ICCS 2009 European Report

Civic knowledge, attitudes, and engagement among lower-secondary students in 24 European countries

David Kerr
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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.

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Foreword

Since the Civic Education Study (CIVED) in the late 1990s, educational researchers and policy-makers have increasingly recognized the regional context as an important aspect of civic and citizenship education and the way in which people undertake their role as citizens. In recognition of this development, the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) research team initiated regional modules for Asia, Europe, and Latin America as part of the study. Within each module, ICCS researchers developed regional student assessment instruments that were administered to sampled students after they had completed the international assessment.

ICCS was carried out by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), an independent, international cooperative of national research agencies, which, for over 50 years, has conducted large-scale comparative studies of educational achievement and reported on key aspects of education systems and processes.

Twenty-four European countries involved in ICCS took part in the European module. Their participation involved gathering data from more than 75,000 students in their eighth year of schooling in more than 3,000 schools. These student data were augmented, where relevant, by data from over 35,000 teachers in those schools and further contextual data collected from school principals and the study's national research centers.

The *ICCS 2009 European Report* presents results of analyses designed to investigate students' knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship in a European context and their perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors with respect to specific European-related civic and political issues, institutions, and policies. The report examines differences across countries in these European-specific outcomes as well as variations across European countries in the associations between these outcome variables and with selected student characteristics. The results are based on data collected by way of the regional European and, where relevant, the international instruments.

This current report is the third, after two international reports, in the ICCS publication series. It will be followed by regional reports for Asia and Latin America, each of which will focus on issues related to civic and citizenship education that are of special interest in those parts of the world. IEA will also publish an encyclopedia on approaches to civic and citizenship education in all participating countries, a technical report documenting procedures and providing evidence of the high quality of the data that were collected, and an international database that the broader research community can use for secondary analyses.

The development of the European module was coordinated by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) in Slough, the United Kingdom, in close cooperation with the following: the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) in Melbourne, Australia, and the Laboratorio di Pedagogia Sperimentale (LPS) at the Roma Tre University in Rome, Italy, as well as the IEA Secretariat, the IEA Data Processing and Research Center, and the national coordinators of the project.

I would like to express thanks, on behalf of IEA, to all researchers involved in the success of the European module. First, I thank the authors of the report—David Kerr, Linda Sturman, and Bethan Burge of NFER, and Wolfram Schulz of ACER. I also thank Joanna Lopes, Thomas Spielhofer, and Jo Morrison (NFER) along with John Ainley and Julian Fraillon (ACER) for their revision of the draft.

Special thanks also go to the expert reviewers of the report: Judith Torney-Purta (University of Maryland), Henk Dekker (University of Leiden), and Bryony Hoskins (University of London). The IEA Publication and Editorial Committee provided helpful suggestions for improvement of earlier versions of the report, and Paula Wagemaker edited the document.

IEA studies rely on national teams headed by the national research coordinators who manage and execute the study at the national level. Their contribution is highly appreciated. Also, no cross-national study of educational achievement, such as ICCS, would be possible without the participation of the many students, teachers, school administrators, and policy-makers who take part in them. The education world benefits from their commitment.

Finally, I would like to thank the study's funders. A project of this size relies on considerable financial support. Funding for the European module of ICCS was assured by the European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture in the form of a grant to the European countries participating in the project. Funding was also secured from the ministries of education and many other organizations in the participating countries.

Dr Hans Wagemaker
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, IEA

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About the European regional module of ICCS

The International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) studied the ways in which countries prepare their young people to undertake their roles as citizens. ICCS was based on the premise that preparing students for citizenship involves helping them develop relevant knowledge and understanding and form positive attitudes toward being a citizen and participating in activities related to civics and citizenship. These notions were elaborated in the ICCS assessment framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008).

Regional contexts are important aspects of civic and citizenship education because they help us understand how people are differentially influenced to undertake their roles as citizens. Along with its regional module for Europe, ICCS included regional instruments for Asia and Latin America to supplement the data obtained from the international survey.

This report from ICCS focuses on the 24 countries that participated in the study's European regional module. It is based on the European ICCS student instrument that investigated specific European issues related to civic and citizenship education. The report also includes relevant data from the international student instruments that pertained to those countries. Readers should view this European report in the context of the international reports on the findings from ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010a, 2010b).

The European module investigated students' civic knowledge in a European context as well as their attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors in relation to European civic issues, institutions, and policies. More specifically, it considered European citizenship and identity, intercultural relations in Europe, free movement of citizens in Europe, European policies, institutions, and participation, and European language learning. This report examines variations across European countries in these measures and the associations of these measures with selected student characteristics.

The findings reported in this publication are based on data gathered from random samples of more than 75,000 students in their eighth year of schooling in more than 3,000 schools from 24 European countries. These student data were augmented, where relevant, by data from over 35,000 teachers in those schools and by further contextual data collected from school principals and the study's national research centers.

Civic knowledge and knowledge about civic institutions, policies, and issues in Europe

Students' knowledge about and understanding of civics and citizenship (i.e., their civic knowledge) was measured using the 80-item ICCS test of civic knowledge (79 of these items formed the scale). In addition, a European cognitive test investigated the extent of students' civic knowledge about the European Union (EU) and its policies, institutions, practices, and processes.

In the ICCS international test, civic knowledge was measured on a scale where the international average was set to 500 scale points, with a standard deviation of 100 scale points. Students in European ICCS countries attained scores that were higher, on average (514 scale points), than the average for all participating countries (500 points). However, the results showed considerable variation in civic knowledge among and within European countries. European country averages ranged from 453 to 576 points.

Items in the European student cognitive test on the EU did not form a measurement scale but were reported in relation to items grouped around three areas: basic facts about the EU, knowledge of EU laws and policies, and knowledge about the euro currency.

Knowledge of basic facts about the EU was widespread among students across most European ICCS countries, including those countries that are not EU members. However, there was greater variation among countries in students' civic knowledge of detailed information about the EU and about EU laws and policies. Students' knowledge about the euro and eurozone was also widespread across European ICCS countries, including those countries not in the eurozone.

In nearly all European ICCS countries, female students gained higher civic knowledge scores than male students; the average difference was 22 scale points across all the European ICCS countries. However, male students recorded higher levels of confidence in their knowledge related to the EU than did females. There were also differences in the civic knowledge scores of students according to their immigrant background.

Interest and disposition to engage in public and political life

The European student questionnaire investigated the extent to which students were interested in and engaged with five specific European-related civics and citizenship issues:

- European citizenship and identity;
- Intercultural relations in Europe;
- Free movement of citizens in Europe;
- European policies, institutions, and participation;
- European language learning.

Large majorities of students had a strong sense of European identity. However, this sense was generally stronger for male students than for females. In a number of countries, students from immigrant backgrounds expressed a slightly weaker sense of European identity than did students from non-immigrant backgrounds. Variation across countries was observed with regard to students' sense of identity at the European and national levels. However, the data showed a consistent association between students' national and European identities, in that students with more positive attitudes toward their country tended also to have a stronger sense of European identity.

Most students in EU countries expressed pride in the fact that their country was an EU member, but there was variation in students' sense of feeling part of the EU. Students in European ICCS countries held positive attitudes toward equal rights for other European citizens living in their country as well as for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants. Students who expressed positive attitudes toward equal rights for other European citizens living in their country were also likely to express positive attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants.

Most students supported the general right of free movement for citizens to live, work, and travel anywhere in Europe. However, a number of students expressed support for some specific restrictions on the movement of citizens in Europe. Students in some countries were more supportive than students in other countries of such restrictions. In many countries, students from immigrant backgrounds were less supportive of restrictions than were those from non-immigrant backgrounds.

Majorities of students across Europe reported that they could communicate in at least one other European language, although there was considerable variation in self-reported language proficiency levels across countries. There was a consistent association between students' attitudes toward learning European languages and their views on intercultural relations. Students who expressed positive attitudes toward learning other European languages were also likely to express positive views on equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants.

Majorities of students agreed with the concept of increased policy harmonization and convergence in Europe. Agreement was strongest on convergence of policies concerning the environment, education, relations with non-European countries, and the legal system but less strong on convergence of economic policy in Europe. On average, over half of the participating students in the European ICCS countries reported support for EU enlargement, although levels of support varied across participating countries. Across participating countries, students' levels of trust or support for the European Commission and the European Parliament were similar to students' levels of trust in civic institutions at the national and international levels.

Students reported greater interest in domestic political and social issues than in European and international politics. There was an association between students' interest in political issues at national level and their interest in European and international political issues. Students' interest in European political issues was generally higher in those countries with higher levels of students' interest in local and national political issues.

Students reported that they got information about European news from different sources, most frequently from television. Majorities of students also reported that schools provided them with opportunities to learn about other European countries. However, students' active civic participation in Europe-focused activities was relatively low, with only a minority stating that they had participated in activities and groups related to Europe.

Also noted was an association between students' reported participation in the wider community and participation in activities or groups at the European level. The more students reported active participation in the wider community, the more likely they were to report participation in activities or groups at the European level. Large majorities of students reported that they intended to vote as adults in local and national elections, but their expectation of voting in European elections was much lower.

Gender differences were apparent with regard to a number of civic issues related to European integration, in particular with regard to students' sense of European identity, students' attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens, and students' attitudes toward European language learning. Differences were evident between immigrant and non-immigrant students' sense of European identity, attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants, and attitudes toward freedom of movement for European citizens. Differences were also apparent between these two groups of students with respect to their attitudes toward their country of residence.

Aspects of schools and systems related to civic and citizenship education

Data from the national contexts survey made clear that the countries participating in the European regional module viewed civic and citizenship education as a priority in their educational policy. It was also clear that there was considerable variation in how countries defined and approached civic and citizenship education. These approaches included providing a specific subject, integrating relevant content into other subjects, and including content as a cross-curricular theme. Eleven countries included a specific subject concerned with civic and citizenship education; 22 provided civic and citizenship education through integration in several subjects.

According to the information collected from the ICCS national centers, curricula for civic and citizenship education covered a wide range of topics. These topics encompassed knowledge and understanding of political institutions and concepts, such as human rights, as well as social and community cohesion, diversity, the environment, communications, and global society (including regional and international institutions).

Most of the teachers, as well as the school principals, who participated in the European ICCS module regarded the development of knowledge and skills as the most important aim of civic and citizenship education. This complement of knowledge and skills included "promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions," "promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities," and "promoting students' critical and independent thinking." Only minorities of principals and teachers in the European ICCS countries saw "preparing students for future political participation" and "supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia" as among the most important aims of civic and citizenship education. There was greater support among teachers than among principals for "promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment" as an important aim of civic and citizenship education. However, the development of active participation was not among the objectives that teachers or school principals most frequently cited as the most important aim.

Possible implications of the findings

Although a majority of students in the participating European ICCS countries demonstrated knowledge of main civic and citizenship institutions and understanding of the interconnectedness of institutions and processes, substantial minorities of students had lower levels of civic knowledge. In addition, there was considerable variation in students' knowledge of more detailed information about the EU and EU laws and policies. These findings suggest that there is still a need to improve learning about the EU as part of civic and citizenship education.

Also evident was considerable variation in students' attitudes toward European civic issues. A majority of students expressed positive attitudes toward intercultural relations and European language learning, and stated strong support for equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants as well as the freedom of movement of citizens within Europe. However, substantial minorities of students held relatively negative attitudes toward equal opportunities and freedom of movement, as well as toward European language learning.

In the context of what schools can do to prepare students for "more active citizenship" and for their future roles as citizens, attention should also be drawn to the fact that, according to most teachers and principals in the European ICCS countries, the focus of civic learning should primarily be on developing students' knowledge and skills and not necessarily on their participatory skills or strategies. This finding suggests that there is room for broadening the focus of civic and citizenship learning on citizenship issues and community participation.

It is expected that this ICCS report will be followed by analyses that investigate in greater detail the relationships between civic knowledge and attitudes toward aspects of civics and citizenship in the European context as well as the relationships between these outcomes and approaches to civic and citizenship education and characteristics of students and their societies. Interaction between the country-level context and within-country relationships between context factors and outcome variables are of particular interest.

The implementation of additional data collections focused on region-specific aspects, in Europe, as well as in Asia and Latin America, is a feature of ICCS that will allow researchers to exploit the ICCS database for European countries and address region-specific aspects of civic and citizenship education.

CHAPTER 1:

Introduction

This is a report on findings from the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) for 24 countries that participated in the study's data collection on specific issues for the European region. ICCS included a European student instrument that investigated specific European issues related to civic and citizenship education. This European report should be viewed in the context of other publications on ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010a, 2010b).

ICCS examined the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens. It investigated student knowledge and understanding as well as student attitudes, perceptions, and activities related to civics and citizenship. Since the CIVED study in the late 1990s, the regional context has been increasingly recognized as an important aspect for civic and citizenship education in general as well as with regard to its influence on where and how people undertake their roles as citizens. In recognition of this development, ICCS initiated regional modules for Europe, Latin America, and Asia as part of the study. Within each module, regional student assessment instruments were developed that were administered to sampled students after they had completed the international assessment.

ICCS countries from each region elected whether to participate in the relevant regional module. Twenty-four of the 26 European countries involved in ICCS decided to take part in the European module. The exceptions were Norway and the Russian Federation.[1] The European module investigated students' knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship in a European context and their perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors in relation to specific European-related civic and political issues, institutions, and policies.

The *ICCS 2009 European Report* examines differences across countries in these European-specific outcomes. It also examines variations across European countries in the associations between these outcome variables as well as with selected student characteristics. The data presented in this report were collected by way of the regional European as well international instruments.

The findings from the European ICCS module reported in this publication emerged from data gathered from more than 75,000 students in their eighth year of schooling in more than 3,000 schools from 24 European countries. These student data were augmented, where relevant, by data from over 35,000 teachers in those schools. Further contextual data were collected from school principals and national research centers.

Background

ICCS builds on the previous IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) studies of civic education, including the IEA Civic Education Study (CIVED), which was carried out in 1999 (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001; Torney-Purta, Schwille, & Amadeo, 1999).

The regional context in Europe in the 1990s had a strong influence on the scope and shape of CIVED (Fratczak-Rudnicka & Torney-Purta, 2001). A number of developments in Europe combined to reinforce the need for such a study. These included:

- The rapid downfall of Communist regimes in Eastern and Central Europe and their replacement by "new democracies" with fledgling civic and political institutions, processes, and cultures.
- Concern in older, established democracies in Western, Northern, and Southern Europe

1 The national research coordinators (NRCs) from Norway and the Russian Federation were involved in initial discussions about the scope and shape of the European module before their countries decided not to participate in the module.

about declining levels of conventional political participation and civic engagement across society, particularly among young people.

- Increasing concerns in and across European countries about how to educate people, particularly young people, for the rapid political, economic, and social changes taking place in society and for their roles and responsibilities as citizens.
- Calls from policy-makers in Europe and elsewhere for up-to-date information about levels of civic knowledge and about civic attitudes and behaviors among young people in their own country—information that would help inform policy decisions.

CIVED findings have had a considerable influence on civic and citizenship education policies, practices, and research in Europe, as well as in other parts of the world (Birzea et al., 2004; Hoskins, Villalba, Van Nijlen, & Barber, 2008; Kerr, 2008; Kerr, Ireland, Lopes, Craig, & Cleaver, 2004; Menezes, Ferreira, Carneiro, & Cruz, 2004; Sherrod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010; Torney-Purta, 2002a).

In the 10 years since CIVED, there has been rapid and extensive change in civics and citizenship in Europe. That change has brought considerably altered contexts and new challenges for countries in Europe. These include:

- *A changing notion of citizenship:* citizenship and citizenship rights have traditionally been granted through residence in a sovereign national state. However, globalization has brought new forms of citizenship rights at the regional and international levels, such as those conferred on citizens living in a European Union (EU) member state through the Treaty of European Union in 1992 (better known as the Maastricht Treaty) and further codified in the Treaty of Lisbon in 2009. These citizenship rights are conferred on citizens as individuals rather than as national subjects (i.e., nationality conferred on the basis of the individual's particular country of birth and/or residence). At regional level, this situation has led to increasing discussion of the balance to be struck between citizenship as status, through nationality, and citizenship as identity, including the added dimension of European citizenship (Delanty, 2007; Hooghe & Claes, 2009).
- *A more flexible concept of identity:* the reality that people belong to a range of communities at different levels—local, national, regional, and international (Castles & Davidson, 2000)—has brought increased calls to recognize more flexible, hybrid identities and loyalties based on notions such as "cosmopolitan citizenship" (Appiah, 2006; Osler & Starkey, 2008).[2] In Europe, this reality has led to increasing debate about how the concept of "European identity" sits alongside other identities and loyalties.
- *Changes in the external threats to the security of civil societies:* increases in terrorist attacks across the globe have initiated debates about the response that civil societies should take. In the European region, the bombings on European soil in Beslan (Russia), London (England), and Madrid (Spain) have heightened debate in European countries about how to respond to the global "War on Terror" and to incidents at local and national levels. Part of this response has seen greater importance attached to civic and citizenship education by countries and European institutions as a preventative measure (Ben-Porath, 2006; Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe/CIDREE, 2005; Davies, 2008).
- *The migration of peoples within and across continents and countries:* migration, often driven by economic and political imperatives to find work and/or escape ethnic, religious, and/or cultural tensions, has brought challenges concerning equality, equity, diversity, intercultural relations, and community cohesion at all levels of society (Soysal, 1994; Tutiaux-Guillon,

2 Osler and Starkey (2008) define education for cosmopolitan citizenship as being about equipping young people with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable them to make a difference.

2002). At the level of the geographic region, the movement of peoples into some European countries from former colonies, as well the recent increased movement of people across countries in Europe, particularly from some Eastern European to Western European countries, has led to more multicultural communities in European countries. These developments have brought challenges relating to the question of how to balance the rights, cultures, and traditions of diverse groups in society, including those from minority and majority groupings. A particular focus in European countries and among European institutions is the role of education in facilitating cohesion in society (Ajegbo, Kiwan, & Sharma, 2007; Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science, 2004; Osler & Starkey, 2005).

- *Challenges to democratic society:* there is ongoing concern in all societies about falling levels of political and community engagement, particularly among young people, and the impact of growing social and economic inequalities. At the regional level in the more established democracies in Western, Northern, and Southern Europe, disquiet is particularly evident in relation to declining participation in formal political processes, including lower turnout in local, national, and European elections. In the new democracies in Central and Eastern Europe, concern focuses on the stability of the new regimes and democratic processes. Attempts to counter these concerns center on efforts to promote active citizenship programs at both country and European levels.
- *Rapidity of the modernization and globalization of societies:* these changes, manifest in greater access to new technologies and media, and increasing consumer consumption, are encouraging new patterns of communication among citizens. In Europe, these developments have raised concerns about the fragmentation of traditional forms of community life and the growth of individualism. However, they also have opened up possibilities for increased language learning (multilingualism), digital and media proficiency, and intercultural activities (Coleman & Blumer, 2009; Osler & Vincent, 2002; Roth & Burbules, 2007; Zadja, 2009).
- *Strengthening of Europe as an economic and political bloc and increased European cooperation:* the challenge of emerging economies in other parts of the world has strengthened the argument for greater economic, political, and social cooperation among European countries. While these increased efforts to build European cooperation have facilitated the growth of European institutions and increasing convergence of European policies and processes, they have not been without their difficulties. This convergence includes developments such as EU enlargement, the spread of the euro, the signing of the Lisbon Treaty (2009) by EU member states, and a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training in EU member states (known as "ET 2020"). For example, the Lisbon Treaty made the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU legally binding. The charter enshrines, in law, certain political, social, and economic rights for EU citizens and residents. There is considerable discussion in Europe about how to strike balance between local, national, and European interests and priorities, and about the extent of European cooperation and policy convergence within and beyond the EU.

In the context of European civic and citizenship education, there has been extensive activity over the past 10 years in response to these changes. This activity has taken place at local, national, and European levels. The general aim of this activity has been to help prepare people, particularly young people, to respond positively to change and work in order to strengthen and build safe, secure, democratic communities and societies. Engagement in high-quality lifelong learning, particularly by young people, is widely seen as critical to the future political, economic, and social success of Europe in a rapidly changing world, and, in particular, to

allowing people to participate fully in society. European countries and institutions are placing increasing emphasis on activities concerning the promotion of active citizenship, equity, and social cohesion, and the improvement of education and training.

Also evident is a growing emphasis on countries and European institutions working together and learning from one another with regard to civic and citizenship education. The intention has been to encourage countries and institutions to work more closely in addressing common priority areas such as active citizenship, social cohesion, and mobility, where there is shared benefit from such cooperation. Cooperation also involves raising awareness about Europe—about European laws and policies and about European programs and initiatives—in relation to local and national contexts, and seeking to develop what has been termed "European literacy"[3] (Georgi, 2008).

The last decade has also seen European countries and institutions engaged in considerable activity related to education and training for civic and citizenship education. This activity has included:

- Initiation of programs and policies, such as linking and active citizenship programs, that encourage exchanges of information about people and their expertise;
- Creation of networks of policy-makers and practitioners, such as the Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights (EDC/HRE) national coordinators network and active citizenship expert group;
- Development of frameworks, resources, and toolkits, such as the Framework Convention for EDC/HRE and the EDC/HRE toolkit for policy-makers (Kerr & Losito, forthcoming);
- Identification of key competences for lifelong learning, including "social and civic competences" and "cultural awareness and expression," and;
- Commissioning of research and surveys that provide information on the progress and impact of policies and programs on the attitudes and behaviors of young people.

Research conducted in recent years on civic and citizenship education in Europe has provided greater insights into the following:

- The gaps between policy declarations and curriculum provision, between the intended and the implemented curriculum, and between theory and practice (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005);
- Conceptualization of citizenship in schools with respect to curriculum, school culture, and the wider community (Huddleston & Kerr, 2006);
- How to define and measure progress on civic competence and active citizenship across European countries (Hoskins et al., 2006);
- Those young people who are the most active in relation to European and international aspects of citizenship education (Maslowski, Naayer, Oonk, & van der Werf, 2009; Oonk, 2004, 2007);
- The emphasis being given to active and experiential teaching and learning in civic and citizenship education (Ross, 2009); and
- The factors that support effective citizenship education (Craig, Kerr, Wade, & Taylor, 2005; Keating, Kerr, Lopes, Featherstone, & Benton, 2009).

3 European literacy refers to learning about public and political life in Europe and developing civic and citizenship knowledge, understanding, skills, values, attitudes, and behaviors that enable people to be active and informed citizens.

The rapid change and developments in the European region have, in combination, had a number of impacts. These include:

- Increased cooperation and collaboration and the sharing of experience and expertise on civics and citizenship within and across countries and across Europe;
- Strengthening of the evidence base for policy-makers, practitioners, and researchers on civic and citizenship education;
- A broadening of the nature of discourse about civics and citizenship in Europe; and
- Keeping this area of education at the forefront of political and policy priorities in European countries, among European institutions, and at the European level.

One consequence of this activity has been an expansion in what is meant by *civic and citizenship education* and of the practices relating to it. In this report (as in all ICCS reports), the term civic and citizenship education is deliberately used to emphasize this broadening of the concept, processes, and practices that have occurred in this area of education in the past decade and a half.

Many European countries and European institutions, when describing policy and practice in this area, now use either the narrower term *civic education* alongside civic and citizenship education or have superseded the latter with the broader term *citizenship education*. In this study, civic education focuses on knowledge and understanding of formal institutions and processes of civic life (such as voting in elections). The term citizenship education focuses on knowledge and understanding of broader aspects of participation and engagement in both civic and civil society.[4] It is concerned with the wider range of ways through which citizens interact with and shape their communities (including schools) and societies.

A further consequence of the changed context since CIVED is that of policy-makers and researchers wanting to know more about civic knowledge and civic attitudes and behaviors, particularly among young people. There is growing interest in knowing more about the knowledge, attitudes, and values of young people in relation to increased European cooperation and policy convergence, particularly on issues such as European citizenship and identity, further enlargement of the EU, common European currency, the mobility of people across European borders, and the promotion of social cohesion and equity. Policy-makers, in particular, are interested in having up-to-date knowledge and information to help inform policy decisions that address the new contexts and challenges facing democracy and citizenship at local, national, and European levels.

The European report and ICCS research questions

The research questions underpinning ICCS are those concerning students' civic and citizenship knowledge, dispositions to engage, and attitudes related to civic and citizenship education. The ICCS assessment framework (Schulz et al., 2008) describes the development of these questions. The framework also gives more details about the questions and outlines the variables necessary for analyses associated with the questions. Further details of the specific European-related civics and citizenship issues addressed through the European module appear later in this chapter.

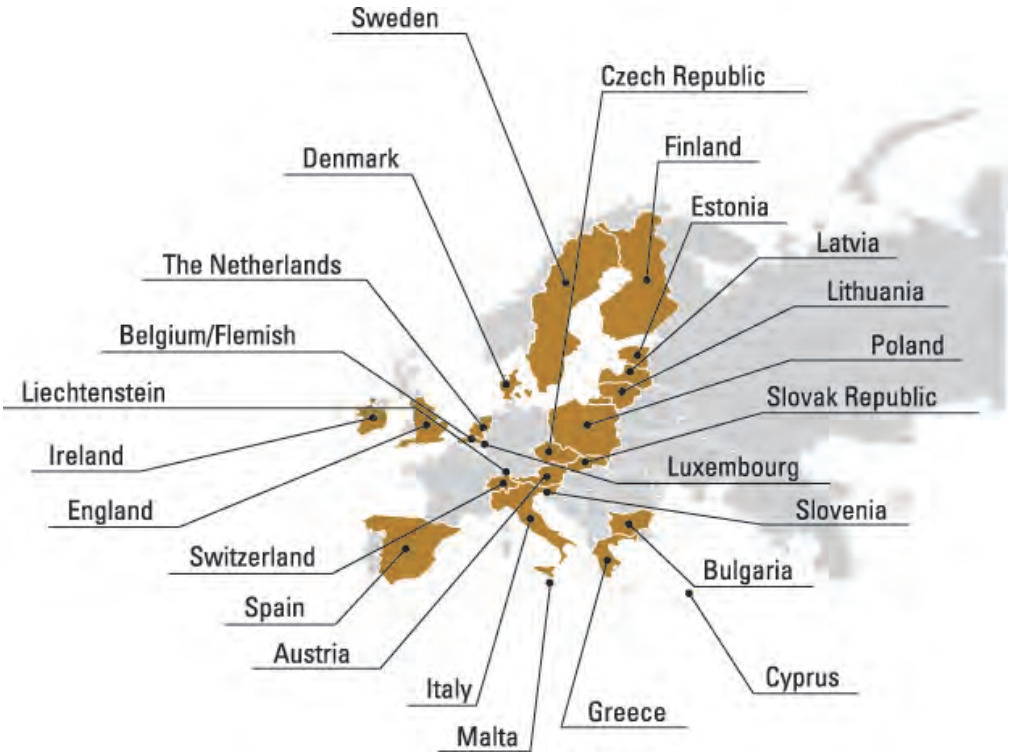
4 *Civil society* refers to the sphere of society in which connections among people are at a level larger than that of the extended family but do not include connections to the state. *Civic society* refers to any community in which connections among people are at a level larger than that of the extended family (including the state). Civic also refers to the principles, mechanisms, and processes of decision-making, participation, governance, and legislative control that exist in these communities.

Participating countries, population, and sample design

Thirty-eight countries[5] participated in ICCS. Among these were 26 from Europe, six from Latin America, five from Asia, and one from Australasia. Twenty-four of the 26 countries from Europe (the exceptions were Norway and the Russian Federation) decided to participate in the European module. As occurs with other IEA studies, IEA invited all countries affiliated with the association to participate. The authorities in each invited country decided whether their country should participate or not.

Figure 1 lists the countries that participated in the European module and shows their geographical position on a map of Europe. We provide more detailed information about the contexts for civic and citizenship education in these countries in Chapter 2 of this report.

Figure 1.1: Countries participating in the European ICCS 2009 module



This report draws primarily on data from the ICCS student population and is augmented by data from the ICCS teacher survey. The ICCS student population was students in Grade 8 (students approximately 14 years of age), provided that the average age of students in this grade was 13.5 years or above at the time of the assessment. If the average age of students in Grade 8 was below 13.5 years, Grade 9 became the target population.

The population for the ICCS teacher survey was defined as all teachers teaching regular school subjects to the students in the target grade (generally Grade 8) at each sampled school. It included only those teachers who were teaching the target grade during the testing period and who had been employed at school since the beginning of the school year.

5 A few of the entities that participated in ICCS are distinct education systems within countries. The term "country" in this report refers to both countries and other entities within countries that participated in the study.

