*Note:* • = correct answer.

## Example Item 5

Example Item 5 is one of eight open-ended response items used in the ICCS field trial. The scoring guide for Example Item 5 is included on the next page in order to illustrate the different categories of credit that were allocated to different conceptual categories of student response to the item. Example Item 5 accesses:

• Content Domain 3: Civic Participation

o Sub-domain: Community participation

• Aspect: Volunteering

Key concept: Civic involvement.

• Cognitive Domain 1: Reasoning and analyzing

o Process: Understand civic motivation

A local school has a volunteer day. On this day parents volunteer to come to the school and paint the classrooms. The parents are not paid for their work.

<Male Name> is a parent who does not like painting, but he volunteered anyway.

E5	Write the best reason to explain why <male name=""> volunteered to help paint the classrooms.</male>



#### Example Item 5 Scoring Guide

The example student responses in the scoring guide for Example Item 5 are all "real" responses provided by students during the ICCS field trial.

#### Full credit

Code 2: Refers to either or both of the two categories of reason listed below.

- RC1. a concern for the common good
- RC2. a desire to participate in the local community.
- RC1. Suggests a concern for the common good as a motivation for volunteering. [Note: A desire to help others or to help the school is seen as sufficient for this category.]

#### Example responses:

- He wants to contribute to the school.
- It's the right thing to do.
- Because he's helping other people, even if he doesn't want to he would feel better knowing he helped them.

RC2. Suggests a desire to participate in the school/local community as a motivation for volunteering.

#### Example responses:

- He wants to get involved in his child's school.
- He wants to feel part of the local community and the school.
- So he can socialize and have fun.

#### Partial credit

Code 1: Suggests only immediate self-interest or benefit as a motivation for volunteering.

#### Example responses:

- He wants to look important/wants to look good.
- He wants to learn new skills.
- To make sure he knows the environment his child is working in.

## No credit

**Code 0:** Refers to a generalized personality quality of <Male Name> or provides an irrelevant, incoherent response, or repeats the question.

### Example responses:

- He doesn't want to refuse. [vague]
- Because his children go there. [vague]
- Because he is probably a good man, is generous and it was a chance for him to volunteer.



This document outlines the framework and assessment design for the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) sponsored by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Over the past 50 years, IEA has conducted comparative research studies focusing on educational policies, practices, and outcomes in more than 80 countries around the world.

The purpose of ICCS is to investigate the ways in which young people in lower secondary schools are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens in a range of countries. The study will report on student achievement on a test of conceptual understandings and competencies in civic and citizenship education and also will collect and analyze data about student dispositions and attitudes relating to civic and citizenship education. Teacher and school questionnaires will gather information about teaching and class-management practices, school governance and climate, and other matters. A national context survey will collect information about civic and citizenship education and its contexts (aspects related to political, cultural, and educational contexts) in each participating country.

The study framework also offers "regional modules" that will allow groups of participating countries from the same region to address region-specific issues in civic and citizenship education. The three regional modules established for ICCS relate to Europe, Latin America, and Asia.