The samples were designed as two-stage cluster samples. During the first stage of sampling, PPS (probability proportional to size as measured by the number of students enrolled in a school) procedures were used to sample schools within each country. The numbers required in the sample to achieve the necessary precision were estimated on the basis of national characteristics. However, as a guide, each country was told to plan for a minimum sample size of 150 schools. The sampling of schools constituted the first stage of sampling both students and teachers.

Within each sampled and participating school, an intact class from the target grade was sampled randomly, and all students in that class were surveyed. The overall student samples in the countries that sampled 150 schools ranged in numbers from between 3,000 and 4,500 students. Table A.1 in Appendix A documents the coverage of the target population and the achieved samples for each country.

Up to 15 teachers were selected at random from all teachers teaching the target grade at each sampled school. In schools with 20 or fewer such teachers, all teachers were invited to participate. In schools with 21 or more such teachers, 15 teachers were sampled at random. Because of the intention that teacher information should not be linked to individual students, teachers from civic-related and non-civic-related subjects were surveyed. This approach differs from that used in CIVED, where nearly all of the teachers surveyed were in fields such as the humanities and social sciences.

The participation rates required for each country were 85 percent of the selected schools and 85 percent of the selected students within the participating schools, or a weighted overall participation rate of 75 percent. The same criteria were applied to the teacher sample, but the coverage was judged independently of those for the student sample. In the tables in this report, we use annotations to identify those countries that met these response rates only after bringing in replacement schools; countries that did not meet the response rates, even after replacement, are reported separately below the main section of each table.

The scope of the European module

The point of reference for the development of regional modules, including the European module, was the ICCS assessment framework (Schulz et al., 2008). The framework provided a conceptual basis that guided the scope and content for the region-specific assessment for the European countries.

Although the assessment framework determined the broad scope and content for the European module, determination of which specific European-related issues to address in the module was strongly influenced by the regional context for civics and citizenship in Europe over the past 10 years.

All 26 European countries participating in ICCS showed an initial interest in the module and 24 of them participated in it. Several general parameters were set for the development of the European module. These were as follows:

- The purpose of the European module was to investigate specific European-related civics and citizenship issues deriving from the overarching assessment framework;
- The specific European-related issues to be addressed in the module were to be informed by our understanding of European developments and by previous research as well as by the interests of the European countries participating in ICCS;
- The majority of items and questions in the European module would be new ones for ICCS and would therefore require piloting and trialing in advance of the main study;
- There would be a need to strike a balance in the module between the cognitive and attitudinal components appropriate for the ICCS target grade (Grade 8); and

- The module had to be accessible by all participating countries, including EU member states, European Economic Area (EEA) and accession countries, and non-EU countries.

ICCS researchers began the process of developing the European module by identifying potential specific European-related civics and citizenship issues for inclusion and mapping them against the cognitive and affective-behavioral domains in the ICCS assessment framework. This process of identification and mapping was informed by contributions from individual European countries as well as from cross-national European groups.

Researchers then discussed this mapping in a series of meetings with the European national research coordinators (NRCs). These meetings led to decisions about the scope and content of the European module. The decision relating to scope was that the module would have two components—a European cognitive test, and a European student questionnaire.

It was decided that the European cognitive test would comprise items that tested *Cognitive Domain 1: Knowing*. Content would focus on knowledge of the EU and its policies, institutions, practices, and processes.[6] It would also address students' civic knowledge in relation to the EU, specifically basic facts about the union and about its laws and policies, and the euro currency.

The European student questionnaire would comprise items that addressed students' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors in relation to five specific European-related civics and citizenship issues: European citizenship and identity; intercultural relations in Europe; free movement of citizens in Europe; European political policies, institutions, and participation; and European language learning.

Data collection and instruments

The ICCS data collection took place in the 24 countries that participated in the European module between February and June 2009.

The following instruments were administered to students who were sampled for ICCS in these countries:

- *The international student cognitive test:* this consisted of 80 items measuring civic and citizenship knowledge, analysis, and reasoning. The assessment items were assigned to seven booklets (each of which contained three of a total seven item-clusters) according to a balanced rotated design (see Table A.2 in Appendix A). Each student completed one of the 45-minute booklets. The cognitive items were generally presented with contextual material that served as a brief introduction to each item or set of items.
- *An international student questionnaire:* the questionnaire, which took 40 minutes to complete, was used to obtain student perceptions about civics and citizenship as well as information about each student's background.
- *A European student cognitive test:* this took 12 minutes to complete.
- *A European student questionnaire:* this took 17 minutes to complete.

The overall assessment time for students in these countries was thus about two hours. Students responded first to the international cognitive test and then the international student questionnaire followed by the European test and questionnaire.

ICCS also included a set of international instruments designed to gather information from and about teachers, schools, and education systems. The set consisted of the following:

- *A teacher questionnaire:* this took 30 minutes to complete and asked respondents to give their perceptions of civic and citizenship education in their schools and to provide information about their schools' organization and culture as well their own teaching assignments and backgrounds.

6 It was difficult to identify any particular European dimension to *Cognitive Domain 2: Analysing and reasoning.* It was also felt that this domain was sufficiently well covered in the international cognitive test.

- *A school questionnaire:* principals were asked to provide information about school characteristics, school culture and climate, and the provision of civic and citizenship education in the school. This questionnaire also took 30 minutes to complete.

National research coordinators (NRCs) coordinated the information procured from national experts in response to an online national contexts survey. This information concerned the structure of the education system, civic and citizenship education in the national curricula, and recent developments in civic and citizenship education.

Development of the international and European ICCS instruments was conducted in three phases:

- The first phase consisted of the writing of test and questionnaire items guided by the ICCS assessment framework, and it included smaller pilots in some of the participating countries as well as extensive consultations with the national project coordinators and expert consultants.
- The second phase comprised the implementation of an international field trial in all participating countries and analysis of the data collected from smaller samples of schools, students, and teachers. The results from the field trial for the European regional test items showed that there was a need for augmentation in terms of including more multiple-choice items. ICCS researchers accordingly conducted a pilot in some of the participating European countries, the results of which were used to help build the final European test instrument.
- The third phase included a final revision of the material in light of the field trial results and further feedback from national centers and expert consultants.

Given the importance of ensuring comparability and appropriateness of the measures in this study for such a diverse range of participating countries, the ICCS field trial data were used for a thorough review of cross-national validity both for test and questionnaire items.[7]

European report context and scope

This report on findings from the European ICCS module is one of a series of publications on ICCS and its findings. It should be read alongside the initial international findings report (Schulz et al., 2010a), the extended ICCS international report (Schulz et al., 2010b), and the regional reports for Asia and Latin America. These reports will be complemented by the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming) as well as by the ICCS international database and user guide. A compilation of accounts of policy and practice in civic and citizenship education in each of the participating countries is also scheduled. The compilation will take the form of an ICCS encyclopedia.

This present report has eight chapters. Because these follow the aspects addressed by the European instrument, we first present in each chapter the data and findings from the European and then the ICCS international cognitive tests followed by data and findings from the European and then the international student questionnaires. Each chapter concludes with a summary of findings.

In Chapter 2, we summarize the national contexts for civic and citizenship education in the 24 European countries that participated in the European module. We address basic demographic, economic, and political features, including information about the position of countries in relation to European institutions and policies, such as EU and eurozone membership length

7 Examples of the different methodological approaches that were employed to assess measurement equivalence of questionnaire scales are described in Schulz (2009).

and status. We also provide information about the countries' education systems and how these countries approach civic and citizenship education.

In Chapter 3, we report on data and findings from the international and European cognitive tests. The European cognitive test did not have satisfactory scaling properties that would have allowed us to establish a common scale reflecting knowledge about the EU. Therefore, in order to examine students' knowledge of facts about the EU and its institutions, of EU laws and policies, of the euro currency, and of EU institutions, we report item results separately.

Chapters 4 to 7 of this report concern the affective and behavioral aspects of civics and citizenship. In these chapters, we set out the data and findings from the European student questionnaire. We describe and analyze the variation across European countries in students' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors relative to specific European-related civics and citizenship issues as well as in students' present and intended future civic participation in Europe. Where relevant, we set this information within the broader context of data and findings from the ICCS international questionnaires.

Chapter 4 examines the regional priority of students' civic identity and attitudes, particularly their sense of European citizenship and identity, including that of sense of belonging to the EU. We compare students' attitudes toward Europe with those toward their own country. We also, for some attitudes, review differences with regard to gender and immigrant background. We furthermore, in this chapter, detail students' attitudes toward convergence of European policies concerning unification, enlargement, and currency integration, and we compare students' levels of trust in key European political institutions with their levels of trust in other institutions.

In Chapter 5, we report on regional priorities concerning intercultural relations in Europe, free movement of citizens in Europe, and European language learning. Students' views on equal rights for groups in Europe are set against their attitudes toward rights for ethnic/racial groups and immigrants. We conclude the chapter by examining students' ratings of their ability to understand and communicate in languages spoken in European countries and students' attitudes toward those languages.

Chapter 6 focuses on the regional priority of students' interest and attitudes in relation to European political policies, institutions, and participation. We focus, in particular, on students' civic engagement and participation, as well as their future civic participation, in relation to European events, issues, and activities. Much of the data concerns students' attitudes toward and involvement in such opportunities outside of school, in the wider community. We end the chapter by comparing students' expected participation in European elections with students' intended voting behavior in local and national elections.

Chapter 7 addresses aspects of school and community contexts related to civic and citizenship education. We describe variation in school and community contexts through reference to students' participation in civic-related activities in the local community that are pertinent to Europe, the aims of civic and citizenship education, and teachers' self-confidence in teaching about the EU.

In the final chapter, Chapter 8, we summarize the main findings from the preceding chapters that are specific to Europe, and then conclude the chapter, and the report, with a discussion of possible implications of these findings for policy and practice in Europe.

CHAPTER 2:

Contexts for civic and citizenship education in Europe

Introduction and context

This chapter draws on data from the ICCS national contexts survey, and other published sources, to provide information about contexts for and approaches to civic and citizenship education in the 24 European countries that participated in the European ICCS regional module. It provides information that helps to situate the findings from the European module set out in the other chapters in this report.

As emphasized in the ICCS assessment framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008) and in the extended international report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010b), a study of civic-related learning outcomes and indicators of civic engagement needs to be set in the context of the factors or variables influencing them. It is important to recognize that a number of variables, located at different levels of influence, are associated with young people's civic knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship and their attitudes, perceptions, and activities in relation to this area.

The contextual framework for ICCS recognizes four overlapping levels of influence:

- *Context of the wider community:* this refers to the wider context within which schools and home environments work. Factors can be found at local, regional, and national levels as well as transnational groupings of countries.
- *Context of schools and classrooms:* the factors under consideration here are those related to the overall school culture, the general school environment, and the instruction that the school provides.
- *Context of home environments:* factors referred to here are those related to the home background and the out-of-school social environment of the student. These factors include family background, such as parental occupation and education, immigrant status, and communication in the home about social and political issues.
- *Context of the individual:* the variables considered here are the individual characteristics of the student, such as age and gender.

The content of this chapter relates mainly to Research Question 5—"What aspects of schools and education systems are related to knowledge about, and attitudes to, civics and citizenship?"—and, in particular, to its sub-question on countries' general approaches to civic and citizenship education, curriculum, and/or program content structure and delivery. In this chapter, we examine the means by which students in the European ICCS countries learn about civics and citizenship and develop related attitudes and dispositions. These may be influenced by national context variables that include both general characteristics, such as demographics, economic development, or indicators of the political system, as well as by more specific variables related to the implementation of civic and citizenship education.

The data considered in this chapter were collected in two ways. The first involved drawing information from published sources about the basic demographic, economic, political, and educational characteristics of the 24 European ICCS countries. The second approach involved drawing more detailed information about the nature of civic and citizenship education in the education systems of the 24 countries from the ICCS national contexts survey. Each national ICCS center called on expertise within its country to complete the survey. We emphasize here that the information the centers gathered does not necessarily reflect the content of their respective countries' official documents on civic and citizenship education.

We have divided this chapter into three sections. In the first, we detail the background and purpose of the national contexts survey. Chapter 2 of the extended ICCS international report (Schulz et al., 2010b) contains a fuller explanation. In the second, we present summary information relating to the population, the economy, and political and education systems of each of the 24 countries, as well as their characteristics in terms of the European political system. Examples of these characteristics are European Union (EU) and eurozone membership, and turnout in European elections. In the third section of the chapter, we describe the key variables in the national contexts survey data associated with national approaches to civic and citizenship education.

Collecting data on contexts for civic and citizenship education in Europe

IEA studies on civic and citizenship education highlight the ways students develop civic-related dispositions and acquire knowledge and understanding with regard to their roles as citizens. The findings of these studies reveal that variables found at the country or national level strongly influence this development.

CIVED adopted a two-phase approach to its data collection. During the first phase, the data collected concerned civic education at the national level. These data were then used to build national case studies and to inform the construction of the data-collection instruments for the second phase of the study (Torney-Purta, Schwille, & Amadeo, 1999).

The research team responsible for ICCS decided that collecting information about the context of the wider community at national and regional levels was important but did not necessitate a separate first phase, as had occurred with CIVED. Because much of the information about the context of the wider community for civic and citizenship education was already in the public domain, the ICCS team agreed that they needed only to update that information. The first phase of CIVED, in particular, covered much of the required information, and it was followed by a number of European studies, at individual country and trans-national level, that also focused on the country context (Birzea et al., 2004; Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education/CIDREE, 2005; Eurydice, 2005; Georgi, 2008; Kerr, Keating, & Ireland, 2009). The ICCS researchers therefore decided to focus their main effort on developing and implementing an online national contexts survey to be completed by national research coordinators (NRCs) with assistance from people throughout each country indentified as having expertise in the area of civics and citizenship.

The survey was designed to collect relevant detailed data from each country on the following: the structure of the education system, education policy related to civics and citizenship education, school curriculum approaches to civics and citizenship education, approaches to teacher training and assessment in relation to civic and citizenship education, and the extent of current debates and reforms in this area. The NRCs completed the national contexts survey at the start of ICCS. They then updated the information gained from it toward the end of the study so as to ensure the data for their respective countries were up to date for the year in which the student, school, and teacher data were collected (i.e., either 2008 or 2009).

Basic characteristics of the European ICCS countries

Collecting selected basic information about the demographic and economic characteristics of European ICCS countries as well as about their political and education systems is useful for two reasons, First, these factors can influence educational policies and decision-making, in general, and in areas such as civic and citizenship education, in particular. Second, this information aids understanding of the data collected from students, teachers, and schools as well as of data obtained from the national contexts survey.

Table 2.1 presents selected information about the demographic and economic characteristics of the 24 European ICCS countries. As can be seen, the countries vary considerably in population size, with both large countries, such as Italy (population over 58 million), and small countries, such as Liechtenstein (population approximately 35,000), participating in the study. Diversity in the country scores and rankings for the European countries on the Human Development Index (HDI) is not as great as that for all countries involved in ICCS. Eighteen countries have a very high HDI and six have a high HDI. They range from the fifth-ranked country, Ireland, to Bulgaria, which holds the 61st position in the ranking.

Table 2.1 also shows considerable variation across the European ICCS countries with respect to economic characteristics, as measured by the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (in US dollars). This index established Denmark, Ireland, and Luxembourg as having relatively high GDP per capita and Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland as having lower GDP per capita. We caution, however, that these rankings on the HDI and GDP may have changed as a consequence of the global financial crisis.

Table 2.2 presents selected general political characteristics of European ICCS countries. These feature legal voting age, whether voting is compulsory, and voter turnout at the last legislative election. Information about voter turnout at the last European election is presented in Table 2.3. Also provided in Table 2.2 is information about the number of political parties in parliament and the percentage of seats held by women in parliament.

There is considerable variation in when and how much voters engage with the political system as well as in how the system is structured across European ICCS countries. For example, the age at which people are legally entitled to vote in elections is 18 in the majority of countries, with the exception of Austria, where it is 16. Slovenia presents the most unusual approach. In this country, voting is legal at age 18, but if people are in paid employment, they can vote from age 16. Voting is universal in all countries but compulsory in four: Belgium (Flemish), Cyprus, Greece, and Luxembourg. However, the extent to which these countries enforce compulsory voting varies across them.

Table 2.2 furthermore shows voter turnout in the last election ranging from over 93 percent in Malta and Belgium (Flemish) to 48 and 49 percent in Switzerland and Lithuania, respectively, the number of political parties in Parliament ranging from 2 in Malta to 12 in Switzerland, and the percentage of seats held by women in parliament ranging from 9 percent in Malta to 47 percent in Sweden.

As we noted in Chapter 1, one of the changes in Europe over the last 10 years has been the expansion and strengthening of European political institutions and policies. The period has seen growth of the EU, with the granting of EU membership to a number of countries from central and Eastern Europe, and the spread of the euro as the official single currency in many EU countries.

Table 2.3 sets out selected European political characteristics of the European ICCS countries, including EU membership (yes/no), the year a country joined the EU, whether the country belongs to the eurozone (yes/no), and the voter turnout (in percentages) at the last European Parliament election. The table shows that the European countries that participated in ICCS are relatively homegenous. For example, the majority of countries are members of the EU, with the exception of Liechtenstein and Switzerland. However, the length of time these countries have been members varies considerably. Four countries that were founders of closer European cooperation—Belgium (Flemish), Italy, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands—have been members since the 1950s, whereas the newer members joined the union post-2000. They include the nine countries that joined the EU in 2004 (Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, the Slovak Republic, and Slovenia) and the latest member state, Bulgaria, which joined in 2007.

Table 2.1: Selected demographic and economic characteristics of European ICCS countries

Country	Population Size (in thousands)	Human Development Index (value, rank, and category)			Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per Capita (in $US)
Austria	8,214	0.955	(14)	Very high	44,879
Belgium (Flemish)	6,162 [a]	0.953 [b]	(17)	Very high	42,609 [b]
Bulgaria	7,149	0.840	(61)	High	5,163
Cyprus	1,103	0.914	(32)	Very high	24,895
Czech Republic	10,202	0.903	(36)	Very high	16,934
Denmark	5,516	0.955	(16)	Very high	57,051
England	51,446 [c]	0.947 [d]	(21)	Very high	45,442 [d]
Estonia	1,291	0.883	(40)	High	15,578
Finland	5,255	0.959	(12)	Very high	46,261
Greece	10,750	0.942	(25)	Very high	27,995
Ireland	4,623	0.965	(5)	Very high	59,324
Italy	58,091	0.951	(18)	Very high	35,396
Latvia	2,218	0.866	(48)	High	11,930
Liechtenstein	35	0.951	(19)	Very high	Data not available
Lithuania	3,545	0.870	(46)	High	11,356
Luxembourg	498	0.960	(11)	Very high	103,042
Malta	407	0.902	(38)	Very high	18,203
Netherlands	16,783	0.964	(6)	Very high	46,750
Poland	38,464	0.880	(41)	High	11,072
Slovak Republic	5,470	0.880	(42)	High	13,891
Slovenia	2,003	0.929	(29)	Very high	23,379
Spain	46,506	0.955	(15)	Very high	32,017
Sweden	9,074	0.963	(7)	Very high	49,662
Switzerland	7,623	0.960	(9)	Very high	56,207

Notes:

Data for population size relate to 2010 unless otherwise stated and were taken from the U.S. Census Bureau, Population Division.
Data for Human Development Index and for Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per Capita were taken from the *Human Development Report 2009* and relate to 2007.

[a] Data relate to 2008. *Source:* http://statbel.fgov.be/de/statistiken/zahlen/population/structure/residence/index.jsp [09/09/2010].
[b] Data refer to the whole of Belgium.
[c] Data relate to 2008. *Source:* http://www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme_compendia/AA2010/aa2010final.pdf (Table 5.5) [09/09/2010].
[d] Data refer to the whole of the United Kingdom.

Sources:

U.S. Census Bureau, Population Division: http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idb/
Human Development Report 2009—total population (millions): http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/135.html
Human Development Report 2009—Human Development Index: http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/87.html
Human Development Report 2009—GDP per capita (US$): http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/152.html

Table 2.2: Selected political characteristics of European ICCS countries

Country	Legal Age of Voting	Compulsory Voting (Y/N)	Voter Turnout at Last Legislative Election (%)	Number of Political Parties in Parliament	% Seats Held by Women in Parliament
Austria	16	No	81.7	5 [a]	27 [a]
Belgium (Flemish)	18	Yes	93.1 [a]	8 [b]	41 [b]
Bulgaria	18	No	55.8	6	21
Cyprus	18	Yes	89.0	6	14
Czech Republic	18	No	64.5	5 [a]	22 [a]
Denmark	18	No	86.6	8	37
England	18	No	61.4 [c]	11 [a, c]	22 [a, c]
Estonia	18	No	61.9	6	24
Finland	18	No	65.0	8	42
Greece	18	Yes	74.1	5	17
Ireland	18	No	67.0	6 [a]	13 [a]
Italy	18	No	80.5	9 [a]	21 [a]
Latvia	18	No	61.0	7	19
Liechtenstein	18	No	84.6	3	24
Lithuania	18	No	48.6	10	18
Luxembourg	18	Yes	91.7	6	25
Malta	18	No	93.3	2	9
Netherlands	18	No	80.4	10 [a]	41 [a]
Poland	18	No	53.9	5 [a]	20 [a]
Slovak Republic	18	No	54.7	6	15
Slovenia	18 [d]	No	63.1	8 [a]	13 [a]
Spain	18	No	75.3	10 [a]	36 [a]
Sweden	18	No	82.0	7	47
Switzerland	18	No	48.3	12 [a]	30 [a]

Notes:

Data for legal age of voting and whether compulsory were correct as of June 2010 and were taken from *CIA World Factbook*.
Data for voter turnout relate to elections held between 2004–2009 and were taken from the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA).
Data relating to the number of political parties in parliament were correct from the date of the last parliamentary election in country and were taken from IPU PARLINE database on national parliaments. Alliances of a number of small parties may be counted as just one party.
Data for percentage of seats held by women in parliament were correct as of date of last parliamentary election in country and were taken from IPU PARLINE database on national parliaments.

[a] Bicameral structured parliament. Data refer to Lower House.
[b] Data refer to the Flemish regional parliament. *Source:* http://polling2009.belgium.be/.
[c] Data refer to the whole of the United Kingdom.
[d] Legal age of voting is 16 when in employment.

Sources:

CIA World Factbook—field listing—suffrage: https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2123.html [09/06/2010].
International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA)—parliamentary—voter turnout: http://www.idea.int/uid/fieldview.cfm?field=221 [09/06/2010].
IPU PARLINE database on national parliaments—number of political parties in parliament: http://www.ipu.org/parline-e/parlinesearch.asp [08/09/2010]
IPU PARLINE database on national parliaments—seats in parliament (% held by women): http://www.ipu.org/parline-e/parlinesearch.asp. [08/09/2010].

Table 2.3: Selected European political characteristics of European ICCS countries

Country	EU Member	Year Joined EU	Eurozone Member	Year Joined Eurozone	Voter Turnout at Last European Election (%)
Austria	Yes	1995	Yes	1999	46.0
Belgium (Flemish)	Yes	1957 Founding member	Yes	1999	90.4 [a]
Bulgaria	Yes	2007	No	N/A	40.0
Cyprus	Yes	2004	Yes	2008	59.4
Czech Republic	Yes	2004	No	N/A	28.2
Denmark	Yes	1973	No	N/A	59.5
England	Yes	1973	No	N/A	34.7 [b]
Estonia	Yes	2004	No	N/A	43.9
Finland	Yes	1995	Yes	1999	40.3
Greece	Yes	1981	Yes	2001	52.6
Ireland	Yes	1973	Yes	1999	58.6
Italy	Yes	1957 founding member	Yes	1999	65.1
Latvia	Yes	2004	No	N/A	53.7
Liechtenstein	No	N/A	No	N/A	N/A
Lithuania	Yes	2004	No	N/A	21.0
Luxembourg	Yes	1957 founding member	Yes	1999	90.8
Malta	Yes	2004	Yes	2008	78.8
Netherlands	Yes	1957 founding member	Yes	1999	36.8
Poland	Yes	2004	No	N/A	24.5
Slovak Republic	Yes	2004	Yes	2009	19.6
Slovenia	Yes	2004	Yes	2007	28.3
Spain	Yes	1986	Yes	1999	44.9
Sweden	Yes	1995	No	N/A	45.5
Switzerland	No	N/A	No	N/A	N/A

Notes:

Data for voter turnout at European elections relate to 2009.

[a] Data refers to the whole of Belgium.

[b] Data refers to the whole of the United Kingdom.

N/A—no available data as the country is not an EU member state and/or a eurozone member.

Sources:

Europa http://europa.eu/abc/european_countries/eu_members/index_en.html
European Central Bank http://www.ecb.europa.eu/euro/intro/html/map.en.html
European Parliament—European Parliament election turnout 1979–2009: http://www.ukpolitical.info/european-parliament-election turnout.html

Thirteen of the 24 European countries participating in ICCS have the euro as the official currency. The eurozone began officially in 2002 when 12 of the then 15 EU member states, with the exception of Denmark, Sweden, and the United Kingdom (including England), moved to a single currency, the euro. From this time on, euro banknotes and coins became the official legal tender across those countries. Liechtenstein and Switzerland, as non-members of the EU, are not part of the eurozone. The nine European ICCS countries that are EU member states but not part of the single currency are Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, England, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, and Sweden.

Table 2.3 also shows that the voter turnout in the last European election in 2009 ranged from over 90 percent in Belgium (Flemish) and Luxembourg to about 20 percent in the Slovak Republic. The average voter turnout in that election across EU member states was 43 percent. A comparison of voter turnout in the 2009 European election with that in the last national election (see Table 2.2 above) reveals that, in all European ICCS countries, voter turnout was higher in the elections for the national legislature than in those for the European Parliament. The difference in voter turnout between national and European elections was particularly high—over 43 percent in the Netherlands and over 35 percent in Austria, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, and Sweden.

Table 2.4 sets out selected education characteristics of the participating European ICCS countries. The table highlights the very high rates of adult literacy in the European ICCS countries. These ranged from 92 percent in Malta to 100 percent in Finland, Liechtenstein, and Luxembourg. The table also highlights differences across countries with respect to expenditure of public funds on education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP); the range is from three to eight percent. It furthermore details the number of internet hosts in each country. However, note that information on internet hosts tends to change rapidly.

Table 2.4: Selected education characteristics of European ICCS countries

Country	Adult Literacy Rate (%)	Public Expenditure on Education (% of GDP)	Internet Hosts
Austria	98.0 [a]	5.4	2,992,000
Belgium (Flemish)	99.0 [a, b]	6.0 [b]	4,367,000 [b]
Bulgaria	98.3	4.5	706,648
Cyprus	97.7	6.3	185,451
Czech Republic	99.0 [a]	4.4	3,233,000
Denmark	99.0 [a]	8.3	3,991,000
England	99.0 [a, c]	5.6 [c]	9,322,000 [c]
Estonia	99.8	5.1	706,449
Finland	100.0 [a]	6.4	4,205,000
Greece	97.1	4.4	2,342,000
Ireland	99.0 [a]	4.7	1,303,000
Italy	98.9	4.5	22,152,000
Latvia	99.8	5.1	257,414
Liechtenstein	100.0 [a, d]	Data not available	9,287
Lithuania	99.7	5.0	885,064
Luxembourg	100.0 [a]	3.4	220,107
Malta	92.4	5.1	25,139
Netherlands	99.0 [a]	5.3	12,388,000
Poland	99.3	5.5	8,906,000
Slovak Republic	99.6 [a]	3.9	867,615
Slovenia	99.7	6.0	88,567
Spain	97.9	4.2	3,537,000
Sweden	99.0 [a]	7.1	3,886,000
Switzerland	99.0 [a]	5.8	3,697,000

Notes:

Data for adult literacy rate were taken from the *Human Development Report 2009*, relate to 2007, and refer to the percentage of those aged 15 and above, unless otherwise stated.
Data for public expenditure on education relate to 1999–2006 and were taken from *CIA World Factbook*.
Data for internet hosts relate to 2009 and were taken from *CIA World Factbook*.

[a] Data taken from *CIA World Factbook*, relating to 2000–2004.
[b] Data refer to the whole of Belgium.
[c] Data refer to the whole of the United Kingdom.
[d] Data refer to percentage of those aged 10 and above.

Sources:

Human Development Report 2009—adult literacy rate (% aged 15 and above): http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/89.html [09/06/2010].
CIA World Factbook—field listing—literacy: retrieved from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2103 html?countryName=&countryCode=xx&regionCode=s?countryCode=xx#xx [09/06/2010].
CIA World Factbook—field listing—education expenditures: https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2206.html?countryName=&countryCode=&regionCode=+ [09/06/2010].
CIA World Factbook—country comparison—internet hosts: retrieved from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2184rank.html [09/06/2010].

Approaches to civic and citizenship education

As we have already noted, the national contexts survey collected detailed information from each country concerning national approaches to civic and citizenship education. The approaches that we explore in this chapter encompass (i) education policies related to civic and citizenship education, (ii) school curriculum approaches to civic and citizenship education, (iii) current reforms in education and civic and citizenship education, and (iv) approaches to teacher training, student assessment, and school evaluation in this area of learning. Taken together, this information provides a comprehensive picture of the state of national policies with regard to civic and citizenship education in European ICCS countries, as reported by the national research centers.

Education policies related to civic and citizenship education

A number of European studies underline how policy has the potential to play an important role in setting the tone for the status of civic and citizenship education in a country and for influencing how that country approaches that subject in practice (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005; Froumin, 2004; Kerr, 2004; Losito, 2004; Mikkelsen, 2004; Pol, 2004; Sardoc, 2004). Table 2.5 reveals the priority that each of the European ICCS countries was giving, at the time of the study, to civic and citizenship education in its education policies, how it defined civic and citizenship education in policy terms, and the extent of current reforms in this area of education. The ICCS national centers in 10 European countries perceived civic and citizenship education as having a high policy priority, 12 considered it had a medium policy priority, and one country (Switzerland) said it had a low priority. In one country (the Slovak Republic), the national center reported that this area of education had no priority in the country's educational policies.

The extent to which national official definitions include different contexts of civic and citizenship educatation, as outlined in Table 2.5, brings to mind the Council of Europe's All European Policy Study (see Birzea et al., 2004), which drew attention to overlapping "sites of citizenship" in schools. These sites encompass the formal curriculum (including separate, integrated, and cross-curricular provision), the non-formal curriculum (including extracurricular, school ethos, and school decision-making), and the informal curriculum (including the hidden curriculum and classroom ethos). According to Birzea et al. (2004), these overlapping sites set civic and citizenship education within a lifelong learning perspective, which holds that schools educate students in ways that prepare them for their roles and responsibilities as active, responsible, adult citizens in society. Eurydice (2005) positions this viewpoint as one that embraces "active citizenship" supported by "democratic schools" that have a "participatory school culture."

The information contained in Table 2.5 suggests that the majority of European ICCS countries have diversified approaches to civic and citizenship education. These approaches locate this area of education not only in relation to the curriculum but also in relation to the contexts of the school and wider community. According to these data, national definitions of this learning area include opportunities for students to put into practice, through their participation in schools and the communities beyond, what they learn in the curriculum. The results indicate that, in a majority of European ICCS countries, civic and citizenship education policies are placed within three overlapping contexts—curriculum, school, and the wider community.

Table 2.5: Policies (priority, contexts, approaches, current reforms) associated with civic and citizenship education in European ICCS countries

Country		Inclusion of Civics and Citizenship Contexts in Policy Definition											
	Civic and citizenship education priority in education policy	Curriculum subject (either specific or integrated)	Cross-curricular	Assemblies and special events	Extracurricular activities	Classroom experience/ethos	Student participation	School ethos, culture, and values	Parental/ community involvement	School governance	School/community links	Student and teacher involvement in community	School curriculum or approaches for target grade revised at time of data collection (y/n)
Austria	Medium	●	●	❍	❍	❍	●	●	●	●	●	●	No
Belgium (Flemish)	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Bulgaria	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	❍	❍	●	●	No
Cyprus	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	❍	●	●	Yes
Czech Republic	Medium	❍	●	❍	❍	●	●	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	Yes
Denmark	Medium	●	●	❍	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	❍	No
England	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	No
Estonia	Medium	●	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	No
Finland	Medium	●	●	❍	●	●	●	●	●	❍	●	❍	Yes
Greece	High	●	❍	●	❍	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Ireland	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	❍	●	●	Yes
Italy	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Latvia	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Liechtenstein	Medium	●	❍	●	●	●	❍	●	❍	❍	●	❍	No
Lithuania	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Luxembourg	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Malta	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Netherlands	High	●	❍	❍	●	❍	●	●	❍	❍	●	●	No
Poland	Medium	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	●	●	No
Slovak Republic	No priority	❍	●	●	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	Yes
Slovenia	High	●	❍	●	●	●	●	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	Yes
Spain	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Sweden	Medium	●	●	❍	❍	❍	●	●	●	●	●	❍	No
Switzerland	Low	●	●	❍	❍	●	❍	●	●	❍	❍	❍	Yes

Inclusion of contexts

● Yes ❍ No

The general curriculum context sets out how civic and citizenship should be taught in the curriculum as well as how it can be permeated through school assemblies, special events, and extracurricular activities. Data from the national contexts survey showed that 22 of the European ICCS countries set the curriculum context for civics and citizenship as either a specific subject or integrated into other subjects. These same data revealed that the context for this area of education is cross-curricular in 19 countries. In 16 countries, the context includes assemblies and special events. In 17 countries, policy definitions include extracurricular activities, and in 19 countries classroom experiences.

The school context includes schools' approaches to governance and school/classroom ethos and values. It also includes the opportunities schools provide for students, parents, and community representatives to participate in activities related to developing these approaches. According to the national context reports, the policy definition of civic and citizenship education in 20 of the European ICCS countries includes student participation. In 21 countries, the definition incorporates school ethos, values, and culture, and in 17 it includes parents and community. In 13 countries, the definition also encompasses school governance.

The wider community context includes links with the community as well as opportunities for students and teachers to be involved in the community. The national centers of 19 countries stated that the policy for this area includes the former approach; those in 15 countries said it includes the latter.

In eight countries, the policy definition of civic and citizenship education was recorded as including all the contexts and approaches listed. Five of those countries (England, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, and Spain) reported giving a high priority to this area in their education policies.

Table 2.5 also shows the extent to which the European ICCS countries were, at the time of the national contexts survey, revising and/or introducing reforms to their school curricula for civic and citizenship education. Fifteen of the 24 European ICCS countries reported revisions to the school curriculum and/or their approaches to civic and citizenship education.

Approaches to civic and citizenship education in the curriculum

Previous European comparative studies reveal that countries generally consider that it is important to include civic and citizenship education in school curricula. However, there is no one agreed approach as to how it should be included. Unlike curriculum subjects such as mathematics, science, and mother tongue language, which most countries usually designate as specific (and often compulsory) subjects, surveys reveal that countries use various ways to implement civic and citizenship education in their overall school curricula (see, for example, CIDREE, 2005; Eurydice, 2005).

Table 2.6 shows that, in the majority of the European ICCS countries, lower-secondary students experience civic and citizenship education not only in the school curriculum but also through activities beyond the curriculum.[1] Although, as highlighted in the table, there is no one agreed approach to civic and citizenship education across the European ICCS countries, the majority of them take one or more of the following three main approaches to this provision in lower-secondary education:

- Civic and citizenship education as a specific subject (either compulsory or optional);
- Civic and citizenship education integrated into other subjects; and
- Civic and citizenship education as a cross-curricular theme.

1 In countries with differences between grades in lower-secondary education, the responses to the national contexts survey refer to the ICCS target grade.

Table 2.6: Approaches to civic and citizenship education in the curriculum for lower-secondary education in European ICCS countries

Country	Approaches to Civic and Citizenship Education in the Curriculum for Lower-Secondary Education						
	Specific subject (compulsory)	Specific subject (optional)	Integrated into several subjects	Cross-curricular	Assemblies and special events	Extra-curricular activities	Classroom experience/ ethos
Austria			●	●			
Belgium (Flemish)			●	●	●	●	●
Bulgaria			●	●	●	●	●
Cyprus			●	●	●	●	●
Czech Republic	●		●	●			
Denmark [1]			●	●			●
England	●		●	●	●	●	●
Estonia	●		●	●			
Finland			●	●		●	●
Greece [2 3]	✱		●		●		●
Ireland	●		●	●	●	●	●
Italy			●	●	●	●	●
Latvia			●	●	●	●	●
Liechtenstein			●		●	●	●
Lithuania	●		●	●	●	●	●
Luxembourg	●		●	●	●	●	●
Malta			●	✱	●	●	●
Netherlands			●			●	
Poland	●				●	●	
Slovak Republic	●			✱	✱	✱	✱
Slovenia	●		●		●		●
Spain	●		●	●	●	●	●
Sweden			●	●			
Switzerland [4]	●		●	●			●

Approaches

● For all study programs and school types

✱ For some study programs

Notes:

[1] No formal national curriculum but a series of ministry guidelines that form a "common curriculum" which includes civic and citizenship education.

[2] Data relate to the ICCS target grade because there are differences in approach between grades within the lower-secondary phase.

[3] Civic and citizenship education is not taught in the ICCS target grade and there is no intended integration. However, civics and citizenship topics can arise in a number of subjects.

[4] There are considerable differences in approach between the Swiss cantons. In some cantons, civic and citizenship education is a curriculum subject, while in others it is integrated into several subjects.

Source: ICCS 2009 national contexts survey; reference year is 2008/2009.

Eleven of the 24 countries reported providing civic and citizenship education as a specific and compulsory subject or course for all study programs and school types. In Greece, this subject was offered within only some study programs. Twenty-two of the European ICCS countries said that they provide civic and citizenship education (for at least some lower-secondary study programs) by integrating it into several subjects. Nineteen countries made provision through a cross-curricular approach. In a large number of countries, the national ICCS centers reported provision of civic and citizenship education through the classroom experience and ethos (18 countries), assemblies and special events (16 countries), or extra-curricular activities (16 countries).

Emphasis on civic and citizenship education processes and topics in national curricula

In the literature on civic and citizenship education, notions of what this area of educational provision encompasses have increasingly focused on knowledge and understanding, on activities that promote civic attitudes and values, and on opportunities for students to participate in activities in and beyond the school (Eurydice, 2005; Kennedy, 2009; Torney-Purta et al., 1999).

Table 2.7 shows the emphasis that European ICCS countries give to civic processes in their curriculum for civic and citizenship education at the target grade (Grade 8). Here we can see that all 24 European ICCS countries view civic and citizenship education as encompassing a variety of processes. They typically view this area of education as a means to develop students' civic knowledge and understanding as well as students' skills of communication, analysis, observation, and reflection. The countries also tend to consider that students should have access to opportunities for active involvement in and beyond school.

All 24 European ICCS countries place some or a major emphasis on processes underpinning knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship. Most also place some or a major emphasis on the process of developing positive attitudes among students through the following means:

- Participation and engagement in civic and civil society (23 countries);
- Communicating through discussion and debate (23 countries);
- Developing a sense of national identity and allegiance (21 countries);
- Participating in projects and written work (20 countries);
- Creating opportunities for student involvement in decision-making in school (20 countries);
- Creating opportunities for student involvement in community-based activities (19 countries);
- Analyzing and observing change processes in the community (19 countries);
- Analyzing and reflecting on participation and engagement opportunities (17 countries); and
- Analyzing and observing change processes in the school (14 countries)

Previous research shows a broadening of the range and scope of topics addressed in civic and citizenship education (Evans, 2009; Kennedy, 2009). Various commentators have interpreted this broadening as a response not only to changing notions of citizenship but also to the role that civic and citizenship education can play in preparing young people to meet the demands and challenges facing societies in the 21st century. Both Phase 1 of CIVED and the 2005 Eurydice survey showed many of the participating countries focused on abstract concepts such as human rights alongside a traditional focus on knowledge of political institutions and processes (Eurydice, 2005; Torney-Purta et al., 1999). The Eurydice survey also highlighted countries endeavoring to address the European and international dimension in response to globalization (Eurydice, 2005).

Table 2.8 details the civic and citizenship topics that the European ICCS countries cover in their national curricula at the target grade. Taken together, the 24 countries cover a broad range of topics in their national curricula but give varying degrees of emphasis to them. Many European ICCS countries place a major emphasis on human rights and on government systems. Particularly noteworthy, especially within the context of modernization and globalization, is the emphasis that some countries are giving to topics associated with communications studies (including the media), global and international organizations, and regional institutions and organizations (such as the EU and the European Parliament).

Table 2.7: Emphasis given to civics and citizenship processes in the curriculum for students at country's ICCS target grade

Country	Civic and Citizenship Education Processes											
	Knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship			Communicating through		Creating opportunities for student involvement in		Analyzing and observing change processes		Reflecting on and analyzing	Developing a sense of	Developing positive attitudes toward
and	knowing basic facts	understanding key concepts	understanding key values and attitudes	discussion and debate	projects and written work	decision-making in school	community-based activities	in school	in the community	participation and engagement opportunities	national identity and allegiance	participation and engagement in civic activity and society
Austria	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍	❍	✱	✱	✱
Belgium (Flemish)	✱	●	●	●	✱	●	✱	●	✱	●	❍	✱
Bulgaria	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	●	●
Cyprus	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱
Czech Republic	●	●	✱	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍	❍	❍
Denmark	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	❍	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱
England	●	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	●
Estonia	●	●	●	✱	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	●	●
Finland	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍	✱	✱	✱	●
Greece [1]	●	●	●	●	✱	●	✱	❍	✱	❍	●	●
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●
Italy	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●	●
Latvia	✱	✱	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	✱
Liechtenstein [1]	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	●
Lithuania	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍	❍	❍	✱	●
Luxembourg	✱	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●
Malta	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Netherlands	✱	●	●	✱	✱	❍	❍	❍	●	❍	✱	●
Poland	●	●	✱	✱	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	✱
Slovak Republic	●	●	✱	✱	✱	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	✱	✱
Slovenia	✱	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍	✱	✱
Spain	●	●	●	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●	❍	●
Sweden	●	●	●	✱	❍	●	✱	❍	❍	✱	✱	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	✱	❍	❍	❍	❍	✱	✱	✱	●

Emphasis on processes

● major emphasis ✱ some emphasis ❍ no emphasis

Note:

[1] Although civic and citizenship education is not a subject in the curriculum at <target grade>, civics and citizenship processes can be addressed through other subjects.

Source: ICCS 2009 National Contexts Survey; reference year is 2008/2009.

The topics that the European ICCS countries most frequently nominated as having a major emphasis in their respective national curricula for civic and citizenship education were human rights (18 countries), understanding different cultures and ethnic groups (16 countries), the environment (14 countries), and parliamentary and governmental systems (14 countries). Topics less frequently nominated as a major emphasis across national curricula were voting and elections (11 countries), communications studies (10 countries), regional institutions and organizations (10 countries), the global community and international organizations (8 countries), legal systems and courts (8 countries), the economy and economics (8 countries), and resolving conflict (7 countries). Only five countries reported that participation in voluntary groups is accorded a major emphasis.

Approaches to teaching, teacher training, student assessment, and school evaluation for civic and citizenship education

According to previous studies of civic and citizenship education, such as CIVED, decisions about who teaches civic and citizenship education and oversight as to whether these people are properly trained reflect the status accorded to this area of education. Also evident in the literature and policy agendas is considerable discussion about whether the standards established for civic and citizenship education compare with those set down for other subjects and learning areas.

As the Eurydice survey (Eurydice, 2005) showed, the range of curricular approaches that countries take to civic and citizenship education aligns with which teachers of which subjects teach civics and citizenship in schools. As is evident from the national contexts survey data, civic and citizenship education is often taught in the European ICCS countries as topics integrated into various other subjects (refer Table 2.2)

The CIVED teacher survey indicated that, across the participating countries, those responsible for teaching civic and citizenship education generally had to cope with a lack of resources and training in the area. The Council of Europe and Eurydice studies (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005) identified training as a considerable challenge because of the many ways that schools approach civic and citizenship education and because of the different types of teachers teaching it in schools. Both studies identified the provision of relevant pre-service and in-service training and education for teachers as limited, sporadic, informal, and inconsistent. The forms of training and education that were evident encompassed brief sessions for all teachers in initial teacher education and dedicated programs of in-service education for teachers specializing in civic and citizenship education. Non-specialist in-service teachers could attend such courses on an optional basis

Table 2.9 provides a summary of the national contexts survey data from the European ICCS countries on all of these teacher-related matters as well as on matters related to student assessment in the area of civic and citizenship education. The table records which teachers teach civic and citizenship education at the ICCS target grade, what pre-service and in-service training in this area is available to both initial and in-service lower-secondary school teachers, and the status that countries accord this training. The table also presents data on the extent to which the European ICCS countries assess students and evaluate schools in relation to civic and citizenship education.

We identified three possible groups of teachers responsible for teaching civic and citizenship education. They are (i) teachers of all subjects, (ii) teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education, but with this material integrated into other subjects, and (iii) specialists in civic and citizenship education teaching this content as a separate subject. We also observed from the data that the majority of participating countries regard at least two of these three groups of teachers as having responsibility for civic and citizenship education.

Table 2.8: Emphasis given to civic and citizenship education topics in the curriculum for students in the country's ICCS target grade

Country	Civic and Citizenship Education Topics											
	Human rights	Legal systems and courts	Understanding different cultural and ethnic groups	Parliamentary and governmental systems	Voting and elections	The economy and economics	Voluntary groups	Resolving conflict	Communications studies (e.g., media)	The global community and international torganizations	Regional institutions and organizations	The environment
Austria	✱	✱	●	●	✱	●	✱	✱	●	✱	✱	●
Belgium (Flemish)	✱	❍	●	✱	●	✱	❍	●	●	✱	❍	●
Bulgaria	●	✱	●	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	●
Cyprus	●	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱
Czech Republic	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	❍	❍	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱
Denmark	✱	✱	●	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱
England	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Estonia	●	●	●	●	✱	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍
Finland	●	✱	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	●	✱	●	●
Greece [1]	●	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	✱	✱
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	●	✱	●	●	●
Italy	●	❍	●	✱	✱	✱	●	✱	●	✱	●	●
Latvia	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱
Liechtenstein [1]	●	✱	●	✱	✱	●	❍	●	●	✱	✱	●
Lithuania	●	✱	✱	●	●	✱	✱	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱
Luxembourg	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●	●	●	✱	✱	●
Malta	✱	●	✱	●	✱	●	●	✱	●	●	●	●
Netherlands	●	✱	●	✱	✱	❍	❍	●	❍	●	✱	✱
Poland	✱	✱	✱	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	●
Slovak Republic	●	●	●	●	●	✱	❍	✱	✱	●	●	✱
Slovenia	●	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	●	✱	●	●	●
Sweden	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	●	❍	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	●	●	❍	❍	✱	❍	●	●	✱

Emphasis on topics

● major emphasis ✱ some emphasis ❍ no emphasis

Note:

[1] Although civic and citizenship education is not a subject in the curriculum at <target grade>, civics and citizenship processes can be addressed through other subjects.

Source: ICCS 2009 national contexts survey; reference year is 2008/2009.

Table 2.9: Approaches to civic and citizenship education teaching, teacher training, student assessment, and school evaluation in European ICCS countries

Country	Teachers of Civic and Citizenship Education at ICCS Target Grade			Coverage of Civic and Citizenship Education for <Target Grade> Teachers									
				in initial teacher education			in in-service training						
	All teachers	Integrated subjects teachers	Specialists in civic and citizenship education	All teachers	Integrated subjects teachers	Civic and citizenship education specialists	All teachers	Integrated subjects teachers	Civic and citizenship education specialists	School leaders	Status of training	Assessment of students in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)	Evaluation of schools in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)
Austria	●	●	❍	●	^	^	●	^	^	^	■	No	No
Belgium (Flemish)	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	■	No	Yes
Bulgaria	❍	●	❍	❍	●	❍	❍	●	❍	●	■	Yes	Yes
Cyprus	^	●	^	❍	❍	❍	❍	●	❍	^	■	No	No
Czech Republic	❍	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	◆	No	^
Denmark[1]	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	■	No	No
England	●	●	●	❍	❍	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Estonia	❍	●	●	❍	❍	❍	●	●	●	❍	■	Yes	No
Finland	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	◆	Yes	No
Greece[2]	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	◆	Yes	Yes
Ireland	●	●	●	❍	❍	❍	●	●	●	❍	■	Yes	Yes
Italy	●	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	●	●	❍	●	■	Yes	No
Latvia	❍	●	●	●	●	●	❍	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Liechtenstein	❍	●	❍	●	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	◆	Yes	No
Lithuania	^	●	●	^	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Luxembourg	❍	●	❍	❍	●	❍	❍	●	❍	●	■	Yes	No
Malta	^	●	^	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	■	Yes	Yes
Netherlands	❍	●	❍	❍	●	❍	❍	●	❍	❍	■	No	Yes
Poland	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	■	Yes	Yes
Slovak Republic	❍	●	●	❍	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	No
Spain	❍	●	❍	●	●	^	●	●	^	●	■	Yes	No
Sweden	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	■	Yes	Yes
Switzerland [3]	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	❍	●	●	❍	●	■	Yes	No

Civic and citizenship education teachers and training in existence: ● yes ❍ no ◆ not applicable

Status of in-service training: ■ mandatory ■ optional ◆ not applicable

Notes:

^ No data provided or not applicable.

1 No formal national curriculum but a series of ministry guidelines that form a "common curriculum" which includes civic and citizenship education.

2 Although civic and citizenship education is not taught in the <target grade>, civics and citizenship topics can be addressed through other topics.

3 There are considerable differences in approach between the Swiss cantons. In some cantons, civic and citizenship education is a curriculum subject, while in others it is integrated in several subjects.

Source: ICCS 2009 national contexts survey; reference year is 2008/2009

As is evident in Table 2.9, teachers of related subjects were teaching civics and citizenship as integrated topics in 23 European ICCS countries, teachers across all subjects were teaching this content in 9 countries, and civic and citizenship education specialists were teaching this area of education in 7 countries.

As is also evident in Table 2.9, more European ICCS countries were providing in-service training for at least one group of teachers (19 countries) than were providing training through initial teacher education (16 countries). Six countries were offering no training for civic and citizenship education in their initial teacher education provision but were offering in-service training, three countries were not offering this training in their in-service professional development programs but were doing so in their initial teacher education provision, and two countries—the Czech Republic and Greece—were offering no training whatsoever.

The patterns of training provision in pre-service and in-service teacher education programs are similar and appear to align with how European ICCS countries deliver civics and citizenship content in their lower-secondary school curricula. Fourteen countries provide pre-service training in this area for teachers teaching civic and citizenship education topics integrated into other subjects, 10 countries provide this training for all teachers, and 4 provide it for specialist teachers. In 17 countries, teachers can receive in-service training if they teach civics and citizenship topics as material integrated into other subjects. In 14 countries, this training is offered to all teachers, and in 7 countries teachers receive this training if they are specialist teachers. Thirteen countries reported offering school leaders in-service training in civic and citizenship education.

Only one country (Latvia) mandates teacher training in civic and citizenship education. The national centers of 19 European ICCS countries reported that teachers could access this training on an optional basis.

Previous research, such as that by Jerome (2008) and Kerr, Keating, and Ireland (2009), position assessment of civic and citizenship education as a particular challenge because of the difficulties associated with gaining agreement on what should be assessed, how it should be assessed, and by whom. As is evident in Table 2.9, the majority of the European ICCS countries provide some form of student assessment in relation to civic and citizenship education; only six countries make no such provision. Twelve countries evaluate schools' provision of civic and citizenship education; 11 countries do not. (One country did not provide data on this matter.) Ten European ICCS countries reported assessing both students and schools in relation to civic and citizenship education. We note, however, that the extent and type of school evaluation doubtless varies across the participating countries.

Summary of findings

The findings in this chapter highlight the variation in the national contexts in which the European ICCS countries provide civic and citizenship education, particularly at the ICCS target grade (typically Grade 8). These variations, which encompass population size, economic resources, voting behaviour, political and education systems, and economic resources, are an important part of any study of young people's civic-related learning outcomes and indicators of their civic engagement.

The ICCS national contexts survey data suggest that civic and citizenship education is viewed as a priority in education policy in European ICCS countries. However, there is considerable breadth and diversity across countries with respect to policy-related definitions of civic and citizenship education. In many countries, these definitions require schools to build into their curricula opportunities for students to put into practice, through participation in school and community activities, what they learn in the curriculum. Many of the participating countries

also reported that revisions to national curricula were taking place in this area of learning at the time of data collection. Changes to school approaches to civic and citizenship education were also evident in many countries at the time.

Overall, the findings reveal no common approach across countries to civic and citizenship education, but rather a mixed approach, in which this area of education is offered as a specific subject, integrated into other subjects, or presented as a cross-curricular theme. National curricula for civic and citizenship education emphasize a broad range of processes that take place both in and beyond the classroom and the school. These processes include developing knowledge, understanding, and skills. They also include providing opportunities for young people to participate in learning by doing, both in and beyond school.

Across the European ICCS countries, civic and citizenship education appears to be represented in respective national curricula through a wide range of topics. These encompass knowledge and understanding of political institutions and concepts, such as human rights, as well as newer topics that cover social and community cohesion, diversity, the environment, communications, and global society (including regional and international institutions).

According to the ICCS results, the majority of the European ICCS countries provide pre-service and/or in-service training for those teaching civic and citizenship education, but this provision is not mandatory in most of them. There was also evidence in a number of the national survey reports of school leaders having access to in-service training in civics and citizenship education. This provision may indicate a broader definition of civic and citizenship education—one that favors an approach encompassing school and community contexts.

There was also evidence in the majority of the ICCS 2009 European national reports of quality assurance in this learning area. About three-quarters of the national centers in the participating countries reported that students are assessed in relation to civic and citizenship education. Approximately one half of the countries said they evaluate schools with respect to this area of education.

CHAPTER 3:

Students' general and European civic knowledge

This chapter draws on data from the ICCS international and European datasets to provide information about students' levels of civic knowledge across the 24 European countries that participated in the regional data collection of ICCS. The findings presented in this chapter relate to ICCS Research Question 1, which focuses on the extent of variation existing among and within countries with respect to students' civic knowledge. The findings also relate to several specific research questions regarding regional priorities with respect to students' civic knowledge about the European Union (EU). The questions asked were these:

- To what extent do students know basic facts about the EU and its institutions?
- To what extent do students know about EU laws and policies?
- To what extent do students know about the euro currency?
- What ratings do students give of their own knowledge of the EU?

As we noted in Chapter 2 (contextual background of the participating countries), civic knowledge is a key outcome of civic and citizenship education programs and is fundamental to effective civic participation. Several studies have underlined the association between civic knowledge and civic attitudes or behaviors. The CIVED survey of 1999 found that students with higher levels of civic knowledge were those most likely to say they would vote in national elections when they were older (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001). According to Morin (1996), the more people know about politics, the easier it is for them to acquire political and participation skills. Studies conducted in Europe also highlight a link between civic knowledge and attitudes toward ethnic groups and immigrants: students with higher levels of civic knowledge are more tolerant toward ethnic groups and less fearful of immigrants than are students with lower levels of civic knowledge (Elchardus, Roggemans, & Op de Beeck, 2009; Popkin & Dimock 2000).

In ICCS, civic knowledge is taken as a broad term that includes knowledge, analysis, and reasoning and applies to all four content domains in the ICCS assessment framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008): civic society and systems, civic principles, civic participation, and civic identities.

ICCS is the third IEA international study to include measurement of civic knowledge. The two earlier studies were the 1971 Civic Education Study (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975) and the 1999 CIVED survey (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001). More information about these two studies can be found in the extended international report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010b). Of the three studies, ICCS is the first to incorporate regional instruments, including a civic knowledge test targeted at students from the European ICCS countries.

In this chapter, we describe how civic knowledge was measured through the ICCS international civic knowledge test and the European ICCS test. We compare countries' responses to these tests, and also report on gender differences and the association between students' self-assessed civic knowledge of the EU and students' civic knowledge and citizenship self-efficacy.

Students' general civic knowledge

The ICCS international civic knowledge test comprised 80 items of which 79 were used in the analysis. Seventy-three items were multiple-choice and six were constructed-response. The international civic knowledge test items were presented in a balanced rotated cluster design, such that any individual student completed approximately 35 test items.

The ICCS international civic knowledge test was reported on a scale set to a mean of 500 (the ICCS average score) and a standard deviation of 100 for equally weighted national samples. The ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming) will provide details on the scaling procedures used for the test items.

ICCS researchers used the international test data and items to develop a scale of civic knowledge described along three levels of proficiency.[1] These three levels synthesize the common elements of civics and citizenship content at each level and the typical ways in which students use that content. The scale broadly reflects development encompassing the concrete, familiar, and mechanistic elements of civics and citizenship through to the wider policy and institutional processes that determine the shape of civic communities. Each proficiency level is illustrated by examples of the types of learning content and cognitive processes that students employ when responding to test items from that level.

The three levels, set out in Table 3.1, each have a width of 84 scale points, with level boundaries at 563 (Level 3), 479 (Level 2), and 395 (Level 1) scale points, respectively. The international mean scale score of 500 falls within Proficiency Level 2. Scores below 395 scale points indicate civic and citizenship knowledge proficiency below the level targeted by the assessment instrument. The extent to which the cognitive processes of knowing, reasoning, and analyzing are represented across all levels of the scale depends on the issues to which they apply.

Tables 3.2 and 3.3 present information about the scores the students participating in the European ICCS countries attained on the ICCS international test. Table 3.2, which gives multiple comparisons of European country averages of civic knowledge, lists countries in order of average test performance on the international civic knowledge test.

The information in Table 3.2 can be used to interpret the differences in ICCS civic knowledge scale scores between any two countries. An upwards pointing triangle in a cell indicates that the average ICCS civic knowledge scale score in the country at the beginning of the row was statistically significantly higher than the scale score in the comparison country at the top of the column. A downwards pointing triangle in a cell indicates that the average ICCS civic knowledge scale score in the country at the beginning of the row was statistically significantly lower than the scale score in the comparison country. Cells without a symbol indicate no statistically significant difference between the ICCS civic knowledge scale scores of the country at the beginning of the row and the comparison country. Table 3.2 also helps us interpret the differences between countries that had relatively small differences in average civic knowledge scale scores.

Table 3.3 gives further detail about the average score and the spread of performance within each country, provides context in terms of the average age of the participating students, their years of schooling, and the Human Development Index (HDI) for each country,[2] and shows the average score of the European ICCS countries on the ICCS international test scale. The European ICCS average in this and all tables that follow is the average of national results for those countries that met the relevant ICCS requirements, including sample participation rates.

1 Further details on the test items and the development of the described ICCS civic knowledge scale can be found in the ICCS international report (Schulz et al., 2010b).

2 The HDI, provided by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), is "a composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development including a healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living" (UNDP, 2009). Values on the HDI lie between 0 and 1. Values above 0.9 indicate "very high development."

Table 3.1: List of proficiency levels with text outlining the type of knowledge and understanding at each level

Level 3: 563 score points and above

Students working at Level 3 make connections between the processes of social and political organization and influence, and the legal and institutional mechanisms used to control them. They generate accurate hypotheses on the benefits, motivations, and likely outcomes of institutional policies and citizens' actions. They integrate, justify, and evaluate given positions, policies, or laws based on the principles that underpin them. Students demonstrate familiarity with broad international economic forces and the strategic nature of active participation.

Students working at Level 3, for example:

- Identify likely strategic aims of a program of ethical consumption
- Suggest mechanisms by which open public debate and communication can benefit society
- Suggest related benefits of widespread cognitive intercultural understanding in society
- Justify the separation of powers between the judiciary and parliament
- Relate the principle of fair and equal governance to laws regarding disclosure of financial donations to political parties
- Evaluate a policy with respect to equality and inclusiveness
- Identify the main feature of free market economies and multinational company ownership.

Level 2: 479 to 562 score points

Students working at Level 2 demonstrate familiarity with the broad concept of representative democracy as a political system. They recognize ways in which institutions and laws can be used to protect and promote a society's values and principles. They recognize the potential role of citizens as voters in a representative democracy, and they generalize principles and values from specific examples of policies and laws (including human rights). Students demonstrate understanding of the influence that active citizenship can have beyond the local community. They generalize the role of the individual active citizen to broader civic societies and the world.

Students working at Level 2, for example:

- Relate the independence of a statutory authority to maintenance of public trust in decisions made by the authority
- Generalize the economic risk to developing countries of globalization from a local context
- Identify that informed citizens are better able to make decisions when voting in elections
- Relate the responsibility to vote with the representativeness of a democracy
- Describe the main role of a legislature/parliament
- Define the main role of a constitution
- Relate the responsibility for environmental protection to individual people.

Level 1: 395 to 478 score points

Students working at Level 1 demonstrate familiarity with equality, social cohesion, and freedom as principles of democracy. They relate these broad principles to everyday examples of situations in which protection of or challenge to the principles are demonstrated. Students also demonstrate familiarity with fundamental concepts of the individual as an active citizen: they recognize the necessity for individuals to obey the law; they relate individual courses of action to likely outcomes; and they relate personal characteristics to the capacity of an individual to effect civic change.

Students working at Level 1, for example:

- Relate freedom of the press to the accuracy of information provided to the public by the media
- Justify voluntary voting in the context of freedom of political expression
- Identify that democratic leaders should be aware of the needs of the people over whom they have authority
- Recognize that the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights is intended to apply to all people.
- Generalize about the value of the internet as a communicative tool in civic participation
- Recognize the civic motivation behind an act of ethical consumerism.

Table 3.2: Multiple comparisons of average national civic knowledge scale scores

Country	Finland	Denmark †	Sweden	Poland	Ireland	Switzerland †	Liechtenstein	Italy	Slovak Republic[1]	Estonia	England ‡	Slovenia	Belgium (Flemish) †	Czech Republic †	Lithuania	Spain	Austria	Malta	Latvia	Greece	Luxembourg	Bulgaria	Cyprus
Finland			▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Denmark †			▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Sweden	▼	▼								▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Poland	▼	▼									▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Ireland	▼	▼									▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Switzerland †	▼	▼									▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Liechtenstein	▼	▼									▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Italy	▼	▼									▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Slovak Republic[1]	▼	▼										▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Estonia	▼	▼	▼											▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
England ‡	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼							▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Slovenia	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼						▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Belgium (Flemish) †	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼									▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Czech Republic †	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼								▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Lithuania	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼						▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Spain	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼						▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Austria	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼						▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲
Malta	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼			▲	▲	▲	▲
Latvia	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼					▲	▲
Greece	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼					▲
Luxembourg	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼					▲
Bulgaria	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼				▲
Cyprus	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	

▲ Average achievement significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) than in comparison country

▼ Average achievement significantly lower ($p < 0.05$) than in comparison country

Notes:

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

At 514, the European average on the ICCS international civic knowledge scale was higher than the average of all ICCS countries (i.e., the ICCS average), which was 500 scale points. This difference, which was statistically significant, means that the European ICCS countries scored more highly, on average, on the international test than the group of participating countries scored as a whole.

Table 3.3 shows the variation in achievement across and within the European ICCS countries. Finland and Denmark were the highest scoring European ICCS countries on the ICCS international test. Students in these two countries scored significantly higher than students in all other European ICCS countries. The scores were not, however, significantly different from each other.

The average score of 576 apiece for these two countries set the overall achievement of their students within Proficiency Level 3, the highest level on the ICCS civic knowledge described scale. Students in most of the other European ICCS countries scored, on average, within Proficiency Level 2, although students in four countries gained average scores that positioned them within Proficiency Level 1. These countries were Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, and Luxembourg.

We observed a range of achievement across the European ICCS countries, with average scale scores within Level 2. Table 3.2 shows a group of eight countries that scored significantly lower on average than Finland and Denmark, but typically higher than the other countries. These countries were Estonia, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, and the Slovak Republic. Only one statistically significant difference with respect to average ICCS scales scores emerged for this group of countries and that was the difference between the scores of Sweden (537) and Estonia (525). All eight countries scored statistically significantly above the international scale average (500) and above the average European performance (514) on the international scale.

Four countries (Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, England, and Slovenia) had average scores not significantly different from the European average but above the international average. Three countries (Austria, Lithuania, and Spain) scored around the international average (500) but significantly lower than the European average (514), while six other European ICCS countries (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, Latvia, Luxembourg, and Malta) scored significantly below both the European average and the international average.[3]

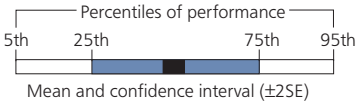
In general, these findings indicate wide variation in the extent of current student civic knowledge within the European ICCS countries.

We can also see in Table 3.3 some variation in the average age of students in the target grade (Grade 8) in the European ICCS countries. The average age ranged from 13.7 to 15.0. The ICCS international report (Schulz et al., 2010b) provides a more detailed discussion of the overall relationship between student age and achievement on the international test.

3 The results for the Netherlands are neither included in the multiple comparison table nor in the interpretation of results because their data did not meet the minimum sampling participation requirements. The results for the Netherlands are reported in separate sections of the tables in this report.

Table 3.3: National averages for and distributions of civic knowledge scores, years of schooling, average age, and Human Development Index

Country	Civic Knowledge				
	Years of schooling	Average age	250 350 450 550 650 750	Average scale score	HDI
Finland	8	14.7		576 (2.4) ▲	0.96
Denmark †	8	14.9		576 (3.6) ▲	0.96
Sweden	8	14.8		537 (3.1) ▲	0.96
Poland	8	14.9		536 (4.7) ▲	0.88
Ireland	8	14.3		534 (4.6) ▲	0.97
Switzerland †	8	14.7		531 (3.8) ▲	0.96
Liechtenstein	8	14.8		531 (3.3) ▲	0.95
Italy	8	13.8		531 (3.3) ▲	0.95
Slovak Republic[1]	8	14.4		529 (4.5) ▲	0.88
Estonia	8	15.0		525 (4.5) ▲	0.88
England ‡	9	14.0		519 (4.4)	0.95
Slovenia	8	13.7		516 (2.7)	0.93
Belgium (Flemish) †	8	13.9		514 (4.7)	0.95
Czech Republic †	8	14.4		510 (2.4)	0.90
Lithuania	8	14.7		505 (2.8) ▼	0.87
Spain	8	14.1		505 (4.1) ▼	0.96
Austria	8	14.4		503 (4.0) ▼	0.96
Malta	9	13.9		490 (4.5) ▼	0.90
Latvia	8	14.8		482 (4.0) ▼	0.87
Greece	8	13.7		476 (4.4) ▼	0.94
Luxembourg	8	14.6		473 (2.2) ▼	0.96
Bulgaria	8	14.7		466 (5.0) ▼	0.84
Cyprus	8	13.9		453 (2.4) ▼	0.91
European ICCS average		**14.4**		**514 (0.8)**	
Country not meeting sample requirements					
Netherlands	8	14.3		494 (7.6)	0.96



▲ Achievement significantly higher than the European ICCS average

▼ Achievement significantly lower than the European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Students' knowledge about the European Union

The European ICCS test comprised 20 items that had two types of closed response format: multiple-choice questions with one correct and three incorrect response options, and statements where students had to indicate whether they were "true" or "false." The same test was administered to all students in countries completing the European regional instrument. The test focused on ICCS Cognitive Domain 1 (knowing), with emphasis given to students' knowledge of the EU and its policies and institutions in the following three areas: (i) facts about the EU and its institutions, (ii) knowledge of EU laws and policies, and (iii) knowledge of the euro currency.

Because student performance on these items varied markedly across the countries (i.e., there was wide variation in relative difficulty across national samples), ICCS researchers were unable to create a scale of items from most to least difficult across countries. They were also unable to compare overall performance of students across countries in the same way that they had when using the international test-item data.

Each individual European civic knowledge test item showed a unique difficulty relative to the other items for each country. Rather than completing overall comparisons of performance on the set of items, we used the data from the European test items to present item-by-item comparisons across countries. This approach allowed us to display the percentage frequency of correct responses for each item in each country. By providing a snapshot of student knowledge of fundamental information regarding the EU and the euro currency, these item-level comparisons contribute to understanding of how to develop students' capacity to be informed European citizens in the future. The findings also provide a basis from which to consider potential gaps in civic knowledge among students, within and across countries, and to consider how such gaps might be addressed. Considering outcomes from the European ICCS test alongside those from the international ICCS test helps to put the European findings into a broader context.

Figures 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 show the items as they were administered to students, with the addition of an asterisk (*) in each case, to indicate the correct answer. The only exception is the first part of test question Q1, where the correct answer varied according to whether a participating country was or was not an EU member at the time ICCS was conducted.

When interpreting individual item results, keep in mind that students had to choose between two and four response options and that the odds for guessing the correct response differed. Students had a 25 percent chance of guessing the correct response to a multiple-choice item with three incorrect responses and one correct response and a 50 percent chance of guessing the correct response to an item with two options (true or false).

Tables 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6 display the results for each of the European test items. The national and average European results for each item are shown as the percentages of students who responded to each test item correctly. National percentages are flagged: a non-shaded triangle indicates a statistically significant difference when compared to the European ICCS average percentage. Shaded triangles indicate particularly strong significant differences (i.e., those of more than 10 percentage points above or below the European ICCS average).[4]

4 When presenting national averages and percentages from individual test items in this report, we annotated the results that were significantly different (at $p < 0.05$) from the European ICCS average. Note also our use of different symbols to annotate results that are considerably (i.e., at least 10 percentage points) above or below the European ICCS average. The choice of this threshold corresponds to roughly about a third of a standard deviation for these variables.

To aid the reader, we present the item wording and results in the figures and tables as follows:

- Figure 3.1 contains the wording and Table 3.4 the results for the items measuring knowledge of the EU and its institutions;
- Figure 3.2 contains the wording and Table 3.5 the results for the items measuring knowledge of EU laws and policies;
- Figure 3.3 contains the wording and Table 3.6 the results for the items measuring knowledge of the euro currency.

Generally, students did well on questions requiring them to recall basic facts about the EU, such as identifying the EU flag, identifying the EU membership of their country (i.e., the country of the test), and knowing that the EU is an economic and political partnership between countries. They did less well on specific knowledge items, such as the number of countries that are EU members, where the European Parliament is located, how Members of the European Parliament (MEPs) are elected, requirements for joining the EU, and EU funding mechanisms. The European ICCS average for each of the three basic facts items was 85 percent or more. It ranged between 35 and 66 percent for the specific EU knowledge items.

Figure 3.1 shows the questions about the EU and its institutions; Table 3.4 presents the percentages of correct responses.

Almost all participating students in the 24 European ICCS countries responded correctly with regard to whether their country was (at the time of the survey) a member of the EU (Q1a). The exceptions were Liechtenstein and Switzerland, the two countries that are not EU members. In these countries, lower percentages of students (75 and 79 percent respectively) answered correctly. However, even these were relatively high percentages, indicating that awareness of EU membership was, across all of the participating countries, generally high among the target age group.

Recognition of the EU flag was also widespread (Q2). The European ICCS average for correctly identifying it from four options was 93 percent. However, students in England and Sweden were less likely to recognize the flag, with 66 and 76 percent respectively answering correctly.

The rationale for the existence of the EU (Q1b) was a little less well known, with 85 percent, on average, of students correctly answering that the EU is an economic and political partnership between countries. The percentages of correct responses ranged from 71 percent to 93 percent; the lowest percentages were found in Austria, Cyprus, Greece, and Luxembourg; the highest was found in Denmark.

A wider range of answers was seen for test question Q1c. Between 49 and 85 percent of students in each European country knew that people gain new political rights when their country joins the EU. The highest percentage was recorded in Cyprus, a recently joined member of the EU (joining in 2004). However, the lowest percentage was found in the Slovak Republic, which also joined in 2004.

Knowledge of how many countries are member states of the EU varied widely (Q3). Although the response options were given as ranges (e.g., 21 to 30), number of members is a specific piece of factual knowledge and, as such, not many students knew it. The European ICCS average was 57 percent, with national averages ranging from 35 percent (England) to 75 percent (the Slovak Republic). The five countries with the relatively highest percentages of correct responses (Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, and Slovenia) had joined the EU in 2004 or even more recently. However, we noted lower percentages of correct responses in other countries that had joined recently (e.g., Estonia and Latvia), as well as relatively high percentages in countries that had joined earlier (e.g., Austria and Luxembourg).

Figure 3.1: European ICCS test questions about the European Union and its institutions (Q1 to Q8)

The European Union and its institutions—Facts

1 Are these statements true or false?

a)	<Country of test> is a member of the European Union	☐	True	False	☐*
b)	The European Union is an economic and political partnership between countries	☐*	True	False	☐
c)	People get new political rights when their country joins the European Union	☐*	True	False	☐

2 What is the flag of the European Union?

☐ 

☐* 

☐ 

☐ 

3 How many countries are member states of the European Union?

☐ 1 to 10
☐ 11 to 20
☐* 21 to 30
☐ 31 to 40

4 What is one requirement for a country to be allowed to join the European Union?

☐ The EU considers it to be a republic.
☐* The EU considers it to be democratic.
☐ It must be a member of the United Nations <UN>.
☐ It must have a written constitution.

5 Which of the following cities is a meeting place for the European Parliament?

☐ Rome
☐ Berlin
☐ Paris
☐* Brussels

6 Who votes to elect Members of the European Parliament (MEPs)?

☐ National governments of European Union countries
☐* Citizens in each European Union country
☐ Heads of State of European Union countries <(presidents, kings, queens, etc.)>
☐ The European Commission <(EC)>

7 The European Union collects money from member countries to spend on projects. What determines how much each member country contributes to the European Union?

☐ The five richest European Union countries contribute all the money
☐ All European Union countries contribute the same amount of money
☐* All European Union countries contribute, but the amount depends on how rich they are
☐ Each country chooses how much to contribute based on how well they think the European Union has been using the money

8 Here are some statements about the possible enlargement of the European Union (i.e. the possibility of more countries joining the European Union). Which of the following statements is true?

☐ The European Union has decided not to accept any more countries as new members
☐ The European Union may accept more countries in the future but there are currently no countries being considered as candidates for membership
☐* The European Union may accept more member countries in the future and is currently considering granting membership to some specific countries
☐ The European Union has decided to only accept new member countries if any existing member countries decide to leave the European Union

Table 3.4: National percentages of correct responses for European test items about the European Union and its institutions (Q1 to Q8)

Country	Q1a: <Country of test> is a member of the European Union.	Q1b: The European Union is an economic and political partnership between countries.	Q1c: People get new political rights when their country joins the European Union.	Q2: What is the flag of the European Union?	Q3: How many countries are member states of the European Union?	Q4: What is one requirement for a country to be allowed to join the European Union?	Q5: Which of the following cities is a meeting place for the European Parliament?	Q6: Who votes to elect Members of the European Parliament <(MEPs)>?	Q7: What determines how much each member country contributes to the European Union?	Q8: Which of the following statements about the possible enlargement of the European Union are true?
Austria	98 (0.3) △	74 (1.0) ▼	68 (1.1) △	96 (0.5) △	67 (1.6) △	37 (1.1) ▽	77 (1.2) ▲	39 (1.2) △	50 (1.5) △	**60** (1.2) △
Belgium (Flemish) †	100 (0.1) △	91 (0.7) △	59 (1.2) ▽	92 (0.7)	61 (1.3) △	47 (1.1) △	76 (1.0) △	37 (1.1) △	38 (1.6) ▽	**57** (1.2)
Bulgaria	99 (0.2) △	91 (0.8) △	74 (0.9) △	98 (0.3) △	66 (2.4) △	28 (1.5) ▼	73 (1.3) △	41 (1.5) △	39 (1.5) ▽	**46** (1.7) ▼
Cyprus	98 (0.3) △	76 (1.0) ▽	85 (0.8) ▲	98 (0.3) △	71 (1.3) ▲	57 (1.1) ▲	74 (1.1) △	21 (0.8) ▼	40 (1.2) ▽	**63** (1.2) △
Czech Republic †	99 (0.1) △	86 (0.8)	64 (1.0)	97 (0.3) △	71 (1.9) ▲	32 (1.1) ▽	83 (0.9) ▲	25 (1.2) ▼	41 (1.0) ▽	**59** (1.1) △
Denmark †	99 (0.2) △	93 (0.5) △	54 (1.0) ▼	85 (0.9) ▽	50 (1.2) ▽	60 (1.3) ▲	62 (1.5) ▽	26 (1.1) ▽	63 (1.1) ▲	**55** (1.0)
England ‡	96 (0.5)	86 (0.8)	56 (1.3) ▽	66 (1.7) ▼	35 (1.3) ▼	37 (1.0) ▽	22 (1.6) ▼	45 (1.0) ▲	35 (1.3) ▽	**38** (1.0) ▼
Estonia	99 (0.2) △	90 (0.7) △	72 (1.1) △	99 (0.3) △	50 (1.5) ▽	27 (1.0) ▼	68 (1.4)	33 (1.3) ▽	51 (1.3) △	**58** (1.4)
Finland	99 (0.1) △	89 (0.7) △	59 (0.9) ▽	97 (0.3) △	45 (1.3) ▼	30 (1.0) ▼	60 (1.1) ▽	33 (1.0) ▽	54 (1.3) △	**65** (1.2) △
Greece	98 (0.3) △	76 (1.1) ▽	69 (1.0) △	95 (0.4) △	56 (1.7)	42 (1.3)	74 (1.1) △	28 (1.2) ▽	42 (1.2)	**54** (1.4)
Ireland	99 (0.2) △	88 (0.7) △	68 (1.0) △	87 (0.8) ▽	56 (1.3)	33 (1.1) ▽	59 (1.3) ▽	49 (1.0) ▲	33 (1.1) ▼	**50** (1.1) ▽
Italy	99 (0.1) △	81 (1.0) ▽	60 (1.5) ▽	97 (0.4) △	62 (2.5) △	34 (1.7) ▽	75 (1.7) △	44 (2.1) △	46 (1.8)	**68** (1.7) ▲
Latvia	97 (0.5)	86 (1.1)	66 (1.5)	98 (0.3) △	52 (2.2) ▽	36 (1.3) ▽	63 (1.9) ▽	29 (1.4) ▽	48 (1.4) △	**52** (1.4) ▽
Liechtenstein	75 (2.0) ▼	88 (1.8) △	60 (2.2) ▽	90 (1.4) ▽	46 (2.5) ▼	36 (2.5)	53 (2.2) ▼	23 (2.4) ▼	43 (2.6)	**52** (2.6)
Lithuania	99 (0.2) △	87 (0.7) △	71 (1.1) △	98 (0.3) △	60 (1.8)	39 (1.2)	69 (1.3)	27 (1.0) ▽	46 (1.3)	**68** (1.3) ▲
Luxembourg	99 (0.2) △	71 (0.7) ▼	71 (0.7) △	96 (0.4) △	63 (1.1) △	39 (0.7)	64 (0.9) ▽	36 (1.0)	41 (0.7) ▽	**50** (0.9) ▽
Malta	99 (0.2) △	79 (1.1) ▽	74 (1.0) △	97 (0.4) △	54 (1.6) ▽	50 (1.2) △	72 (1.6) △	44 (0.9) △	39 (1.6) ▽	**51** (1.5) ▽
Poland	99 (0.2) △	89 (0.8) △	65 (1.2)	99 (0.2) △	55 (1.8)	55 (1.4) ▲	87 (0.8) ▲	38 (1.1) △	49 (1.3) △	**68** (1.3) ▲
Slovak Republic[1]	99 (0.2) △	90 (0.8) △	49 (2.1) ▼	99 (0.3) △	75 (2.5) ▲	42 (2.5)	88 (1.1) ▲	68 (1.8) ▲	42 (2.0)	**64** (1.5) △
Slovenia	99 (0.1) △	85 (0.7)	63 (1.3)	99 (0.2) △	70 (1.7) ▲	33 (1.2) ▽	83 (1.0) ▲	26 (1.1) ▽	35 (1.3) ▽	**74** (1.0) ▲
Spain	99 (0.2) △	82 (0.8) ▽	60 (1.0) ▽	97 (0.5) △	49 (1.5) ▽	38 (1.0) ▽	48 (1.4) ▼	35 (0.9)	42 (1.0) ▽	**47** (1.3) ▽
Sweden	97 (0.3)	83 (0.8) ▽	68 (0.9) △	76 (0.9) ▼	50 (1.3) ▽	58 (1.1) ▲	51 (1.3) ▼	37 (1.1) △	43 (1.3)	**42** (0.9) ▼
Switzerland †	79 (1.3) ▼	89 (1.0) △	66 (1.2)	90 (0.8) ▽	47 (1.4) ▼	40 (1.4)	50 (2.7) ▼	23 (1.4) ▼	56 (1.9) ▲	**58** (1.9)
European ICCS average	**97 (0.1)**	**85 (0.2)**	**65 (0.3)**	**93 (0.1)**	**57 (0.4)**	**40 (0.3)**	**66 (0.3)**	**35 (0.3)**	**44 (0.3)**	**57 (0.3)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements										
Netherlands	99 (0.2)	88 (1.0)	67 (2.1)	92 (1.3)	44 (2.0)	42 (2.9)	63 (2.6)	40 (2.5)	49 (2.0)	57 (2.2)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population .

European test question Q4 required similar knowledge of detail. It asked students to identify one requirement for a country to be allowed to join the EU. The percentages of correct responses across countries again showed a broad range, from 27 percent correct in Estonia to 60 percent in Denmark. Q4 was one of the questions for which students' civic knowledge about the EU was weakest overall. The European ICCS average was 40 percent.

Of the four cities named as a possible meeting place for the European Parliament (Q5), 66 percent of students across countries were able to identify Brussels. The country with the lowest percentage correct on this question was England, where just 22 percent answered correctly. The country with the highest percentage correct (88%) was the Slovak Republic. Interestingly, Belgium (Flemish), where Brussels is the capital city, was not one of the countries in which a high percentage of students answered correctly, although 76 percent of its students did know this fact. Many of the countries that had high percentages of students correctly answering this item had recently joined the EU (e.g., Poland, the Slovak Republic, and Slovenia), an occurrence that might explain why the students in these countries were those more likely to know this fact.

Test question Q6 asked students to identify the people permitted to vote to elect MEPs. The highest proportion of students who knew the correct answer was found in the Slovak Republic, where 68 percent knew that MEPs are elected by the citizens in each country. However, levels of knowledge were much lower in the remaining countries. Across these countries, the percentages of students correctly answering this question ranged from 21 percent (Cyprus) up to 49 percent (Ireland)—a pattern which shows that the majority of students in the European ICCS countries had limited knowledge about European elections. Indeed, the European average of 35 percent for answering this item correctly was the lowest for items about the EU and its institutions.

Funding of the EU (Q7) was another topic about which many students had only limited knowledge. On average, only 44 percent of students answered this question correctly. National percentages of correct responses ranged from 33 percent (in Ireland) to 63 percent (in Denmark).

Test question Q8 required students to demonstrate understanding of a future possible enlargement of the EU. On average, just over half of the students (57%) knew that the EU might accept new member countries in future and was, at the time of the ICCS survey, considering admitting specified countries. The highest percentages (with over two thirds of students responding correctly) were recorded for Italy, Lithuania, Poland, and Slovenia. This group includes three countries that had, at the time ICCS was conducted, only recently achieved membership, which might explain why more students in these countries knew more than their counterparts in the other European ICCS countries about the possibility of a future enlargement. However, not all recently joined members had such high levels of knowledge with regard to this question. Countries with the lowest knowledge about this fact (i.e., where fewer than half of the students answered correctly) were England, Spain, and Sweden as well as the most recent member country, Bulgaria.

Overall, European students showed some knowledge of civic and political life in their regional context of Europe. However, levels of knowledge about the EU and its institutions varied considerably. We could detect no obvious consistent patterns, such as geographic patterns or patterns related to recency of membership, that might explain this variation.

Two European test questions, each with six items, asked about laws and policies within the EU. These are shown in Figure 3.2. The accompanying data are presented in Table 3.5.

Figure 3.2: European ICCS test questions about European Union laws and policies (Q9 and Q10)

The European Union—Laws and Policies

9 Are these statements true or false?

a)	The European Union decides what is taught in your school about the European Union	☐	True	False	☐ *
b)	The European Union aims to promote peace, prosperity and freedom within its borders	☐ *	True	False	☐
c)	All European Union countries have signed the European Convention on Human Rights	☐ *	True	False	☐
d)	The European Union has made laws to reduce pollution	☐ *	True	False	☐
e)	The European Union pays money to farmers in European Union countries to use environmentally friendly farming methods	☐ *	True	False	☐

10 What can all citizens of the European Union do by law?

☐* Study in any European Union country without needing a special permit

☐ Travel to any European Union country without needing to carry any identity documents with them

☐ Work in any European Union country without needing a special permit

☐ Vote in the national elections of any European Union country

As was the case with test question Q1 in the previous section, test question Q9 required students to indicate whether each statement in a set was true or false. The first statement (Q9a) gauged students' knowledge of whether the EU determines what is taught about the EU in schools. Sixty-five percent of students overall knew that the EU does not have the power to make such decisions. The countries with the highest percentages (more than 80%) of correct student responses for this item included Liechtenstein and Switzerland, the only two participating countries that are not member countries of the EU, as well as Denmark. The countries where fewer than half of the students knew the correct responses were Cyprus, Latvia, and Spain.

Test question Q9b asked students whether an aim of the EU is to promote peace, prosperity, and freedom within its borders. On average, 89 percent of students responded correctly to this item. The national percentages of correct student responses ranged from 80 percent (Greece) to 95 percent (Belgium (Flemish), Finland, and Lithuania).

Similarly high percentages of correct responses were found for test question Q9c, which asked whether it was true or false that all EU members have signed the European Convention on Human Rights. On average, 86 percent of the students knew that this was true; the national percentages ranged from 75 percent (in Latvia) to 93 percent (in Finland).

Across the European ICCS countries, an average of 70 percent of students knew that the EU makes laws to reduce pollution (test question Q9d). National percentages of correct responses ranged from just over half of students in England (56%) to over 80 percent in Bulgaria (81%), Lithuania (82%), and Slovenia (80%). All of these countries had only recently become EU members.

Test question Q9e asked students whether the EU pays money to farmers in EU countries to use environmentally friendly farming methods. On average, 52 percent of the participating students correctly identified this statement as true. National percentages of correct responses ranged from 35 percent in Italy to 75 percent in Poland.

When asked what EU citizens are entitled to do by law (Q10), the students gave responses indicative of a relatively low level of knowledge. On average, only 30 percent of students knew that all citizens of the EU can, by law, study in any country of the EU without needing a special permit. The lowest percentage of correct responses was found in England (20%) and the highest in Finland (42%). This general lack of knowledge across countries can be construed as

Table 3.5: National percentages of correct responses for European test items about European Union laws and policies (Q9 and Q10)

Country	Q9a: The European Union decides what is taught in your school about the European Union	Q9b: The European Union aims to promote peace, prosperity, and freedom within its borders	Q9c: All European Union countries have signed the European Convention on Human Rights	Q9d: The European Union has made laws to reduce pollution	Q9e: The European Union pays money to farmers in European Union countries to use environmentally friendly farming methods	Q10: What can all citizens of the European Union do by law?
Austria	71 (1.0) △	84 (0.9) ▽	79 (0.9) ▽	61 (1.1) ▽	51 (1.3)	30 (1.0)
Belgium (Flemish) †	76 (1.0) ▲	95 (0.5) △	91 (0.8) △	71 (0.9)	38 (1.1) ▼	27 (1.1) ▽
Bulgaria	53 (1.3) ▼	90 (0.8)	89 (0.8) △	81 (1.1) ▲	69 (0.9) ▲	31 (1.1)
Cyprus	45 (1.3) ▼	82 (0.9) ▽	84 (0.7) ▽	73 (1.1) △	60 (1.1) △	31 (1.2)
Czech Republic †	69 (0.9) △	92 (0.4) △	86 (0.7)	62 (0.9) ▽	56 (0.8) △	32 (0.9)
Denmark †	80 (0.9) ▲	93 (0.5) △	91 (0.5) △	72 (0.9) △	47 (1.3) ▽	33 (1.0) △
England ‡	57 (1.4) ▽	89 (0.9)	85 (0.8)	56 (1.0) ▼	50 (1.0)	20 (0.9) ▼
Estonia	68 (1.1) △	92 (0.7) △	89 (0.8) △	79 (1.0) △	52 (1.2)	31 (1.0)
Finland	72 (1.0) △	95 (0.4) △	93 (0.5) △	70 (0.9)	48 (1.2) ▽	42 (1.0) ▲
Greece	53 (1.2) ▼	80 (1.0) ▽	80 (1.0) ▽	67 (1.0) ▽	49 (1.1) ▽	33 (1.0) △
Ireland	68 (1.1) △	91 (0.8) △	89 (0.7) △	70 (0.9)	53 (1.0)	21 (0.8) ▽
Italy	64 (1.5)	92 (0.7) △	86 (0.9)	67 (1.5)	35 (1.4) ▼	33 (1.7)
Latvia	49 (1.3) ▼	88 (1.0)	75 (1.1) ▼	64 (1.2) ▽	54 (1.3)	33 (1.3) △
Liechtenstein	83 (2.0) ▲	85 (1.9) ▽	86 (1.7)	69 (2.8)	41 (2.4) ▼	33 (2.3)
Lithuania	59 (1.2) ▽	95 (0.5) △	81 (1.0) ▽	82 (0.8) ▲	73 (0.8) ▲	29 (0.9)
Luxembourg	65 (1.0)	84 (0.6) ▽	79 (0.7) ▽	65 (0.8) ▽	43 (0.8) ▽	33 (0.8) △
Malta	56 (1.4) ▽	82 (1.2) ▽	84 (1.0) ▽	70 (0.9)	57 (1.1) △	23 (1.1) ▽
Poland	67 (1.2) △	91 (0.6) △	88 (0.8) △	71 (0.9)	75 (1.0) ▲	30 (1.2)
Slovak Republic[1]	62 (1.7)	94 (0.5) △	90 (1.0) △	63 (1.6) ▽	60 (1.4) △	39 (1.5) △
Slovenia	69 (1.4) △	89 (0.7)	87 (0.8) △	80 (1.2) ▲	40 (1.3) ▼	26 (1.3) ▽
Spain	49 (1.2) ▼	83 (0.8) ▽	82 (0.9) ▽	70 (0.9)	44 (1.1) ▽	28 (0.8) ▽
Sweden	71 (1.1) △	92 (0.5) △	87 (0.6) △	72 (1.0) △	56 (1.0) △	30 (1.0)
Switzerland †	81 (1.0) ▲	91 (0.6) △	86 (0.9)	65 (1.2) ▽	39 (1.6) ▼	26 (1.4) ▽
European ICCS average	**65 (0.3)**	**89 (0.2)**	**86 (0.2)**	**70 (0.2)**	**52 (0.3)**	**30 (0.2)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements						
Netherlands	75 (1.5)	91 (1.2)	88 (1.1)	73 (1.9)	41 (2.0)	19 (1.6)

National percentage

▲ more than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ significantly above European ICCS average
▽ significantly below European ICCS average
▼ more than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

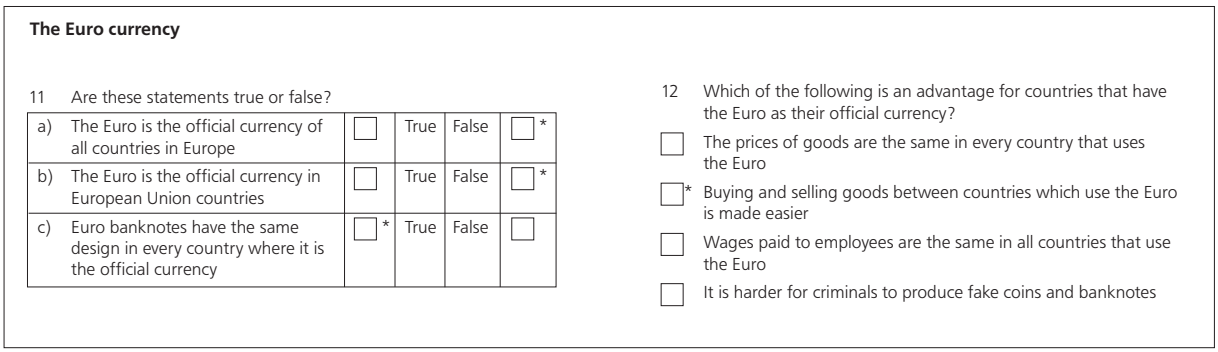
Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

surprising, given that we might reasonably expect students to have a natural interest in matters relating to study. However, because this survey was administered to students whose average ages ranged from 13.7 to 15.0, it is possible that many of them had not yet considered future study options beyond their immediate home context. They might well become more knowledgeable once they start considering higher education studies.

The final section of the European ICCS test related to knowledge about the common currency for the EU, the euro. This section consisted of two questions comprising four items. The first question (Q11) included three true/false statements about the status of the euro and the appearance of its banknotes, while the second question (Q12) had a multiple-choice format and asked students to identify an advantage of having the euro as the country's official currency. Figure 3.3 shows the wording of the question, while Table 3.6 shows the percentages of correct responses for each item.

Figure 3.3: ICCS European test questions about the euro (Q11 and Q12)



The Euro currency

11 Are these statements true or false?

a)	The Euro is the official currency of all countries in Europe	☐	True	False	☐ *
b)	The Euro is the official currency in European Union countries	☐	True	False	☐ *
c)	Euro banknotes have the same design in every country where it is the official currency	☐ *	True	False	☐

12 Which of the following is an advantage for countries that have the Euro as their official currency?

☐ The prices of goods are the same in every country that uses the Euro

☐* Buying and selling goods between countries which use the Euro is made easier

☐ Wages paid to employees are the same in all countries that use the Euro

☐ It is harder for criminals to produce fake coins and banknotes

Table 3.6 National percentages of correct responses for European test items on the euro (Q11 and Q12)

Country	Q11a: The Euro is the official currency of all countries in Europe	Q11b: The Euro is the official currency in all European Union countries	Q11c: Euro banknotes have the same design in every country where it is the official currency	Q12: Which of the following is an advantage for countries that have the Euro as their official currency?
Austria	60 (1.2) ▽	40 (1.2) ▽	72 (0.9) △	63 (1.1) ▽
Belgium (Flemish) †	53 (1.6) ▼	31 (1.2) ▼	73 (1.1) △	74 (1.3) △
Bulgaria	64 (1.8) ▽	52 (1.6) △	71 (1.1) △	58 (1.5) ▽
Cyprus	56 (1.3) ▼	39 (1.1) ▽	45 (1.1) ▼	57 (1.0) ▽
Czech Republic †	86 (0.6) ▲	68 (0.9) ▲	74 (1.1) △	74 (0.8) △
Denmark †	80 (0.8) ▲	77 (0.8) ▲	76 (1.0) △	73 (0.9) △
England ‡	72 (1.2) △	73 (1.1) ▲	62 (1.1) ▽	50 (1.3) ▼
Estonia	80 (1.1) ▲	62 (1.1) ▲	64 (1.1) ▽	63 (1.2)
Finland	83 (0.8) ▲	36 (1.0) ▼	84 (0.7) ▲	73 (1.0) △
Greece	66 (1.1) ▽	36 (1.2) ▼	58 (1.0) ▽	63 (1.3) ▽
Ireland	69 (1.2)	51 (1.1) △	67 (1.0)	66 (1.3)
Italy	71 (1.7)	52 (1.8)	55 (1.6) ▼	74 (1.3) △
Latvia	70 (1.2)	58 (1.6) △	69 (1.3)	56 (1.2) ▽
Liechtenstein	77 (1.9) △	29 (2.5) ▼	63 (2.4)	71 (2.3) △
Lithuania	68 (1.3)	49 (1.1)	72 (1.2) △	69 (1.3) △
Luxembourg	51 (0.7) ▼	31 (0.7) ▼	70 (0.8) △	62 (0.8) ▽
Malta	57 (1.6) ▼	36 (1.8) ▼	62 (1.5) ▽	60 (1.6) ▽
Poland	86 (1.0) ▲	80 (0.9) ▲	73 (1.3) △	69 (1.2) △
Slovak Republic[1]	84 (1.1) ▲	48 (2.0)	68 (1.6)	72 (1.5) △
Slovenia	62 (1.2) ▽	37 (1.5) ▼	54 (1.4) ▼	75 (1.0) △
Spain	53 (1.3) ▼	35 (1.0) ▼	61 (1.1) ▽	64 (1.1)
Sweden	71 (0.9)	69 (0.9) ▲	77 (1.0) ▲	57 (1.0) ▽
Switzerland †	77 (1.1) △	29 (0.8) ▼	66 (1.5)	65 (1.1)
European ICCS average	**69 (0.3)**	**49 (0.3)**	**67 (0.3)**	**65 (0.3)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	57 (2.9)	31 (1.5)	63 (1.8)	80 (1.8)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average
▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

When the students were asked whether it was true or false that the euro is the official currency of all European countries (Q11a), 69 percent of them, on average, identified this statement as false. There was considerable variation in the national percentages across the participating countries. The percentages of correct responses ranged from 51 percent (Luxembourg) to 86 percent (the Czech Republic and Poland). We could find no consistent association between national levels of knowledge for this item and country membership in the EU or the eurozone.

More specifically, test question 11b asked students to state whether it was true or false that the euro is the official currency in all EU countries. Only about half of the students (49%) knew that this statement was false. The percentages of students answering correctly were lowest in Liechtenstein and Switzerland, the two non-member and non-eurozone countries. However, their percentages (both 29%) were not far below those of Belgium (Flemish) (31%), Greece (36%), Luxembourg (31%), Malta (36%), Slovenia (37%), and Spain (35%), all of which are EU members and countries where the euro is the official currency. In contrast, the countries where most students knew that the euro is not the official currency of the EU were the Czech Republic (68%), Denmark (77%), England (73%), Estonia (62%), Poland (80%), and Sweden (69%). None of these countries is a eurozone country, so it is possible that their students were at an advantage when answering this statement. However, two other countries where the euro is also not the official currency (Bulgaria and Lithuania) had relatively low percentages of students answering this item correctly (52 and 49 percent respectively).

Test question Q11c required students to indicate whether it was true or false that euro banknotes have the same design in every country where the euro is the official currency. On average, about two thirds of students (67%) knew that this statement was true. The lowest percentages of correct responses were found in Cyprus (45%), Italy (55%), and Slovenia (54%); the highest were found in Finland (84%) and Sweden (77%). Again, there was no clear association between national percentages and countries' membership in the eurozone.

Test question Q12 asked students to select, from four possible options, an advantage of the common currency. On average, 65 percent of students across European ICCS countries correctly identified facilitating the buying and selling of goods between eurozone countries as an advantage. When we compared country scores with the European ICCS average, only one country had a difference that was larger than 10 percentage points. This was England, with 50 percent. Again, we could find no clear association between countries' membership of the eurozone and the national percentages of students correctly answering this question. Four of the 10 countries significantly above the average and four of the 10 countries significantly below the ICCS average were non-eurozone countries.

Students' perceptions of their knowledge of the European Union

In addition to answering the European ICCS test, the European students participating in ICCS completed a European questionnaire designed to determine their attitudes toward and views about Europe and European issues. One question asked students to rate ("a lot," "quite a lot," "a little," or "nothing") how much they knew about each of the following four topic areas assessed in the European test: (i) facts about the EU, (ii) EU laws and policies, (iii) EU institutions (e.g., European Parliament), and the euro (the currency of some EU countries).

The ICCS researchers asked this question because the European test, as a new component of ICCS, provided an opportunity to find how much Grade 8 students believe they know about the EU, thereby providing data on a matter not previously extant.

The resulting scale had a satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.78 and was standardized to a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the combined European ICCS database. Figure 3.4 in Appendix D, which shows the item-by-score map for this scale,

denotes that students with an average ICCS score of 50 were likely to report a little knowledge for three of these topic areas and quite a lot of knowledge for one of these areas. Average percentages of students who reported quite a lot or a lot of knowledge ranged from 24 percent (EU institutions) to 70 percent (the euro).

Table 3.7 shows the national averages for each country overall and for each gender group. The average scores ranged from 46 to 56. The highest averages (more than three scale points above the European ICCS average) were found in Bulgaria, Italy, and Slovenia. Two of these countries are recently joined members. As such, campaigns and publicity about EU membership might have influenced students' levels of confidence. However, this consideration does not explain why students in some other recently joined countries did not show correspondingly high levels of confidence.

The lowest levels of self-reported EU knowledge were evident in Denmark, England, Liechtenstein, Sweden, and Switzerland. Not surprisingly, two of these countries (Liechtenstein and Switzerland) were the only non-EU members in this analysis.

In all countries, males recorded significantly higher levels of self-reported knowledge about the EU than female students. On average, the difference between the two gender groups was three scale points. In 10 countries (Austria, Belgium (Flemish), Denmark, England, Finland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Sweden, and Switzerland), the gender differences were somewhat larger—between four and six scale points.

To investigate the association between students' self-reported EU knowledge and the civic knowledge that was assessed through the international ICCS test, we divided the scale scores for self-reported knowledge about the EU into national tertile groups (three equally sized groups). We then reported the civic knowledge scores (from the international test) within each of these groups and tested the differences between the low-, medium-, and high-tertile groups for statistical significance. When interpreting these results, it is important to keep in mind that we computed the tertile groups for each country separately, which is why, across countries, students in each group do not necessarily have the same levels of self-reported EU knowledge.

Table 3.8 shows that there was no consistent association between students' self-reported EU knowledge and civic knowledge. On average, across all countries, students in the low-tertile group (i.e., the students in each country who had the lowest confidence in their EU knowledge) scored 509 on the international civic knowledge test while those in the high-tertile group scored 512. In contrast, students with medium levels of confidence in their EU knowledge had an average of 524, the highest average score among the three groups on the international civic knowledge test.

Denmark was the only country for which we found a clear positive association between self-assessed knowledge and performance on the ICCS civic knowledge test: students in the medium-tertile group had significantly higher scores than those in the low-tertile group and significantly lower scores than those in the high-tertile group. In Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, Finland, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, and the Slovak Republic, the scores in the top-tertile group were also significantly higher than in the low-tertile group (with mid-range scores in the medium-tertile group). In two countries (Bulgaria and England), students in the low-tertile group had significantly higher civic knowledge scores than students in the high-tertile group.

These results suggest that, for most countries, there was no clear linear association between civic knowledge in the international context and self-reported EU knowledge. We acknowledge, though, that self-reported knowledge about the EU was unlikely to correlate with civic knowledge scores obtained from a test about more general civics and citizenship content.

Table 3.7: National averages for students' self-reported knowledge about European Union topics across European countries overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Self-Reported Knowledge About the EU										
	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males–females)*		30 40 50 60 70	
Austria	53	(0.2)	△	50	(0.3)	55	(0.3)	**5**	(0.4)		
Belgium (Flemish) †	49	(0.3)	▽	47	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**4**	(0.4)		
Bulgaria	54	(0.3)	▲	53	(0.3)	55	(0.4)	**2**	(0.4)		
Cyprus	53	(0.2)	△	51	(0.3)	54	(0.4)	**3**	(0.4)		
Czech Republic †	49	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**2**	(0.3)		
Denmark †	46	(0.2)	▼	44	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**5**	(0.5)		
England ‡	46	(0.3)	▼	44	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	**4**	(0.5)		
Estonia	48	(0.2)	▽	47	(0.2)	50	(0.3)	**3**	(0.3)		
Finland	47	(0.2)	▽	45	(0.2)	50	(0.3)	**5**	(0.3)		
Greece	53	(0.2)	△	51	(0.3)	54	(0.3)	**3**	(0.5)		
Ireland	49	(0.2)	▽	47	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**3**	(0.4)		
Italy	56	(0.3)	▲	55	(0.3)	57	(0.3)	**1**	(0.3)		
Latvia	50	(0.2)		49	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	**3**	(0.4)		
Liechtenstein	47	(0.5)	▼	45	(0.6)	48	(0.8)	**4**	(1.0)		
Lithuania	51	(0.2)	△	50	(0.2)	51	(0.3)	**1**	(0.3)		
Luxembourg	50	(0.3)		48	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	**5**	(0.4)		
Malta	52	(0.4)	△	49	(0.4)	54	(0.5)	**5**	(0.7)		
Poland	50	(0.2)		48	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	**3**	(0.4)		
Slovak Republic[1]	52	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	53	(0.4)	**2**	(0.3)		
Slovenia	53	(0.2)	▲	52	(0.3)	55	(0.3)	**3**	(0.4)		
Spain	50	(0.2)		48	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	**3**	(0.5)		
Sweden	46	(0.3)	▼	43	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**5**	(0.4)		
Switzerland †	46	(0.3)	▼	44	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**6**	(0.4)		
European ICCS average	**50**	**(0.0)**		**48**	**(0.0)**	**52**	**(0.0)**	**3**	**(0.1)**		
Country not meeting sampling requirements											
Netherlands	51	(0.6)		50	(0.7)	52	(0.6)	**3**	(0.4)		

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Female average score +/– confidence interval

Male average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of reporting their level of knowledge about the EU as:

	A little or nothing
	A lot or quite a lot

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences in **bold**.

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Given that students' self-reported EU knowledge is likely to be influenced by their general self-confidence, we decided to review the association between these two variables. ICCS researchers identified citizenship self-efficacy as an important concept for ICCS and defined this characteristic as "students' self-confidence to undertake specific tasks in the area of civic participation" (Schulz et al., 2008, p. 24).

The international student questionnaire asked students about how well ("very well," "fairly well," "not very well," "not well at all") they thought they would perform seven different activities related to citizenship participation at or outside of school. These activities included discussing a newspaper article, arguing one's point of view about a controversial issue, standing

Table 3.8: Averages of civic knowledge in national tertile groups of students' self-reported knowledge about the European Union

Country	Self-Assessed Knowledge about EU Topics			
	Lowest-tertile group	Medium-tertile group	Highest-tertile group	
Austria	506 (4.3)	504 (4.9)	502 (5.4)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	505 (4.9)	530 (4.7)	513 (5.7)	▷
Bulgaria	479 (5.5)	489 (6.3)	450 (6.2)	◁
Cyprus	459 (3.4)	460 (3.5)	451 (4.1)	
Czech Republic †	495 (2.9)	519 (2.5)	519 (4.0)	▷
Denmark †	551 (4.4)	584 (3.7)	602 (4.8)	▶
England ‡	525 (4.8)	535 (4.6)	504 (7.5)	◁
Estonia	522 (4.8)	539 (5.8)	525 (5.7)	
Finland	569 (3.9)	579 (3.1)	580 (3.6)	▷
Greece	471 (5.0)	484 (5.1)	478 (6.2)	
Ireland	531 (4.9)	547 (4.8)	530 (6.2)	
Italy	522 (4.7)	535 (3.5)	540 (4.6)	▷
Latvia	481 (5.3)	489 (4.3)	474 (5.8)	
Liechtenstein	530 (10.1)	547 (6.6)	511 (8.6)	
Lithuania	493 (3.4)	510 (3.4)	511 (4.1)	▷
Luxembourg	470 (3.1)	491 (2.9)	464 (3.7)	
Malta	486 (5.5)	508 (6.0)	472 (5.5)	
Poland	527 (5.3)	548 (4.7)	538 (6.0)	▷
Slovak Republic[1]	515 (4.0)	535 (6.1)	540 (5.8)	▷
Slovenia	511 (2.8)	522 (4.0)	517 (4.3)	
Spain	499 (4.8)	517 (4.1)	500 (5.5)	
Sweden	529 (4.3)	548 (4.1)	539 (4.5)	
Switzerland †	526 (3.9)	540 (4.3)	526 (7.1)	
European ICCS average	**509 (1.0)**	**524 (1.0)**	**512 (1.2)**	▷
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	487 (9.7)	496 (8.7)	492 (14.9)	

National percentage

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lower tertile *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest tertile *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

as a candidate in a school election, organizing a group of students, following a television debate, writing a letter to a newspaper, and speaking in front of the class. The seven-item scale had a reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.82 and was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the combined international database.

Table 3.9 shows a consistent significant relationship between self-reported EU knowledge and levels of citizenship self-efficacy. This pattern was true for all European ICCS countries. On average, the students in the low-tertile group had a citizenship self-efficacy of 46, those in the medium group 49, and those in the highest group 52 score points. The difference between the highest and lowest tertile groups was more than half of an international standard deviation on average and ranged from 5 to 10 points within countries.

The finding that these variables were related was not unexpected because both were based on subjective student reports about their own abilities. It is plausible that students who tended to rate their knowledge as high would also have expressed confidence in their own ability to carry out civic-related activities.

Table 3.9: Averages of students' citizenship efficacy in national tertile groups of students' self-reported knowledge about the European Union

Country	Self-Assessed Knowledge About EU Topics			
	Lowest-tertile group	Medium-tertile group	Highest-tertile group	
Austria	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	54 (0.3)	▶
Belgium (Flemish) †	44 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	▶
Bulgaria	47 (0.5)	50 (0.3)	53 (0.4)	▶
Cyprus	48 (0.4)	52 (0.4)	55 (0.4)	▶
Czech Republic †	44 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	▶
Denmark †	46 (0.4)	49 (0.2)	53 (0.4)	▶
England ‡	46 (0.4)	51 (0.4)	53 (0.5)	▶
Estonia	46 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	▶
Finland	42 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	▶
Greece	49 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	56 (0.4)	▶
Ireland	45 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	53 (0.4)	▶
Italy	48 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	55 (0.3)	▶
Latvia	47 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	▶
Liechtenstein	44 (1.0)	48 (0.6)	53 (0.7)	▶
Lithuania	47 (0.4)	50 (0.2)	53 (0.3)	▶
Luxembourg	45 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	▶
Malta	41 (0.5)	47 (0.4)	51 (0.4)	▶
Poland	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	54 (0.4)	▶
Slovak Republic[1]	46 (0.3)	48 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	▶
Slovenia	46 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	53 (0.4)	▶
Spain	46 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	▶
Sweden	45 (0.5)	49 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	▶
Switzerland †	45 (0.4)	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	▶
European ICCS average	**46 (0.1)**	**49 (0.1)**	**52 (0.1)**	▶
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	44 (0.7)	48 (0.7)	50 (0.6)	▶

National percentage

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lower tertile *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest tertile *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Summary of findings

In this chapter, we explored the general civic knowledge of the students who participated in the European module of ICCS countries. We looked at their specific knowledge about the EU and their self-reported knowledge on topics related to the EU.

On average, students in the European ICCS countries achieved above the international average on the ICCS international test, although there was a wide spread of civic knowledge across and within countries. Students in Finland and Sweden showed, on average, superior knowledge on the ICCS international test, compared with their peers in the other European ICCS countries.

Knowledge of basic facts about the EU was also fairly widespread across the participating countries. Large majorities of students in each country could identify the EU flag and knew whether or not their country was a member of the EU.

Civic knowledge of more detailed information about the EU, however, was not so prevalent; fewer students were able to identify the location of the European Parliament, the number of countries that are EU member states, or a requirement for joining the EU.

There was considerable variation in student knowledge about laws and policies of the EU. Students tended to know some aspects well but appeared to be less familiar with other aspects.

Some countries that had recently joined the EU had students with relatively high levels of civic knowledge about the EU and relatively high levels of confidence in their knowledge about the EU. However, this pattern was not true for all recent EU member countries.

Although student knowledge about the euro and the eurozone was relatively widespread across countries, a sizeable proportion of the participating students believed that the euro is the official currency in all EU countries. Generally, students in countries within the eurozone appeared to have levels of knowledge about the common currency no higher than the level of knowledge among students in countries where the euro is not the official currency.

When students were asked about their knowledge about four topics related to the EU, males reported consistently higher levels of knowledge than female students. There was no consistent association between students' self-reported EU knowledge and their general civic knowledge as measured by the international ICCS test.

Finally, we found a clear association between students' self-reported EU knowledge and their perceived levels of citizenship self-efficacy, which was measured by rating students' self-reported levels of confidence to perform a series of civic-related tasks.

CHAPTER 4:

Students' civic identity and attitudes toward European policies and institutions

This is the first in the series of chapters in this publication that reports on students' perceptions and behaviors in relation to the affective-behavioral dimension of the ICCS assessment framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). In this chapter, we focus on two areas:

- European citizenship and identity; and
- European policies, institutions, and participation.

We report the findings relating to students' views of citizenship and identity with regard to European, national, and global belonging. We also explore students' perceptions of and attitudes toward European policies and institutions across the 24 European countries that participated in the European regional module. Results are based on data from the European ICCS student questionnaire as well as from the ICCS international student questionnaire.

There is wide recognition in the literature of changes that have taken place with respect to the concept of European citizenship and identity. These changes are a consequence of the establishment of European institutions and the effects of globalization (Delanty, 1995, 2007; Delanty & Rumford, 2005; Keating, 2009; Robyn, 2005). Scholars and commentators view the signing of the Treaty of European Union (better known as the Maastricht Treaty) in 1992 as an important turning point in the conception of and discourse about European citizenship and identity (see, for example, Osler & Starkey, 2008).

Some researchers argue that the once dominant national identity has been superseded by more fluid, post-national identities (including European) (Osler & Starkey, 2001, 2008; Soysal, 1998). Others believe that although broader post-national European citizenship has forced change to notions of national citizenship, the latter still remains a force (Delanty, 2007; Fligstein, 2009). Some commentators also claim that recent European referendum defeats in Ireland and Sweden signal that the concept of European identity and citizenship has reached its limits and is now in retreat (Checkel & Katzenstein, 2009).

These events and viewpoints made European citizenship and identity and European Union (EU) political policies and institutions a particular focus in the European student questionnaire. Of particular interest were the strength of students' feelings of identity with regard to Europe and their country of residence and students' attitudes toward European policies and issues, such as EU enlargement or the establishment of a single currency. The international student questionnaire also contained items on students' levels of trust in political institutions in the students' respective countries.

Several research questions informed the decision to focus on students' perceptions and attitudes toward European citizenship and identity in the European student questionnaire:

- To what extent do students have a sense of European identity and belonging?
- To what extent do students have a sense of national identity and belonging?
- To what extent are there differences in the sense of national identity and belonging between students from immigrant and non-immigrant backgrounds?
- How does students' sense of European identity and belonging compare with their sense of national identity and belonging?
- To what extent do students have a sense of belonging to the European Union (EU)?

The questions considered with regard to students' perceptions of and attitudes toward European policies were these:

- To what extent do students support a political unification of European countries?
- To what extent do students support a harmonization of policies amongst European countries?
- To what extent do students support the establishment of a single European currency?
- What is the nature of the relationship between students' support for political unification, European currency integration, and EU enlargement and their civic knowledge?

The two specific research questions asked in relation to students' perceptions of European political institutions were:

- To what extent do students trust European political institutions?
- How do students' levels of trust in European political institutions compare with their levels of trust in political institutions at local, national, and global levels?

When interpreting the results on student perceptions of European issues, we need to remember the considerable differences that exist in the economic, political, social, and educational characteristics of individual European countries, as shown in the indicators in Chapter 2 of this report. European countries vary in terms of:

- *Economic position:* the size and health of the economy and the extent of spending power of the country and its people;
- *Political position:* the size and influence of governments, political parties, and politicians in and beyond the country (e.g., in Europe and at the global level);
- *Social position:* the health, wealth, and stability of society, its structures, institutions, and people; and
- *Educational position:* the extent of educational provision and levels of educational achievement of the population.

These factors, in varying combinations, may have a bearing on the results in individual countries concerning attitudes toward European policies and institutions. They should be kept in mind when examining the outcomes in this and subsequent chapters. For example, when considering greater policy convergence in the EU, we need to be mindful that a country in Western Europe with strong economic, political, social, and educational provision may not be particularly keen on this convergence because it threatens to dilute the country's influence in and beyond Europe. A country in Eastern Europe, however, that is a newer EU member state, is probably likely to support greater convergence because of the benefits that accrue (e.g., strengthening the economy, bringing greater stability to society). Such positions, stated by civic and political leaders, through the media and by family and peers, may have had an influence on the attitudes of students in those countries who participated in ICCS.

Students' sense of European identity and belonging

European identity and belonging have been consistent themes of interest in research literature and media over the past decade. Interest in the extent to which people feel attached to Europe and the EU relative to attachment to their country and the world has been particularly evident.

The European ICCS questionnaire included a question that asked students how much they agreed or disagreed (on a four-point scale) with a series of statements about civic identity. The first six of these statements concerned European identity, including in relation to national and global identities. The remaining three related to the EU or the students' own region. These

three statements were optional for countries. The following five items were used to measure students' sense of European identity:

- I see myself as European;
- I am proud to live in Europe;
- I feel part of Europe;
- I see myself first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of the world;
- I have more in common with young people from European countries than with those in countries outside Europe.

These items were used to derive a scale with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted European ICCS countries that had met sampling requirements. Figure 4.1 in Appendix D presents the item-by-score map for this scale. Students with an average score of 50 were expected to agree with all of the statements. The figure shows that, on average, percentages of students who responded with agreement or strong agreement to these items ranged from 64 percent (have more in common with young people from Europe than from other countries) to 91 percent (are proud to be a European or see themselves as Europeans).

Table 4.1 provides the mean scores for each country on the scale.[1] As indicated by the average percentages of agreement, students generally expressed a strong sense of European identity and belonging. National scale averages ranged from 45 to 54. Slovenia and Italy had average scores of more than 3 points above the European ICCS average whereas Latvia had the lowest national average, 45.

Table 4.1 also shows that male students tended to express a somewhat stronger sense of European identity than females. On average, the difference was two score points. We found statistically significant differences in a majority of countries; the countries where the differences were not significant were Cyprus, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Malta, and Switzerland.

Another aspect of students' perception of European identity is the extent to which it is inclusive (shared by all members of the community regardless of their background and origin) or exclusive (shared only by those whose families were born in the country of residence). Comparing the sense of European identity of students from non-immigrant families with those from immigrant backgrounds (either other countries in Europe or countries outside Europe) was therefore deemed a useful exercise.[2]

However, it is important to realize that considerable differences exist in individual European countries in terms of the classification of immigrants, the reasons for and history of immigration, the size of the immigrant population, the policies on immigration, and how societies perceive and receive immigrants. Research confirms the increasing diversity of immigrant backgrounds in Europe (Penninx, Spencer, & Van Hear, 2008). This diversity

1 When presenting the national averages and percentages from the questionnaire data, we annotated the results that were significantly different (at $p < 0.05$) from the European ICCS average. Note also our use of different symbols to annotate results that are considerably (i.e., three questionnaire scale points) above or below the European ICCS average. The choice of this threshold corresponds to roughly about a third of a standard deviation for these variables. We show data from countries that did not meet sample participation requirements in a separate section of the table but do not include them in our interpretation of results.

2 Students were divided into two categories. The category "students with immigrant background" included students who reported that neither they nor their parents had been born in the country of the test, and students who had been born in the country of the test but whose parents were both born elsewhere. The category "students from non-immigrant families" comprised all other students, including students who were born in another country but whose parents had been born in the country of the test.

Table 4.1: National averages for students' sense of European identity overall and by gender

Country	Students' Sense of European Identity by Gender									
	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males–females)*		30 40 50 60 70
Austria	51	(0.3)	△	50	(0.4)	52	(0.4)	**2**	(0.5)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	49	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.2)	51	(0.3)	**2**	(0.4)	
Bulgaria	50	(0.2)		49	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	**2**	(0.4)	
Cyprus	49	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.2)	49	(0.4)	1	(0.5)	
Czech Republic †	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	50	(0.3)	**1**	(0.3)	
Denmark †	49	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.2)	50	(0.3)	**2**	(0.3)	
England ‡	48	(0.3)	▽	47	(0.3)	50	(0.4)	**3**	(0.5)	
Estonia	50	(0.3)		50	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	**1**	(0.4)	
Finland	52	(0.2)	△	51	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	**2**	(0.4)	
Greece	50	(0.2)		49	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**1**	(0.4)	
Ireland	50	(0.2)		49	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	**2**	(0.4)	
Italy	54	(0.2)	▲	53	(0.3)	55	(0.3)	**2**	(0.3)	
Latvia	45	(0.3)	▼	45	(0.4)	46	(0.4)	1	(0.5)	
Liechtenstein	50	(0.5)		50	(0.8)	50	(0.8)	0	(1.0)	
Lithuania	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	0	(0.3)	
Luxembourg	52	(0.2)	△	50	(0.2)	53	(0.2)	**3**	(0.3)	
Malta	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.5)	48	(0.4)	0	(0.6)	
Poland	49	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.2)	49	(0.2)	**1**	(0.3)	
Slovak Republic[1]	52	(0.3)	△	51	(0.4)	54	(0.4)	**2**	(0.5)	
Slovenia	53	(0.3)	▲	53	(0.4)	54	(0.3)	**2**	(0.5)	
Spain	53	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	54	(0.4)	**2**	(0.4)	
Sweden	50	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	**2**	(0.4)	
Switzerland †	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.4)	49	(0.4)	1	(0.5)	
European ICCS average	50	(0.1)		49	(0.1)	51	(0.1)	**2**	(0.1)	
Country not meeting sampling requirements										
Netherlands	48	(0.4)		47	(0.5)	49	(0.6)	**2**	(0.6)	

National average

▲ more than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ significantly above European ICCS average
▼ more than 3 score points below European ICCS average
▽ significantly below European ICCS average

Female average score +/– confidence interval
Male average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements regarding EU identity with:

Disagree or strongly disagree
Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

encompasses immigration backgrounds from countries and regions outside as well as within Europe that have arisen through various routes, such as the following:

- Colonial migration (largely into countries in Western and Southern Europe);
- Labor migration (into all European countries and involving those from outside and within Europe);
- Political migration (largely within former Communist countries in Eastern and Central Europe), and;
- Refugee migration (largely from countries in Eastern to countries in Western Europe).

These diversity factors may have a bearing, in individual countries, on the results concerning students' sense of European identity. They may also have influenced students' attitudes toward European policies and institutions considered in this and the other chapters of this report.

Table 4.2 shows the average scores for students' sense of European identity for those countries with sufficiently large sub-samples of immigrant students. As is evident from the table, the differences relative to sense of European identity between students from immigrant and non-immigrant backgrounds were negligible in many countries. Also evident, however, are the considerable differences between the two groups in several other countries.

Table 4.2: National averages for students' sense of European identity overall and by family background

Country	Students' Sense of European Identity by Immigrant Background									
	All students		Students from non-immigrant families (A)		Students with immigrant background (B)		Differences (A–B)*		30 40 50 60 70	
Austria	51	(0.3)	52	(0.4)	48	(0.6)	**4**	(0.7)		
Belgium (Flemish) †	49	(0.2)	50	(0.2)	47	(0.5)	**3**	(0.5)		
Cyprus	49	(0.2)	49	(0.2)	50	(0.7)	-1	(0.8)		
Czech Republic †	49	(0.2)	49	(0.2)	45	(0.9)	**4**	(0.9)		
Denmark †	49	(0.2)	49	(0.2)	46	(0.6)	**3**	(0.7)		
England ‡	48	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	48	(0.6)	1	(0.6)		
Estonia	50	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	47	(0.7)	**3**	(0.7)		
Finland	52	(0.2)	52	(0.2)	49	(1.2)	**2**	(1.2)		
Greece	50	(0.2)	50	(0.2)	48	(0.6)	**1**	(0.6)		
Ireland	50	(0.2)	51	(0.3)	49	(0.5)	**2**	(0.6)		
Italy	54	(0.2)	54	(0.2)	49	(0.8)	**6**	(0.9)		
Latvia	45	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	43	(1.3)	2	(1.3)		
Liechtenstein	50	(0.5)	49	(0.7)	50	(1.0)	-1	(1.2)		
Lithuania	49	(0.2)	49	(0.2)	47	(1.0)	2	(1.0)		
Luxembourg	52	(0.2)	51	(0.2)	52	(0.3)	-1	(0.4)		
Slovenia	53	(0.3)	54	(0.3)	50	(0.6)	**4**	(0.6)		
Spain	53	(0.3)	54	(0.3)	44	(0.5)	**10**	(0.6)		
Sweden	50	(0.2)	50	(0.2)	49	(0.6)	1	(0.6)		
Switzerland †	48	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	50	(0.5)	**-1**	(0.6)		
European ICCS average	50	(0.1)	50	(0.1)	48	(0.1)	**2**	(0.2)		
Country not meeting sampling requirements										
Netherlands	48	(0.4)	49	(0.4)	44	(1.1)	**5**	(1.1)		

Non-immigrant student score +/– confidence interval

Immigrant student score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements regarding EU identity with:

	Disagree or strongly disagree
	Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

On average, the difference between immigrant and non-immigrant students was two scale score points. In Austria, the Czech Republic, and Slovenia, the scale scores of students from immigrant backgrounds were four points below the scores of non-immigrant students. The difference was even larger in Italy (6 score points) and larger still in Spain (10 score points), the country with the biggest score point difference between the two groups.

The overall difference between immigrant and non-immigrant students in terms of sense of European identity and belonging was about 0.2 of a standard deviation. Students from non-immigrant families had an overall scale score of 50, matching the overall average for European identity, while students from immigrant backgrounds had a scale score of 48 overall. However, we need to take into account that it was not possible for us to distinguish students from European immigrant backgrounds from those whose families had come from non-European countries. Differences in the origin of immigrant students across countries might help to explain the variation between the groups.

Students' attitudes toward Europe and the country in which they live

As previously noted, one of the salient issues in the debates about citizenship and identity in Europe is the question of locus of identity and, in particular, the relationship between European identity and national identity. This issue is sometimes expressed in terms of the extent to which European identity supersedes national identity. More specifically, it subsumes questions about whether these identities coexist or whether national identity remains dominant for citizens in Europe.

In order to address these aspects, the ICCS research team included a question in the European student questionnaire that sought to gauge students' sense of identity in relation to the country in which they live. The students' responses enabled comparison of students' perceptions of national identity with their perceptions of European and global identities. Frequencies were explored across countries in relation to three items:

- I see myself as European;
- I see myself first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of <country of test>;
- I see myself first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of the world.

Table 4.3 shows the national percentages of students agreeing or strongly agreeing with each of these statements. Evident is the overall strong agreement with the first of these statements: an average of 91 percent of students agreed that they see themselves as European.

The range of responses across countries was narrow. At the lower end of the range, 81 percent of students (in Latvia) agreed or strongly agreed that they felt European, marginally behind England at 82 percent. The highest percentages were found in Finland, Italy, and the Slovak Republic, where 97 percent of students agreed or strongly agreed that they felt European. This narrow range shows that students in all countries identified quite strongly with Europe.

Nevertheless, while most students saw themselves as European, more complex relationships seemed to be at play between their European identity and their other identities. Over one third of students overall in Europe (37 percent) reported seeing themselves first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of the individual country in which they live. The range was from 25 percent (in Poland) to 50 percent in England and 53 percent in Cyprus.

In addition, majorities of students reported that they saw themselves first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of the world. The national percentages ranged from 61 percent (in Latvia) to 78 percent (in Slovenia and the Slovak Republic). On average, 69 percent of students stated that they viewed themselves first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of the world.

Table 4.3: National percentages of students' agreement with statement about feelings of being part of Europe versus being part of own country

Country	Percentages of Students Who Agreed or Strongly Agreed with the Following Statements:								
	I see myself as European			I see myself first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of <country of test>			I see myself first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of the world		
Austria	92	(0.6)		31	(1.2)	▽	62	(1.0)	▽
Belgium (Flemish) †	91	(0.8)		27	(1.2)	▼	69	(1.1)	
Bulgaria	86	(0.8)	▽	44	(1.4)	△	73	(0.9)	△
Cyprus	88	(0.7)	▽	53	(0.9)	▲	63	(1.0)	▽
Czech Republic †	92	(0.5)		37	(0.9)		66	(0.9)	▽
Denmark †	92	(0.5)	△	29	(0.9)	▽	66	(0.9)	▽
England ‡	82	(1.0)	▽	50	(1.2)	▲	66	(1.1)	▽
Estonia	90	(0.7)		31	(1.2)	▽	70	(1.2)	
Finland	97	(0.3)	△	43	(1.0)	△	76	(0.9)	△
Greece	91	(0.6)		32	(1.3)	▽	63	(1.1)	▽
Ireland	90	(0.6)		47	(1.2)	△	75	(0.8)	△
Italy	97	(0.4)	△	47	(1.1)	△	77	(0.8)	△
Latvia	81	(1.2)	▽	39	(1.5)		61	(1.3)	▽
Liechtenstein	96	(1.1)	△	26	(2.3)	▼	62	(2.7)	▽
Lithuania	94	(0.6)	△	32	(1.1)	▽	69	(1.1)	
Luxembourg	93	(0.5)	△	45	(0.9)	△	63	(0.9)	▽
Malta	86	(1.1)	▽	37	(1.4)		66	(1.2)	▽
Poland	92	(0.6)	△	25	(1.1)	▼	74	(0.8)	△
Slovak Republic[1]	97	(0.5)	△	37	(1.1)		78	(0.9)	△
Slovenia	96	(0.4)	△	37	(1.0)		78	(1.0)	△
Spain	93	(0.7)	△	44	(1.1)	△	74	(0.9)	△
Sweden	87	(0.8)	▽	39	(1.0)		69	(1.0)	
Switzerland †	87	(1.0)	▽	28	(1.3)	▽	62	(1.3)	▽
ICCS average	**91**	**(0.2)**		**37**	**(0.3)**		**69**	**(0.2)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements									
Netherlands	88	(1.2)		20	(1.4)		65	(2.1)	

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Caution needs to be exercised when making comparisons between responses from the students who agreed or strongly agreed with each of these three statements. Students responded to three individual statements on the merits of each statement; they were not asked to rank their strength of feeling in relation to European, national, and global identities.

These findings do not necessarily imply that students lack a sense of national identity. Just as it is possible to maintain a global identity alongside a strong European identity, it is also possible for students to have a sense of European identity alongside a strong national identity.

ICCS also investigated aspects of national identity itself, and the study's international student questionnaire included a question that asked students to rate their agreement ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," or "strongly disagree") with eight statements about their attitudes toward the country in which they live. The following seven items were used for scaling:

- The <flag of country of test> is important to me;
- The political system in <country of test>works well;
- I have great respect for <country of test>;
- In <country of test>, we should be proud of what we have achieved;
- I am proud to live in <country of test>;
- <Country of test> shows a lot of respect for the environment;
- Generally speaking, <country of test> is a better country to live in than most other countries.

The seven-item scale had a reliability of 0.82 for the combined international dataset. The scale was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for all equally weighted countries that participated in ICCS. The item-by-score map in Figure 4.2 in Appendix D shows that students with the average ICCS score of 50 were those we would expect to have agreed with all seven statements.

Table 4.4 shows the average scale scores for students' attitudes toward their country, as furthermore measured by these items. Also reported are the scale score averages for immigrant background, but only for students in those countries with sufficiently large sub-samples.[3] Table 4.4 shows that in all but one country the averages for both immigrant and non-immigrant students appear in the darker shaded area, evidence that students with scores in this area agreed, on average, with the statements used to measure attitudes toward the country of residence.

In all countries except one, the averages for both immigrant and non-immigrant students indicated that students had positive national identities even though the scores were generally a little higher for non-immigrant than immigrant students. The representation of the scores for both groups are evident in the darker shaded area of the graph, a pattern that indicates agreement with the statements used to measure attitudes toward the country of residence.

In Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, and Latvia, the average scores for attitudes toward country of residence were three points or more below the European average (44 scale points for each of the countries). Austria and Finland, with 52 score points, had average scale scores that were significantly and more than three points above the European ICCS average of 49.

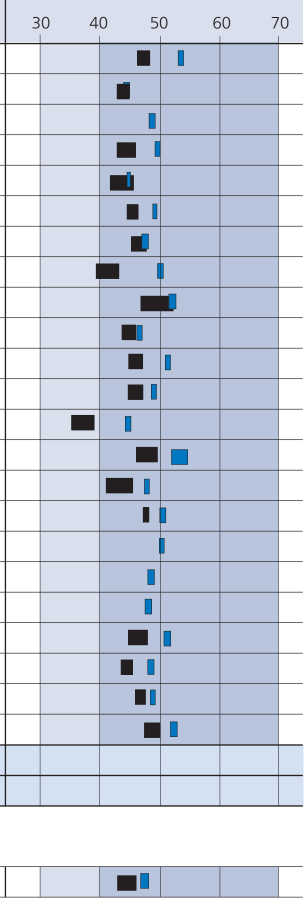
When comparing the average scores for students from non-immigrant families with those from an immigrant background, we found a difference of three scale points on average across the European ICCS countries. This difference showed that immigrant students had less positive attitudes toward their country of residence than non-immigrant students.

Whereas, in most countries, students from non-immigrant background had significantly higher scores than those from immigrant families, we observed no significant differences in Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, England, and Finland. The largest differences (of more than five scale points or half an international standard deviation) were found in Austria, Latvia, and Estonia. Even so, the graphic in Table 4.4 shows that, for all except one country, the scores for students with immigrant backgrounds sit in the darker shaded area, which indicates that, on average, both immigrant and non-immigrant students agreed with the statements measuring positive attitudes toward their country of residence. The only clear exception was Latvia, where students with immigrant status had a score average that reflected disagreement with the items used to measure this construct.

3 Data from sub-samples with fewer than 50 students with an immigrant background are not reported here but were included in the calculation of the average scores.

Table 4.4: National averages of sattitudes toward students' country overall and by immigrant background

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward their Country by Immigrant Background: All students			Students from non-immigrant families (A)		Students with immigrant background (B)		Differences (A–B)*	
Austria	52	(0.3)	▲	53	(0.2)	47	(0.6)	**6**	(0.5)
Belgium (Flemish) †	44	(0.2)	▼	44	(0.2)	44	(0.5)	0	(0.5)
Bulgaria	48	(0.3)		48	(0.3)	^			
Cyprus	49	(0.2)	△	49	(0.2)	44	(0.7)	**5**	(0.7)
Czech Republic †	44	(0.2)	▼	45	(0.2)	44	(1.0)	1	(1.0)
Denmark †	49	(0.2)		49	(0.2)	45	(0.5)	**4**	(0.5)
England ‡	47	(0.2)	▽	47	(0.3)	46	(0.7)	1	(0.7)
Estonia	49	(0.3)	△	50	(0.3)	41	(1.0)	**8**	(0.9)
Finland	52	(0.2)	▲	52	(0.2)	50	(1.4)	2	(1.4)
Greece	46	(0.2)	▽	46	(0.2)	45	(0.5)	**1**	(0.6)
Ireland	50	(0.2)	△	51	(0.2)	46	(0.6)	**5**	(0.6)
Italy	49	(0.2)		49	(0.2)	46	(0.6)	**3**	(0.6)
Latvia	44	(0.3)	▼	44	(0.2)	37	(1.0)	**7**	(0.9)
Liechtenstein	51	(0.6)	△	53	(0.7)	48	(0.9)	**5**	(1.1)
Lithuania	47	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.2)	43	(1.1)	**4**	(1.1)
Luxembourg	49	(0.1)	△	50	(0.2)	48	(0.2)	**3**	(0.3)
Malta	50	(0.3)	△	50	(0.3)	^			
Poland	48	(0.3)		48	(0.3)	^			
Slovak Republic¹	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.3)	^			
Slovenia	51	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	46	(0.8)	**5**	(0.8)
Spain	48	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.3)	44	(0.5)	**4**	(0.6)
Sweden	48	(0.2)		49	(0.2)	47	(0.5)	**2**	(0.5)
Switzerland †	51	(0.3)	△	52	(0.2)	49	(0.6)	**3**	(0.6)
European ICCS average	49	(0.1)		49	(0.1)	45	(0.2)	**3**	(0.2)
ICCS average	50	(0.0)		50	(0.0)	47	(0.3)	**3**	(0.3)
Country not meeting sampling requirements									
Netherlands	47	(0.4)		47	(0.3)	44	(0.7)	**3**	(0.7)



National average

▲ more than 3 score points above European ICCS average

△ significantly above European ICCS average

▼ more than 3 score points below European ICCS average

▽ significantly below European ICCS average

Native students' score +/– confidence interval

Immigrant students' score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to positive statements about their country with:

Disagree or strongly disagree

Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

^ Number of students too small to report group average scores.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

¹ National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 4.5 explores the relationship between the scales reflecting students' attitudes toward their country (see Table 4.4) and their sense of European identity (see Table 4.1). In order to allow investigation of the relationship for each country, we divided, as evident in the table, the average scores for students' sense of European identity into national tertile groups (three equally sized groups) of students' attitudes toward their country.

Table 4.5: National averages for students' sense of European identity by tertile groups of attitudes toward students' country

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward Own Country		
	Lowest-tertile group	Medium-tertile group	Highest-tertile group
Austria	46 (0.4)	51 (0.5)	56 (0.5) ▶
Belgium (Flemish) †	47 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	53 (0.4) ▶
Bulgaria	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	52 (0.4) ▶
Cyprus	47 (0.4)	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3) ▶
Czech Republic †	46 (0.3)	49 (0.2)	53 (0.3) ▶
Denmark †	45 (0.3)	48 (0.2)	53 (0.3) ▶
England ‡	46 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	52 (0.4) ▶
Estonia	46 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	53 (0.3) ▶
Finland	48 (0.2)	52 (0.3)	56 (0.4) ▶
Greece	47 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	52 (0.4) ▶
Ireland	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	54 (0.3) ▶
Italy	50 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	57 (0.3) ▶
Latvia	43 (0.3)	45 (0.4)	47 (0.5) ▶
Liechtenstein	48 (0.8)	50 (0.8)	53 (1.0) ▶
Lithuania	47 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	52 (0.4) ▶
Luxembourg	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	55 (0.3) ▶
Malta	45 (0.5)	48 (0.4)	52 (0.5) ▶
Poland	46 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3) ▶
Slovak Republic[1]	49 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	56 (0.4) ▶
Slovenia	50 (0.4)	53 (0.4)	57 (0.3) ▶
Spain	47 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	58 (0.4) ▶
Sweden	45 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	54 (0.4) ▶
Switzerland †	47 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	50 (0.6) ▶
European ICCS average	**47 (0.1)**	**50 (0.1)**	**53 (0.1)** ▶
Country not meeting sampling requirements			
Netherlands	44 (0.4)	47 (0.4)	53 (0.3) ▶

National average

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

We found, for all European countries, associations between students' attitudes toward their country of residence and their sense of European identity. In all countries, there were significant differences in the scale scores measuring students' sense of European identity between tertile groups formed on the basis of attitudes toward their country. On average, the scores of students in the medium-tertile group based on attitude to country were three scale points above the scores of the students in the low group, while the scores in the high group were three scale points above the scores in the medium group. This pattern tells us that, on average, the more positive students were about their country, the more likely they were to have a strong sense of European identity and belonging.

The largest difference within a country was that for Spain. The difference between the sense of European identity felt by Spanish students in the high-tertile group, based on students' attitudes toward their country, and the Spanish students in the low-tertile group was more than 10 scale points. The smallest difference, although still statistically significant, emerged in Switzerland, where the strength of Swiss students' sense of European identity varied by just over three scale points between the high- and the low-tertile groups.

Students' sense of belonging to the European Union

Additional to interest in European identity and belonging, in general, is particular interest about the extent to which citizens in member states have a sense of identity with the EU and a sense of belonging to it. As we noted earlier, three items in the European student questionnaire asked students to rate their level of agreement with statements concerning European identity and belonging. Because these options were regional ones, we could not include them in the European identity scale. Two of these items asked students about their feelings of affiliation with the EU:

- I feel part of the European Union;
- I am proud that my country is a member of the European Union.

Table 4.6 presents the national percentages of students who agreed or strongly agreed, on a four-point agreement scale, with each statement. In general, students were more likely to feel proud that their country was a member of the EU than they were to feel part of the EU themselves. On average, 86 percent of students in the 21 EU member countries participating in ICCS that had met sample participation requirements were proud that their country was an EU member. A somewhat lower percentage (70%) felt that they themselves were part of the EU.

The table also shows the considerable differences between countries: percentages range from 50 to 90 percent for the item "I feel part of the European Union" and from 73 to 95 percent for the item "I am proud that my country is a member of the European Union."

The highest percentages of students who reported feeling part of the EU were found in Italy (90%), Spain (83%), and the Slovak Republic (81%). The lowest percentages for this item were evident in England (56%), Latvia (54%), and Sweden (50%).

The highest percentages of students who agreed that they felt proud that their country was a member of the EU were found in Ireland (93%), Italy (95%), Lithuania (91%), the Slovak Republic (93%), Slovenia (91%), and Spain (91%). We observed percentages below 80 percent for this item in the Czech Republic (79%), Malta (77%), and Latvia (73%).

Table 4.6: National percentages of students' agreement with statements about feelings of belonging to the European Union

Country	Percentages of Students Strongly Agreeing or Agreeing With:					
	I feel part of the European Union			I am proud that my country is a member of the European Union		
Austria	76	(1.0)	△	80	(0.9)	▽
Belgium (Flemish) †	63	(1.0)	▽	88	(0.7)	△
Bulgaria	71	(1.0)		88	(0.7)	△
Cyprus	73	(0.9)	△	85	(0.7)	
Czech Republic †	61	(0.8)	▽	79	(0.7)	▽
Denmark †	66	(0.8)	▽	84	(0.6)	▽
England ‡	56	(1.0)	▼	81	(0.7)	▽
Estonia	72	(1.2)	△	87	(0.7)	
Finland	63	(1.0)	▽	89	(0.7)	△
Greece	75	(0.9)	△	87	(0.7)	
Ireland	75	(0.9)	△	93	(0.6)	△
Italy	90	(0.7)	▲	95	(0.5)	△
Latvia	54	(1.2)	▼	73	(1.4)	▼
Lithuania	64	(1.2)	▽	91	(0.6)	△
Luxembourg	73	(0.7)	△	88	(0.6)	△
Malta	71	(1.2)		77	(1.1)	▽
Poland	71	(0.9)		87	(0.7)	
Slovak Republic[1]	81	(1.1)	▲	93	(0.7)	△
Slovenia	75	(0.9)	△	91	(0.7)	△
Spain	83	(0.8)	▲	91	(0.6)	△
Sweden	50	(1.0)	▼	81	(0.8)	▽
European ICCS average	**70**	**(0.2)**		**86**	**(0.2)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements						
Netherlands	40	(1.9)		81	(1.5)	

National percentage

▲ more than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ significantly above European ICCS average

▽ significantly below European ICCS average

▼ more than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

Notes:

Liechtenstein and Switzerland are not included because they are not members of the EU.

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Students' attitudes toward European policies

The European student questionnaire included a question measuring students' perceptions of and attitudes toward several key European policies. Students' views on political unification within Europe were measured by asking them to rate ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") the following three statements:

- The heads of state of European countries (<presidents, kings, queens, etc>) should one day be replaced by a "president" of all Europe;
- When countries join the European Union, they should give up their individual governments;
- The European Parliament should one day replace the parliament of all European countries.

The three-item scale had a satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.73 for the pooled European dataset. Figure 4.3 in Appendix D shows the item-by-score map for this scale. As this figure indicates, we would expect students with the European ICCS average score of 50 to disagree with all three items. On average, percentages of agreement ranged from 33 percent (giving up individual governments) to 37 percent (European Parliament should one day replace national parliaments). This range shows that, across participating countries, only a minority of students agreed that national institutions should be given up in the future in favor of institutions at the European level.

Table 4.7 gives the country average scale scores for students' attitudes toward European political unification. For all countries, the average scores sit in the lighter shaded part of the graph, which indicates that students generally tended to disagree with; the statements measuring this scale.

National average scores ranged from 45 to 54. National results of at least three scale score points above the European ICCS average emerged in Bulgaria, Cyprus, and Malta. The lowest average scale scores (below 47 points) occurred in Finland and Denmark, a finding which shows that students in these countries were those least likely to support substantial political unification across the EU.

The European student questionnaire also included five items that addressed harmonization of policies across European countries:

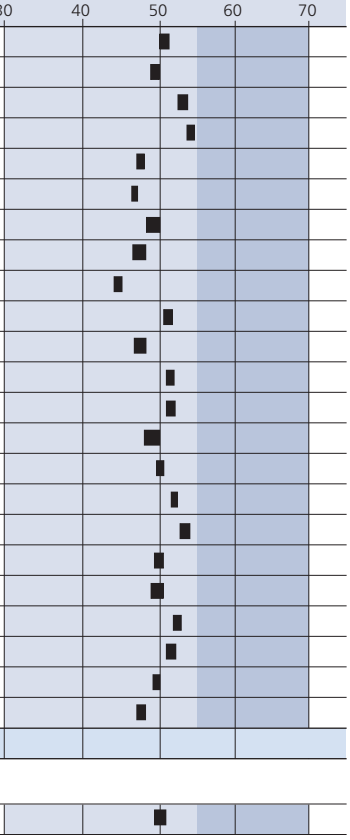
- All European countries should have the same approach to their relationships with countries outside Europe;
- European countries should try and have a common set of policies regarding the environment;
- European countries should try and have similar education systems;
- It would be good if European countries had more similar rules and laws;
- All European countries should have the same economic policies.

Table 4.8 shows the percentages of students who agreed or strongly agreed with each of these five items. On average, the highest percentage of agreement (87%) aligned with the statement about common European policies regarding the environment. This high level of agreement was also evident across the European ICCS countries, given that the percentages ranged from 80 percent (in Cyprus and Latvia) to 94 percent (in the Slovak Republic).

We recorded similar levels of agreement for the statements regarding relationships with countries outside Europe (77%), having similar education systems (79%), and having similar rules and law in Europe (76%).

Table 4.7: National averages for students' attitudes toward European political unification

Country	Students' Attitudes Regarding Political Unification of European Countries		
	Average scale score		
Austria	51	(0.3)	△
Belgium (Flemish) †	49	(0.3)	▽
Bulgaria	53	(0.3)	▲
Cyprus	54	(0.3)	▲
Czech Republic †	48	(0.2)	▽
Denmark †	47	(0.2)	▼
England ‡	49	(0.3)	▽
Estonia	47	(0.4)	▽
Finland	45	(0.2)	▼
Greece	51	(0.3)	△
Ireland	47	(0.3)	▽
Italy	51	(0.2)	△
Latvia	52	(0.3)	△
Liechtenstein	49	(0.5)	▽
Lithuania	50	(0.2)	
Luxembourg	52	(0.2)	△
Malta	53	(0.3)	▲
Poland	50	(0.3)	
Slovak Republic[1]	50	(0.3)	
Slovenia	52	(0.2)	△
Spain	52	(0.3)	△
Sweden	50	(0.2)	
Switzerland †	48	(0.3)	▽
European ICCS average	**50**	**(0.1)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements			
Netherlands	50	(0.4)	



National average

▲ more than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ significantly above European ICCS average
▼ more than 3 score points below European ICCS average
▽ significantly below European ICCS average

Average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to positive statements about European unification with:

	Disagree or strongly disagree
	Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Student agreement was slightly lower for common economic policies (68%). We also observed more variation relative to this item across countries. The percentages of agreement ranged from 51 percent in Denmark to 80 percent in Spain.

As noted earlier, Denmark and Finland were the two countries where students held the least positive views regarding the political unification of Europe (see Table 4.7). Students from these countries also had levels of agreement that were significantly lower than the European ICCS average on four of the statements about harmonizing policies; the exception was the statement about common policies regarding the environment. Together with Austria, Finland and Denmark had the lowest percentages of all countries (71%) agreeing or strongly agreeing that European countries should try to have similar education systems. Finland also had the lowest percentage of students agreeing or strongly agreeing that it would be good if European countries had similar rules and laws (60%), while Denmark had the lowest percentage agreeing or strongly agreeing that all European countries should have the same economic policies (51%).

Table 4.8: National percentages of students' agreement with statements about the harmonization of policies amongst European countries

Country	Percentages of Students Strongly Agreeing or Agreeing that ...				
	All European countries should have the same approach to their relationships with countries outside Europe	European countries should try and have a common set of policies regarding the environment	European countries should try and have similar education systems	It would be good if European countries had more similar rules and laws	All European countries should have the same economic policies
Austria	70 (0.9) ▽	83 (0.8) ▽	71 (0.9) ▽	74 (1.0)	70 (1.0) △
Belgium (Flemish) †	76 (0.8)	91 (0.7) △	85 (0.7) △	80 (0.7) △	71 (0.9) △
Bulgaria	79 (0.7) △	88 (0.8)	86 (0.8) △	86 (0.8) ▲	78 (0.8) ▲
Cyprus	75 (0.9)	80 (0.9) ▽	76 (0.9) ▽	75 (0.9)	72 (1.2) △
Czech Republic †	78 (0.9)	91 (0.5) △	86 (0.6) △	77 (0.6)	54 (0.9) ▼
Denmark †	68 (1.1) ▽	89 (0.6) △	71 (0.7) ▽	64 (1.0) ▼	51 (1.1) ▼
England ‡	81 (0.9) △	85 (0.8) ▽	79 (1.0)	74 (0.9) ▽	66 (1.0)
Estonia	67 (1.1) ▼	85 (0.9) ▽	80 (0.9)	77 (1.0)	68 (1.0)
Finland	70 (1.2) ▽	91 (0.6) △	71 (0.9) ▽	60 (0.9) ▼	60 (1.1) ▽
Greece	80 (0.8) △	86 (1.0)	80 (0.9)	76 (0.9)	69 (1.2)
Ireland	83 (0.8) △	88 (0.8)	76 (0.9) ▽	73 (1.0) ▽	70 (1.0) △
Italy	84 (0.7) △	90 (0.6) △	75 (0.9) ▽	78 (0.9) △	71 (0.8) △
Latvia	79 (1.1) △	80 (1.1) ▽	78 (0.9)	71 (1.2) ▽	77 (1.3) △
Liechtenstein	73 (2.3)	85 (2.0)	73 (2.8) ▽	72 (2.5)	58 (2.7) ▼
Lithuania	81 (0.9) △	91 (0.6) △	86 (0.8) △	81 (0.7) △	76 (0.9) △
Luxembourg	72 (0.8) ▽	86 (0.6) ▽	78 (0.7) ▽	79 (0.6) △	74 (0.6) △
Malta	82 (1.1) △	86 (1.1)	82 (1.1) △	78 (1.2)	71 (1.2) △
Poland	77 (0.9)	86 (0.8)	80 (0.9)	79 (0.8) △	65 (1.2) ▽
Slovak Republic[1]	91 (0.7) ▲	94 (0.6) △	85 (0.9) △	81 (0.8) △	70 (1.2)
Slovenia	83 (0.9) △	85 (0.7) ▽	84 (0.7) △	82 (0.8) △	64 (1.0) ▽
Spain	80 (0.9) △	87 (0.7)	85 (0.8) △	82 (0.8) △	80 (0.9) ▲
Sweden	71 (0.9) ▽	88 (0.7)	84 (0.7) △	71 (1.0) ▽	61 (0.9) ▽
Switzerland †	74 (1.2) ▽	89 (0.6) △	75 (0.8) ▽	72 (1.0) ▽	58 (1.4) ▼
European ICCS average	**77 (0.2)**	**87 (0.2)**	**79 (0.2)**	**76 (0.2)**	**68 (0.2)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements					
Netherlands	74 (1.8)	82 (1.2)	81 (1.6)	75 (1.2)	73 (1.6)

National percentage

▲ more than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ significantly above European ICCS average

▼ more than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

▽ significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

It is worth noting, in terms of context, that the European ICCS student questionnaire was completed in 2009 when the economic situation in Europe was somewhat more stable than now and when economic concerns were beginning to become widespread globally. This increase in awareness of the wider economic situation might have influenced students' responses to the item about harmonization of economic policies.

The pattern of responses to the harmonization items suggests that students in the ICCS target grade generally support greater policy harmonization within Europe in a range of areas. Even in the area where we saw the greatest variance in responses (aligning economic policies), at least half of the participating students in any given country favored harmonizing these policies across European countries.

One of the policies concerning increased European harmonization that has received a great deal of society-wide attention has been the establishment of a single currency (the euro) across EU countries. Given the increased visibility of the euro and the more volatile economic climate that was developing at the time of the European survey in 2009, the ICCS researchers included a question in the European student questionnaire designed to gauge students' attitudes toward currency integration. Students were asked to state their agreement ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") with the following three statements about a common currency for Europe:

- If all European countries had the same currency, they would be economically stronger;
- There are more advantages to joining a common currency, such as the euro, than there are disadvantages;
- All countries in Europe should join the euro.

We used these three items to derive a scale reflecting students' attitudes toward a common European currency. The scale had a reliability of 0.72 (Cronbach's alpha) and was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the combined European database. Figure 4.4 in Appendix D, which gives the item-by-score map for this scale, shows that students with an ICCS average score of 50 were those likely to agree with all three statements. On average, the percentages of agreement ranged from 66 percent (all European countries should join the euro) to 77 percent (more advantages than disadvantages to joining a common currency). These percentages indicate that, across participating ICCS countries in Europe, students within the target age group tend to favor a common currency for the region.

In Table 4.9, which shows the scale score averages for European ICCS countries, the high scores reflect more positive attitudes on the part of the students toward a common currency for the region. There was considerable variation across countries, and all except one average (that for Lithuania) were significantly different from the European ICCS average. The highest scores (more than three scale score points above the average) were recorded for Belgium (Flemish), the Slovak Republic, and Spain. The lowest average scores (more than three scale score points below average) were found in Denmark, England, Liechtenstein, and Switzerland.

The column to the right side of the graph in Table 4.9 shows whether the countries are part of the eurozone. The three countries with the highest average scores are members of the eurozone, whereas the four countries with the lowest average scores do not have the euro as a currency. Generally, all countries with average scale scores above 50 (i.e., those countries where students reported greater positivity about a common currency) were those belonging to the eurozone. The one exception was Bulgaria, a non-eurozone country. Its average scale score of 53 was about three scale score points above the average.

Table 4.9: National averages for students' attitudes toward common European currency

Country	Students' Attitude Towards European Currency: Average scale score			Country is in the eurozone
Austria	52	(0.2)	△	Yes
Belgium (Flemish) †	54	(0.2)	▲	Yes
Bulgaria	53	(0.2)	△	No
Cyprus	50	(0.2)	▽	Yes
Czech Republic †	47	(0.2)	▽	No
Denmark †	46	(0.2)	▼	No
England ‡	46	(0.2)	▼	No
Estonia	48	(0.2)	▽	No
Finland	50	(0.2)	△	Yes
Greece	50	(0.2)	△	Yes
Ireland	52	(0.2)	△	Yes
Italy	52	(0.2)	△	Yes
Latvia	49	(0.3)	▽	No
Liechtenstein	45	(0.5)	▼	No
Lithuania	50	(0.2)		No
Luxembourg	53	(0.2)	△	Yes
Malta	52	(0.3)	△	Yes
Poland	49	(0.2)	▽	No
Slovak Republic[1]	54	(0.2)	▲	Yes
Slovenia	52	(0.2)	△	Yes
Spain	53	(0.2)	▲	Yes
Sweden	47	(0.3)	▽	No
Switzerland †	44	(0.3)	▼	No
European ICCS average	**50**	**(0.0)**		
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	53	(0.4)		Yes

Chart scale: 30 40 50 60 70

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average

■ Average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to positive statements about European currency integration with:

- Disagree or strongly disagree
- Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Another relevant aspect of European integration is the enlargement of the EU. The European student questionnaire included a question asking students about their agreement ("strongly agree," "agree,", "disagree," "strongly disagree") with the following statements:

- The European Union should continue to enlarge until it includes all European countries;
- The European Union should be enlarged so more countries can benefit from the economic advantages it brings;
- All countries in Europe should aspire to become members of the European Union;
- The advantage of European Union enlargement is that it encourages countries that want to join to be democratic;
- The European Union will have greater influence in the world if more countries join it;

- The European Union needs to include all European countries to be a worthwhile organization;
- The advantage of European Union enlargement is that it encourages countries that want to join to respect human rights.

These seven items formed a scale with a reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.75, which we standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the combined European ICCS sample. From Figure 4.5 in Appendix D, which shows the item-by-score map for this scale, we can see that a student with an ICCS average score of 50 was likely to have agreed with all seven statements. The average percentages of agreement shown in the figure ranged from 58 percent (the EU needs to include all European countries to be a worthwhile organization) to 85 percent (EU enlargement will encourage countries that want to join to respect human rights).

Table 4.10 shows the national scale score averages for students' attitudes toward further expansion of the EU. The higher scale scores reflect more positive attitudes. The highest scale scores—more than three points above the average—were evident in Bulgaria, the Slovak Republic, and Spain. Two of these countries (Bulgaria and the Slovak Republic) became EU member states only recently (see the last column of the table, which shows the year that countries joined the EU or its predecessor, the European Economic Community). The lowest averages (more than three points below average) were observed in Switzerland and Liechtenstein, both countries that are not members of the EU.

When considering students' responses to enlargement of the EU, we found that seven of the 10 countries that had, at the time of ICCS, most recently joined the EU (i.e., Bulgaria, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovenia, and the Slovak Republic) had student average scores for this questionnaire item significantly above the European ICCS average. In contrast, in the three remaining countries (the Czech Republic, Estonia, and Latvia), the national averages were significantly below the European ICCS average. Even so, we found that, overall, across all participating European ICCS countries, student attitudes toward enlarging the EU were positive.

To review the extent to which the three sets of attitudes depicted in Tables 4.7, 4.9, and 4.10 were associated with students' civic knowledge, we formed national tertile groups (three equally sized groups) for each of the three scales and then reviewed the average civic knowledge scores within each sub-group. Increasing civic knowledge scores across these tertile groups indicate a positive association; decreasing scores indicate a negative association.

Table 4.11 shows average civic knowledge scores by national tertile groups on each of the three scales. When we look, in this table, at the pattern of scores for students' attitudes toward political unification, we can see a clear negative relationship with civic knowledge. In all countries, the students who were most positive about European political unification were the students who tended to have the lower civic knowledge scores.

On average, students who were in the high national tertile group for attitudes toward political unification scored 469 on the ICCS international test, whereas those who were least positive about political unification in Europe scored 563 score points. This difference between the high- and low-tertile groups is about one international standard deviation (100 score points). Within countries, there was considerable variation with regard to the differences between the high- and low-tertile groups; the range was 47 score points (less than half of an international standard deviation) to 129 score points (more than one international standard deviation).

The results show that European students who were more knowledgeable about issues related to civics and citizenship tended to be less positive with regard to the political unification of Europe. One reason for this finding may be that because the question asked about political

Table 4.10: National averages for students' attitudes toward further expansion of the European Union

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward Enlargement of the EU				
	Average scale score			30 40 50 60 70	Year joined EU
Austria	48	(0.3)	▽		1995
Belgium (Flemish) †	51	(0.2)	△		Founding member 1957
Bulgaria	53	(0.2)	▲		2007
Cyprus	51	(0.2)	△		2004
Czech Republic †	49	(0.2)	▽		2004
Denmark †	49	(0.2)	▽		1973
England ‡	48	(0.2)	▽		1973
Estonia	49	(0.2)	▽		2004
Finland	48	(0.2)	▽		1995
Greece	51	(0.2)	△		1981
Ireland	51	(0.2)	△		1973
Italy	51	(0.2)	△		Founding member 1957
Latvia	49	(0.2)	▽		2004
Liechtenstein	45	(0.5)	▼		Non-member
Lithuania	51	(0.2)	△		2004
Luxembourg	50	(0.2)	▽		Founding member 1957
Malta	53	(0.3)	△		2004
Poland	51	(0.2)	△		2004
Slovak Republic[1]	53	(0.2)	▲		2004
Slovenia	51	(0.2)	△		2004
Spain	53	(0.2)	▲		1986
Sweden	50	(0.2)			1995
Switzerland †	44	(0.2)	▼		Non-member
European ICCS average	**50**	**(0.1)**			
Country not meeting sampling requirements					
Netherlands	49	(0.4)			Founding member 1957

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average
▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average

■ Average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to positive statements about enlargement of the EU with:

	Disagree or strongly disagree
	Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

unification in terms of simply replacing national institutions with European ones, the more knowledgeable students might have had a better understanding of the implications of such changes and therefore been more critical of them.

The associations between civic knowledge and student attitudes toward a common currency for Europe were inconsistent. In Belgium (Flemish) and Spain, there was a clear positive linear association (students in the medium-tertile group had significantly higher scores than students in the low-tertile group and significantly lower scores than students in the high-tertile group). In another 12 countries, students in the high-tertile group had significantly higher scores than those in the low group (although those in the medium-tertile group did not necessarily have a mid-range score in all cases). However, in four countries (Denmark, England, Liechtenstein, and Switzerland), students with the least positive attitudes toward a common currency had significantly higher civic knowledge scores than those with the most positive attitudes.

Table 4.11: National averages for civic knowledge by tertile groups of students' attitudes toward European unification, common European currency, and further expansion of the European Union

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward European Political Unification						Students' Attitudes Toward Common European Currency						Students' Attitudes Toward Further Enlargement of The EU					
	Lowest-tertile group		Medium-tertile group		Highest-tertile group		Lowest-tertile group		Medium-tertile group		Highest-tertile group		Lowest-tertile group		Medium-tertile group		Highest-tertile group	
Austria	560	(4.5)	512	(4.4)	461	(4.7) ◀	484	(5.1)	514	(4.7)	514	(4.7) ▷	496	(5.3)	518	(4.9)	502	(4.5)
Belgium (Flemish) †	557	(4.9)	517	(4.2)	467	(4.9) ◀	496	(6.6)	515	(4.6)	525	(4.9) ▶	513	(5.1)	513	(5.2)	517	(5.9)
Bulgaria	521	(6.6)	463	(4.5)	418	(5.5) ◀	455	(6.3)	480	(6.0)	474	(5.8) ▷	467	(6.1)	474	(5.9)	472	(5.8)
Cyprus	491	(4.0)	448	(3.2)	435	(2.9) ◀	435	(3.8)	465	(3.4)	462	(3.6) ▷	440	(3.3)	467	(3.4)	465	(3.6) ▷
Czech Republic †	560	(3.1)	520	(2.8)	463	(2.3) ◀	513	(2.8)	512	(2.6)	510	(3.4)	507	(3.6)	520	(3.6)	510	(2.1)
Denmark †	632	(4.1)	581	(3.7)	525	(3.9) ◀	589	(4.0)	573	(5.5)	575	(4.2) ◁	578	(4.4)	591	(4.1)	573	(4.6)
England ‡	588	(6.5)	525	(4.2)	459	(4.5) ◀	533	(5.2)	521	(5.6)	510	(5.8) ◁	518	(6.2)	537	(5.5)	514	(5.2)
Estonia	578	(5.4)	535	(4.5)	471	(4.9) ◀	529	(5.9)	523	(5.2)	528	(5.3)	527	(5.8)	529	(6.1)	524	(4.6)
Finland	623	(3.3)	580	(2.5)	518	(3.6) ◀	576	(3.3)	575	(2.8)	581	(3.8)	573	(3.5)	584	(3.6)	575	(3.0)
Greece	504	(6.6)	472	(4.9)	457	(4.0) ◀	474	(4.3)	471	(6.5)	492	(5.3) ▷	472	(4.8)	478	(5.8)	489	(5.0) ▷
Ireland	592	(4.4)	551	(4.5)	477	(4.5) ◀	520	(5.8)	544	(4.8)	542	(4.9) ▷	532	(5.3)	547	(4.8)	528	(5.8)
Italy	567	(3.8)	518	(3.8)	492	(3.8) ◀	513	(4.3)	545	(3.5)	535	(3.9) ▷	528	(4.4)	533	(4.0)	533	(4.1)
Latvia	516	(3.9)	473	(5.7)	448	(4.7) ◀	481	(5.3)	479	(4.5)	488	(4.9)	476	(5.6)	486	(4.5)	484	(5.0)
Liechtenstein	591	(7.2)	536	(6.0)	471	(7.7) ◀	542	(6.9)	535	(8.2)	519	(7.1) ◁	536	(7.7)	542	(9.1)	520	(8.0)
Lithuania	550	(4.2)	512	(2.9)	463	(3.3) ◀	501	(3.4)	509	(3.1)	509	(3.9) ▷	498	(3.4)	511	(3.4)	507	(3.9) ▷
Luxembourg	521	(2.6)	458	(2.9)	425	(4.2) ◀	458	(3.3)	484	(4.3)	481	(3.2) ▷	477	(2.5)	480	(3.0)	465	(3.8) ◁
Malta	531	(5.5)	490	(6.2)	457	(4.5) ◀	472	(5.9)	502	(6.4)	502	(5.3) ▷	456	(6.7)	507	(5.3)	503	(5.6) ▷
Poland	599	(5.5)	544	(4.3)	486	(5.1) ◀	530	(6.2)	538	(4.9)	543	(5.5) ▷	527	(6.0)	541	(4.6)	544	(6.0) ▷
Slovak Republic[1]	583	(6.2)	536	(3.6)	474	(4.6) ◀	512	(6.2)	535	(5.0)	532	(5.4) ▷	528	(6.3)	525	(4.2)	532	(5.1)
Slovenia	559	(3.2)	500	(2.8)	476	(3.6) ◀	511	(4.1)	519	(3.5)	520	(3.4) ▷	518	(3.4)	517	(3.7)	514	(3.9)
Spain	547	(3.3)	487	(5.3)	467	(4.1) ◀	486	(5.6)	511	(4.6)	520	(4.7) ▶	491	(5.6)	514	(4.1)	511	(4.8) ▷
Sweden	604	(4.2)	541	(4.0)	486	(3.2) ◀	542	(4.5)	538	(5.0)	539	(3.9)	528	(4.0)	563	(4.6)	540	(3.8) ▷
Switzerland †	576	(3.6)	542	(5.7)	487	(5.0) ◀	541	(4.1)	534	(5.2)	520	(4.8) ◁	537	(5.6)	540	(3.9)	518	(4.8) ◁
European ICCS average	**563**	**(1.0)**	**515**	**(0.9)**	**469**	**(0.9)** ◀	**508**	**(1.0)**	**518**	**(1.0)**	**518**	**(1.0)** ▷	**510**	**(1.1)**	**522**	**(1.0)**	**515**	**(1.0)** ▷
Country not meeting sampling requirements																		
Netherlands	527	(10.9)	502	(8.9)	457	(7.4) ◀	474	(8.0)	505	(8.4)	494	(12.4)	483	(7.0)	497	(10.3)	496	(11.0)

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

We can also see from Table 4.11 that there were fewer significant differences in civic knowledge across the tertile groups with respect to students' attitudes toward further enlargement of the EU. Students in the high-tertile group had significantly higher civic knowledge scores compared to those in the low-tertile group in only seven countries; in two other countries, the opposite occurred. On average, on this measure, the civic knowledge scores were highest for students in the medium-tertile group, but this pattern was not a consistent one across all countries.

Students' attitudes toward European political institutions

The final research question addressed in this chapter relates to the extent of students' trust in political institutions at the local, national, and supra-national (i.e., European and global) levels.

Many studies have indicated a decline in trust in institutions among adults in the last 20 years, particularly in Western industrialized societies (Newton & Norris, 2000; Putnam, 2000). Other studies involving students, including CIVED, show relatively low levels of trust in civic and political institutions among young people (Hahn, 1998; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001).

Research conducted in Europe also highlights particular patterns of trust across different regions, with the highest levels of trust in civic and political institutions found in the Scandinavian countries, lower levels in Western European countries, and the lowest levels in Central and Eastern Europe (Delhey & Newton, 2005). Levels of trust remain low in countries that have recently undergone the transition to democracy and democratic processes (Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2002). There is also evidence of similar patterns among young people in Europe (Hooghe & Wilkenfeld, 2008).

The ICCS international student questionnaire asked students to rate how much they trusted ("completely," "quite a lot," "a little," or "not at all") different civic and political groups or institutions. The question included two regional items for students in European countries. These focused on students' trust in the European Commission and the European Parliament. We considered the following items relevant for this report:

- The <national government> of <country of test>;
- The <local government> of your town or city;
- <National parliament>;
- The United Nations;
- European Commission;
- European Parliament.

Table 4.12 shows the percentages of students in each European ICCS country who reported that they had complete or quite a lot of trust in each of these institutions. On average, the European ICCS percentages for each institution ranged from 52 percent (national parliament) to 65 percent (local government and the United Nations). European institutions appeared in the middle of this range, with averages of 58 and 59 percent of students who expressed trust in the European Commission and the European Parliament respectively.

Finland, Italy, and Liechtenstein all had relatively high levels of trust across the six institutions shown in Table 4.12. In each of these countries, approximately 70 percent or more of its students reported that they had complete or quite a lot of trust in each of these institutions. The lowest levels of trust in institutions were observed in Cyprus, Greece, Latvia, and Poland. In each of these countries, the percentages of students trusting all six institutions were significantly lower than the European ICCS average.

Table 4.12: National percentages of students' trust in different local, national, European, and international political institutions

Country	Percentages of Students Trusting Completely or Quite a Lot in ...																							
	National Government			Local Government			National Parliament			The United Nations			European Commission			European Parliament								
Austria	77	(0.9)	▲	76	(1.0)	▲	61	(1.0)	△	62	(1.0)	▽	58	(1.1)		65	(1.0)	△						
Belgium (Flemish) †	51	(1.0)	▽	73	(1.0)	△	50	(1.3)		58	(1.3)	▽	52	(1.2)	▽	54	(1.2)	▽						
Bulgaria	56	(1.3)	▽	56	(1.1)	▽	44	(1.1)	▽	61	(1.2)	▽	60	(1.1)	△	63	(1.1)	△						
Cyprus	51	(0.9)	▽	55	(1.0)	▽	35	(1.0)	▼	42	(0.9)	▼	45	(1.1)	▼	44	(1.1)	▼						
Czech Republic †	55	(0.9)	▽	69	(0.8)	△	36	(0.8)	▼	58	(0.8)	▽	51	(0.9)	▽	52	(1.0)	▽						
Denmark †	72	(1.0)	▲	61	(1.1)	▽	66	(1.1)	▲	76	(0.8)	▲	60	(1.1)		63	(1.0)	△						
England ‡	71	(0.9)	▲	66	(1.0)		55	(1.1)	△	65	(1.1)		46	(1.2)	▼	45	(1.2)	▼						
Estonia	62	(1.4)		61	(1.3)	▽	45	(1.4)	▽	55	(1.5)	▽	54	(1.5)	▽	58	(1.5)							
Finland	82	(0.8)	▲	77	(0.8)	▲	74	(1.0)	▲	81	(0.8)	▲	70	(1.0)	▲	72	(0.8)	▲						
Greece	41	(1.2)	▼	55	(1.2)	▽	42	(1.1)	▽	52	(1.1)	▼	48	(1.0)	▽	50	(1.0)	▽						
Ireland	52	(1.0)	▽	60	(1.2)	▽	49	(1.1)	▽	69	(1.1)	△	55	(1.1)	▽	58	(1.1)							
Italy	74	(0.9)	▲	79	(1.1)	▲	74	(1.0)	▲	80	(1.0)	▲	75	(1.0)	▲	79	(0.9)	▲						
Latvia	32	(1.2)	▼	44	(1.3)	▼	20	(1.2)	▼	59	(1.4)	▽	49	(1.6)	▽	51	(1.4)	▽						
Liechtenstein	82	(2.1)	▲	79	(2.1)	▲	77	(2.1)	▲	74	(2.3)	△	68	(2.4)	▲	70	(2.5)	▲						
Lithuania	54	(0.9)	▽	65	(1.0)		34	(1.0)	▼	68	(1.1)	△	66	(1.2)	△	70	(1.2)	▲						
Luxembourg	72	(0.7)	▲	71	(0.7)	△	51	(0.9)		66	(0.8)		62	(0.6)	△	63	(0.7)	△						
Malta	62	(1.4)		67	(0.9)	△	61	(1.4)	△	69	(1.7)	△	61	(1.8)	△	62	(1.7)							
Poland	36	(1.2)	▼	54	(1.3)	▼	34	(1.3)	▼	55	(1.2)	▼	49	(1.3)	▽	49	(1.3)	▼						
Slovak Republic[1]	57	(1.3)	▽	56	(1.2)	▽	42	(1.3)	▽	64	(1.4)		55	(1.4)		57	(1.3)	▽						
Slovenia	56	(1.4)	▽	61	(1.4)	▽	53	(1.3)		62	(1.1)	▽	59	(1.3)		58	(1.4)							
Spain	62	(1.2)		69	(1.0)	△	52	(1.1)		73	(0.9)	△	61	(1.1)	△	63	(1.0)	△						
Sweden	73	(1.2)	▲	68	(1.2)	△	72	(1.2)	▲	82	(1.0)	▲	66	(1.3)	△	69	(1.2)	△						
Switzerland †	69	(1.0)	△	69	(0.9)	△	63	(1.0)	▲	63	(1.5)		53	(1.1)	▽	54	(1.2)	▽						
European ICCS average	61	(0.2)		65	(0.2)		52	(0.2)		65	(0.3)		58	(0.3)		59	(0.3)							
Country not meeting sampling requirements																								
Netherlands	70	(2.2)		76	(1.6)		65	(2.0)		65	(1.7)		62	(1.7)		67	(1.8)							

National percentage

▲ more than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ significantly above European ICCS average
▼ more than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average
▽ significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

The levels of trust in each institution varied considerably across the participating countries. The largest across-country differences were those for student trust in the national parliament: percentages ranged from 77 percent in Liechtenstein to 20 percent in Latvia. A similar observation can be made with regard to students' trust in their national government: here, the percentages of students expressing complete or quite a lot of trust ranged from 82 percent in Finland and Liechtenstein to only 36 percent in Poland and 32 percent in Latvia.

Percentages of student trust in local governments were highest in Italy and Liechtenstein (79% each) and lowest in Latvia (44%). Trust in the United Nations was highest in Sweden (82%) and lowest in Cyprus (42%).

There were also considerable cross-country differences with regard to student trust in the European institutions. The highest percentages of students reporting complete or quite a lot of trust in the European Parliament and the European Commission were evident in Italy (79% and 75% respectively), a country that was a founding member of the EU. The lowest percentages of student trust in the European institutions were recorded for Cyprus (44% and 45% respectively).

Summary of findings

In this chapter, we drew on data collected though the European and international student questionnaires to review students' feelings of identity with Europe and the country in which they were residing. We also looked at students' attitudes toward European policies and students' levels of trust in political institutions.

The results show that the students in the ICCS target age group (Grade 8) tended to identify with the European region. Large majorities of these students saw themselves as Europeans, were proud to live in this region, and felt part of it. In most countries, students' sense of European identity was significantly stronger among male students than among female students. In a number of countries, students from immigrant backgrounds were more likely than students from non-immigrant backgrounds to attain the lower scores on this scale although both groups held relatively positive attitudes. Differences among countries with regard to the strength of this relationship may be due to the diverse backgrounds and sizes of the immigrant populations.

Although large majorities of students saw themselves as Europeans, in most countries only a minority of students regarded their European identity as more relevant than their national identity. Also, on average, across countries, more than two thirds of students saw themselves first as Europeans and then as citizens of the world.

The European ICCS students expressed generally positive attitudes toward their country. As was the case with students' sense of European identity, students from non-immigrant backgrounds in a number of countries tended to have statistically significantly more positive attitudes than their peers from immigrant backgrounds.

The results also show a strong association between sense of European identity and attitudes toward the country of residence. Students who were in the high-tertile groups with regard to positive attitudes toward their country had, on average, scale scores that were more than half a standard deviation higher than the average scale scores for students in the low-tertile groups.

Majorities of students from EU countries reported that they felt part of the EU and expressed pride about the fact that their country was a member. However, there was considerable variation with regard to their sense of belonging: in Italy, 90 percent of students agreed that they felt part of the EU, whereas only 50 percent of the students in Sweden shared this view.

The European ICCS students tended to disagree with statements about replacing heads of state, governments, and parliaments with European institutions. Only about a third of students said they favored such measures. The correlation between the scale derived from these items and civic knowledge was negative.

Majorities of students expressed support for common policies with regard to different policy issues and a common currency. Support for a common currency in Europe tended to be stronger in countries that are part of the eurozone. Majorities of students also agreed that the EU should be enlarged. The most positive attitudes toward this process were found—often, but not exclusively—in new member countries.

Majorities of European students reported that they trusted the European Commission and the European Parliament. Students' levels of trust for these European political institutions were similar to those for their respective national governments but lower than those for their respective local governments.

CHAPTER 5:

Students' attitudes toward intercultural relations, freedom of movement, and language learning in Europe

Students' attitudes are defined in the ICCS assessment framework as a central outcome of civics and citizenship education (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). This chapter provides findings that relate to Research Question 3, which is concerned with the extent to which adolescents are interested and disposed to engage in public and political life. We focus, in this chapter, on three aspects that have particular relevance within the European context:

- Students' attitudes toward intercultural relations, including attitudes toward equality, race, migration, immigration, and cohesion;
- Students' attitudes toward freedom of movement for citizens in Europe;
- Students' engagement with learning other European languages.

Most of the data considered in this chapter derive from the European student questionnaire; however, we also feature data from the international student questionnaire. The ICCS student questionnaires consisted mainly of Likert-type items that allowed the assessment of a broad range of affective-behavioral constructs as defined in the assessment framework. The metric of all ICCS questionnaire scales, including those from the European student questionnaire, was set to a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted national samples that had met sample participation requirements.

As noted in Chapter 1, the European context for civic and citizenship education has changed somewhat over the past decade. One change relates to the increasing movement of people into and between European countries. This development has had several implications for civic and citizenship education at national and European levels (Banks, 2009). These include increasing ethnic, cultural, religious, and language diversity, as well as multiculturalism (Merryfield & Duty, 2009), the need to balance and blend the rights, cultures, and traditions of groups in society (Kiwan, 2008; Modood, 2007), and the role that education plays in preparing young people to live and participate effectively in multicultural communities (Banks, 2009).

In this chapter, we address research questions specific to the three priority aspects identified at the beginning of this chapter. The questions relating to students' perceptions of intercultural relations are these:

- To what extent do students agree with equal rights and opportunities for all ethnic or racial groups in society and for those of immigrants?
- To what extent do students endorse equal rights and opportunities for groups within Europe?
- What is the nature of the association between students' beliefs in equal opportunities for European citizens living in their country and their beliefs in equal rights for all ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants in society?

The questions relating to students' attitudes toward freedom of movement within Europe are as follows:

- To what extent do students generally support the free movement of citizens in Europe?
- To what extent do students support particular reasons for, and benefits of, the free movement of citizens in Europe (e.g., economic, cultural)?

The questions addressed with respect to student engagement with learning other European languages comprised these four:

- To what extent do students report that they are able to understand and communicate in languages spoken in other European countries?

- What are students' attitudes toward learning other European languages?
- What is the relationship between students' support for learning other European languages and their self-reported ability to understand and communicate in languages spoken in other European countries?
- What is the relationship between students' support for learning languages spoken in other European countries and students' endorsement of equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants?

Students' perceptions of equal rights in society

The ICCS international questionnaire included five items concerned with students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic or racial groups and five further items concerned with students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010b). Students were asked to rate their level of agreement ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") with the statements. Each set of items formed a separate scale for reporting purposes.

The statements that the students were asked to respond to were the following:

- All <ethnic/racial groups> should have an equal chance to get a good education in <country of test>;
- All <ethnic/racial groups> should have an equal chance to get good jobs in <country of test>;
- Schools should teach students to respect members of all <ethnic/racial groups>;
- <Members of all ethnic/racial groups> should be encouraged to run in elections for political office;
- <Members of all ethnic/racial groups> should have the same rights and responsibilities.

The scale measuring students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic or racial groups had a high reliability for the combined international sample (Cronbach's alpha = 0.83). Higher scale scores indicate more positive attitudes toward the rights of all ethnic or racial groups in society. Figure 5.1 in Appendix D shows the item-by-score map for these items. According to the information contained in this figure, a student with an ICCS average score of 50 would have been likely to agree with all five items. On average, across European countries, the percentages of agreement ranged from 69 percent (encouragement to run in elections for political office) to 92 percent (equal chance to get a good education).

The international ICCS student questionnaire also included a question that asked students to state the extent to which they agreed ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") with the following statements about rights for immigrants:

- Immigrants should have the opportunity to continue speaking their own language;
- Immigrant children should have the same opportunities for education that other children in the country have;
- Immigrants who live in a country for several years should have the opportunity to vote in elections;
- Immigrants should have the opportunity to continue their own customs and lifestyle;
- Immigrants should have all the same rights that everyone else in the country has.

The five items formed a highly reliable scale, with a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.90 for the combined international dataset. The higher scale scores indicate higher levels of support for the rights of ethnic or racial groups and immigrants. The item-by-score map in Figure 5.2 (Appendix D) shows that a student with an ICCS average score of 50 would

probably have agreed with all five statements. On average, across the European countries, the percentages of students who agreed with these statements ranged from 72 percent (opportunity to continue speaking their language) to 91 percent (same opportunities for education as other children).

In Table 5.1, which presents the findings for the European students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic or racial groups as well as for immigrants, we can see that all country averages, for both scales, are located in the darker shaded area. This pattern indicates that, on average, the European students who participated in ICCS tended to agree with the statements used to measure these two constructs.

The average scores across the European countries ranged from 46 to 52 points for both these scales; the average score across all countries was 49 points (the ICCS international average was 50 points). Countries with the highest level of support for equal rights for all ethnic or racial groups were Sweden and Luxembourg (with mean scale scores of 52). The lowest national averages were found in the Czech Republic, Latvia, and Malta (with mean scale scores of 46). Countries with the highest level of support for equal rights for immigrants were Bulgaria, Luxembourg, and Sweden (with scale scores of 52). Those with the lowest levels of support for equal rights for immigrants were Belgium (Flemish) and England (with scale scores of 46).

Although many countries recorded similar mean scores on both scales, the patterns were not identical. Sweden and Luxembourg recorded the highest level of support for equal rights on both scales, whereas Latvia was well below the European average on both scales.

However, while support for the equal rights of immigrants was above the average in Bulgaria, this country's average score for attitudes of students toward all ethnic or racial groups was slightly below the European average. In contrast, although the attitudes of students in England toward rights for all ethnic or racial groups were slightly above the European average, their attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants were well below the average.

As we explained in Chapter 4, considerable differences are apparent across the European countries with respect to the history of and reasons for immigration, the size of the immigrant population, policies on immigration, and how immigrants are perceived and received in society. Research confirms different immigrant populations and country policies in Europe and differences in the complex impact of immigration across and within European countries (Pennix, 2005; Penninx, Berger, & Krall, 2006). For example:

- Some Western European countries (such as England, France, Ireland, and the Netherlands) have much longer and more complex immigration histories than other European countries;
- A number of countries in Southern and Northern Europe (such as Finland, Greece, Italy, Norway, and Spain), although historically emigration countries, have recently experienced considerable immigration;
- Other countries, particularly in Central and Eastern Europe (such as Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia, and the Slovak Republic) have begun to experience a mixture of emigration and immigration in recent years.

These different contexts may have influenced the results in individual European countries concerning students' attitudes toward equal rights in society, particularly for immigrants. They may also have influenced students' attitudes toward the free movement of citizens in Europe, as we discuss later in this chapter.

Table 5.1: Comparison of national averages for students' attitudes toward rights for ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward Equal Rights for All Ethnic/Racial Groups			Students' Attitudes Toward Equal Rights for Immigrants		
	Average scale score		30 40 50 60 70	Average scale score		30 40 50 60 70
Austria	48	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.3)	▽
Belgium (Flemish) †	48	(0.3)	▽	46	(0.3)	▼
Bulgaria	48	(0.2)	▽	52	(0.2)	△
Cyprus	47	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.3)	
Czech Republic †	46	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.2)	▽
Denmark †	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.3)	▽
England ‡	50	(0.3)	△	46	(0.3)	▽
Estonia	51	(0.2)	△	48	(0.2)	▽
Finland	48	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.3)	▽
Greece	49	(0.3)	△	51	(0.2)	△
Ireland	51	(0.3)	△	50	(0.2)	△
Italy	49	(0.2)	△	48	(0.3)	▽
Latvia	46	(0.2)	▼	47	(0.2)	▽
Liechtenstein	49	(0.6)	△	48	(0.5)	▽
Lithuania	50	(0.2)	△	51	(0.2)	△
Luxembourg	52	(0.2)	△	52	(0.2)	△
Malta	46	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	
Poland	50	(0.2)	△	50	(0.2)	△
Slovak Republic[1]	48	(0.2)	▽	50	(0.3)	△
Slovenia	49	(0.2)	△	50	(0.3)	△
Spain	51	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	△
Sweden	52	(0.3)	▲	52	(0.4)	△
Switzerland †	49	(0.3)	△	49	(0.3)	
European ICCS average	**49**	**(0.1)**		**49**	**(0.1)**	
ICCS average	**50**	**(0.0)**		**50**	**(0.0)**	
			■ Average score +/– confidence interval			■ Average score +/– confidence interval
Country not meeting sampling requirements						
Netherlands	47	(0.3)		46	(0.4)	

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

On average, students with a score in this range have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about rights for all ethnic/racial groups with:

- Disagree or strongly disagree
- Agree or strongly agree

On average, students with a score in this range have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about rights for immigrants with:

- Disagree or strongly disagree
- Agree or strongly agree

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average

Some research studies show a link between cultural factors (such as family background, teacher influence, school culture) and student attitudes toward minorities and immigrants (see, for example, Dejaeghere & Quintelier, 2008; Torney-Purta, Wilkenfeld, & Barber, 2008). The ICCS research team therefore decided to investigate whether views of rights for immigrants differed between students from non-immigrant and immigrant backgrounds.

Table 5.2 compares the scale scores regarding attitudes toward rights of immigrants between students from immigrant and non-immigrant families in the European ICCS countries. The countries included in this table were those with sufficiently large sub-samples of students with an immigrant background.[1] The table shows that, overall, across Europe, students from immigrant families displayed significantly more positive attitudes toward the rights of immigrants than did students from non-immigrant families. Students from non-immigrant families recorded scale scores that averaged 48 points, whereas students from immigrant families recorded scale scores that averaged 54 points.

We observed differences to this general pattern in some countries. In Austria, England, Finland, and Sweden, the difference of eight points or more between the mean scores for students from non-immigrant families and students from immigrant families suggest considerable differences in the views that the two groups of students in these countries hold. Attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants were least positive among students from non-immigrant families in Austria, Belgium (Flemish), England, and Liechtenstein. In contrast, students from non-immigrant families in Greece and Lithuania held the most positive attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants.

Students' views on equal opportunities for groups within Europe

Given the increasing movement of people across European countries and the growing diversity within the enlarged EU, the ICCS research team considered it important to explore the attitudes of students toward the opportunities that citizens from other European countries should have when coming to their country.

The question in the European questionnaire relevant to this matter asked students to signal the extent of their agreement ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") with a statement that said immigrants who were citizens from other European countries should have the same opportunities as other citizens with regard to the following conditions:

- Whatever their ethnic or racial background;
- Whatever their religion or beliefs;
- Whatever language they speak;
- Whether they came from a rich country or a poor one;
- Whatever their level of education.

The five-item scale had a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.85 and was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the European ICCS database. The higher scale scores are indicative of more positive attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens in the country. Figure 5.3 in Appendix D presents the item-by-score map for this scale. It shows that students with an average score of 50 were the students most likely to agree with all five items. Percentages expressing agreement ranged from 70 percent (whatever their level of education) to 88 percent (whether they came from a rich or a poor country).

1 The minimum sub-sample size was 50 students from immigrant families.

Table 5.2: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants by immigrant background

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward Equal Rights for Immigrants								30 40 50 60 70
	All students		Students from non-immigrant families		Students with immigrant background		Differences (non-immigrant)*		
Austria	48	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	54	(0.5)	**8**	(0.5)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	46	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	52	(0.6)	**7**	(0.7)	
Cyprus	49	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	52	(0.6)	**3**	(0.7)	
Czech Republic †	48	(0.2)	48	(0.2)	53	(1.0)	**5**	(1.0)	
Denmark †	48	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	55	(0.5)	**7**	(0.5)	
England ‡	46	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	53	(0.6)	**8**	(0.6)	
Estonia	48	(0.2)	47	(0.2)	52	(0.8)	**4**	(0.8)	
Finland	48	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	57	(1.0)	**9**	(1.0)	
Greece	51	(0.2)	51	(0.2)	54	(0.8)	**3**	(0.7)	
Ireland	50	(0.2)	49	(0.2)	55	(0.7)	**6**	(0.7)	
Italy	48	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	55	(0.7)	**7**	(0.7)	
Latvia	47	(0.2)	47	(0.2)	50	(1.1)	**3**	(1.1)	
Liechtenstein	48	(0.5)	46	(0.7)	50	(1.0)	**4**	(1.2)	
Lithuania	51	(0.2)	51	(0.2)	52	(0.9)	1	(0.9)	
Luxembourg	52	(0.2)	49	(0.2)	55	(0.3)	**6**	(0.4)	
Slovenia	50	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	53	(0.7)	**3**	(0.8)	
Spain	51	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	56	(0.6)	**6**	(0.7)	
Sweden	52	(0.4)	50	(0.4)	60	(0.5)	**10**	(0.7)	
Switzerland †	49	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	54	(0.5)	**7**	(0.6)	
European ICCS average	49	(0.1)	48	(0.1)	54	(0.2)	**6**	(0.2)	
ICCS average	50	(0.0)	50	(0.1)	53	(0.2)	**3**	(0.2)	
Country not meeting sampling requirements									
Netherlands	46	(0.4)	45	(0.3)	53	(1.2)	**8**	(1.3)	

Native students' score +/– confidence interval
Immigrant students' score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding statements regarding equal rights for immigrants with:

	Disagree or strongly disagree
	Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 5.3 presents the national averages for the scale measuring European students' attitudes toward equality of opportunities overall and by gender groups. National scale averages ranged from 47 to 52 points. The highest national averages are evident in Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovenia, and Spain; the lowest national average is in Latvia. However, the majority of students in all countries still agreed with positively worded statements relating to the equal opportunities for all groups within Europe, as indicated by the fact that all national averages are located in the darker shaded area of the table's graphic.

Previous research has found female students tend to be more supportive than male students of equal opportunities in society for all groups (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002; Sotelo, 1999; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001). In line with these findings, the female students from Europe who participated in ICCS were more supportive of equal opportunities for citizens from other European countries than were the male students. However, the overall difference at the European level was relatively small (two scale points). That said, the differences in a number of European countries were more marked; the largest ones observed were in Finland (five scale points) and Sweden (four scale points).

Table 5.3: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens overall and by gender

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward Equal Opportunities for Other European Citizens									
	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males–females)*		30 40 50 60 70
Austria	48	(0.3)	▽	50	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	48	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Bulgaria	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-1**	(0.4)	
Cyprus	50	(0.2)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Czech Republic †	48	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	47	(0.2)	**-2**	(0.3)	
Denmark †	49	(0.3)	▽	51	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
England ‡	50	(0.3)		51	(0.4)	48	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.5)	
Estonia	49	(0.2)	▽	51	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Finland	49	(0.2)	▽	51	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	**-5**	(0.4)	
Greece	52	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Ireland	50	(0.2)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Italy	52	(0.3)	△	54	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Latvia	47	(0.2)	▽	47	(0.2)	47	(0.3)	0	(0.3)	
Liechtenstein	49	(0.6)	▽	50	(0.7)	47	(0.9)	**-3**	(1.2)	
Lithuania	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Luxembourg	52	(0.2)	△	53	(0.2)	51	(0.2)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Malta	49	(0.3)	▽	50	(0.5)	48	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.6)	
Poland	52	(0.2)	△	53	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Slovak Republic[1]	51	(0.3)	△	52	(0.3)	50	(0.4)	**-1**	(0.4)	
Slovenia	52	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Spain	52	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	**-1**	(0.4)	
Sweden	51	(0.3)	△	53	(0.4)	49	(0.4)	**-4**	(0.4)	
Switzerland †	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.5)	
European ICCS average	50	(0.1)		51	(0.1)	49	(0.1)	**-2**	(0.1)	
Country not meeting sampling requirements										
Netherlands	47	(0.4)		47	(0.6)	46	(0.5)	**-2**	(0.7)	

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Female average score +/– confidence interval
Male average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in this range have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about equal opportunities with:

Disagree or strongly disagree
Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 5.4 sets out the associations between students' attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens, toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups, and toward equal rights for immigrants

The average scores on the scale measuring students' attitudes toward equal rights for other European citizens in the students' respective countries are shown for national tertile groups, the first representing the scale for equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and the second representing the scale for equal rights for immigrants. It is important to remember at this point that we based the European ICCS averages on groups divided equally in each country and separately for each variable. What this means is that the comparisons across countries do not necessarily involve the same students in each group.

Our main finding was the positive and linear relationship between students' attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens and both international scales in all European countries. Differences flagged with a solid triangle in Table 5.4 indicate that the score averages in the medium-tertile group were significantly higher than in the low-tertile group and significantly lower than in the high-tertile group. Differences marked with a non-solid triangle denote that the score averages in the high-tertile group were significantly higher than in the low-tertile group. This pattern shows that the positive attitudes held by the European students toward equal rights for Europeans living in the students' respective countries were associated with positive attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants.

Students' attitudes toward free movement within Europe

The free movement of citizens across European countries, in pursuit of work and education in particular, is a cornerstone of the Lisbon Strategy (European Council, 2000). The European ICCS student questionnaire included a question designed to allow exploration of students' attitudes toward the free movement of citizens. Students were asked to record their agreement ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") with the following five items that were used to derive a scale measuring students' attitudes toward restricting movement of people across European countries:

- The travel of European citizens in Europe should be more restricted to help fight terrorism;
- Other Europeans living in <country of test> lead to conflict and hostility between people of different nationalities;
- Citizens of <country of test> will be safer from crime if they close their borders to <immigrants> from other European countries;
- Allowing citizens of other European countries to come and work here leads to more unemployment for citizens of <country of test>;
- The movement of workers between European countries should be restricted, otherwise some countries will be full of <immigrants>.

The resulting scale had a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.68 and was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the combined European ICCS database. Figure 5.4 (Appendix D), which shows the item-by-score map for this scale, makes clear that students with the ICCS average score of 50 were likely to agree with three of the five items. Average percentages of agreement ranged from 45 percent (safer from crime when closing European borders) to 66 percent (restricting movement of workers between European countries).

Table 5.4: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens in tertile groups of attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants

Country	Attitudes Towards Equal Opportunities for Ethnic/Racial Groups				Attitudes Towards Equal Opportunities for Immigrants			
	Lowest-tertile group	Medium-tertile group	Highest-tertile group		Lowest-tertile group	Medium-tertile group	Highest-tertile group	
Austria	43 (0.4)	48 (0.3)	54 (0.4)	▶	41 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	55 (0.3)	▶
Belgium (Flemish) †	43 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	53 (0.4)	▶	43 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	53 (0.4)	▶
Bulgaria	45 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	55 (0.3)	▶	47 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	54 (0.3)	▶
Cyprus	46 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	55 (0.4)	▶	46 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	56 (0.4)	▶
Czech Republic †	44 (0.2)	47 (0.2)	53 (0.3)	▶	44 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	54 (0.3)	▶
Denmark †	44 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	56 (0.3)	▶	44 (0.2)	49 (0.3)	56 (0.4)	▶
England ‡	43 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	56 (0.4)	▶	43 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	57 (0.3)	▶
Estonia	46 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	54 (0.4)	▶	46 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	54 (0.4)	▶
Finland	43 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	55 (0.3)	▶	43 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	56 (0.3)	▶
Greece	46 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	57 (0.4)	▶	46 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	57 (0.4)	▶
Ireland	45 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	57 (0.4)	▶	44 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	58 (0.3)	▶
Italy	47 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	59 (0.3)	▶	46 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	59 (0.3)	▶
Latvia	45 (0.2)	47 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	▶	44 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	51 (0.4)	▶
Liechtenstein	45 (1.0)	48 (0.8)	53 (0.9)	▷	41 (1.0)	48 (0.7)	57 (0.9)	▶
Lithuania	46 (0.2)	49 (0.4)	54 (0.3)	▶	46 (0.2)	50 (0.4)	55 (0.3)	▶
Luxembourg	46 (0.3)	51 (0.2)	57 (0.3)	▶	45 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	58 (0.2)	▶
Malta	45 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	53 (0.7)	▶	45 (0.3)	48 (0.5)	53 (0.5)	▶
Poland	48 (0.2)	52 (0.3)	57 (0.3)	▶	46 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	57 (0.4)	▶
Slovak Republic[1]	46 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	56 (0.3)	▶	46 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	56 (0.3)	▶
Slovenia	46 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	56 (0.3)	▶	46 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	57 (0.4)	▶
Spain	47 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	58 (0.4)	▶	46 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	58 (0.3)	▶
Sweden	45 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	59 (0.4)	▶	42 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	59 (0.3)	▶
Switzerland †	44 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	55 (0.4)	▶	43 (0.4)	50 (0.4)	57 (0.4)	▶
European ICCS average	**45 (0.1)**	**49 (0.1)**	**55 (0.1)**	▶	**44 (0.1)**	**49 (0.1)**	**56 (0.1)**	▶
Country not meeting sampling requirements								
Netherlands	43 (0.2)	46 (0.8)	51 (0.5)	▶	42 (0.5)	46 (0.4)	52 (0.5)	▶

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 5.5 shows the national averages for students' attitudes toward the restriction of movement of citizens overall and by immigrant background. In many of the participating European countries, the differences between the European ICCS average and the scale scores, although relatively small, were still significant. In particular, the students in England, Ireland, Luxembourg, and Malta were the students most in favor of restrictions linked to perceived risks associated with free movement. Students in Denmark, Finland, and Poland were, on average, the European students most opposed to such restrictions.

The results also reveal that students from immigrant backgrounds (they attained an average score across European countries of 49) were slightly less supportive than students from non-immigrant backgrounds with respect to restricting the movement of citizens in Europe. The largest difference occurred in Italy, where the score of students from non-immigrant background was, on average, three scale points higher than the score from students with an immigrant background.

The question relating to students' perceptions of freedom of movement within Europe also included the following four items, each of which expressed a positive view of this issue. These items emphasized the potential benefits of free movement.

- Citizens of European countries should be allowed to live and work anywhere in Europe;
- Other Europeans being allowed to live in <country of test> is good because they bring different cultures with them;
- Allowing citizens from other European countries to work here is good for the economy of <country of test>;
- European citizens should be free to travel anywhere in Europe, so they get to understand other European cultures better.

As is evident in Table 5.6, the large majority of students in the European countries strongly agreed or agreed with these individual statements. As such, they were supportive of the general right of free movement within Europe. An average of 90 percent of students in European countries agreed with the statement that "Citizens of Europe should be allowed to live and work anywhere in Europe." The level of support for free travel across Europe to improve cultural understanding was similar. However, somewhat lower proportions considered that immigration from other European countries is good for cultural reasons (76 percent of students overall across the European countries agreed with this statement) and that it has economic benefits (70 percent of students overall).

The results in Table 5.6 also show that support for free movement to live and work within Europe was particularly strong in those countries that are new democracies and recently joined members of the EU. These countries included Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia, and the Slovak Republic. However, in some countries that had been EU members for a longer time, such as Italy and Spain, there was also above-average support for free movement. In contrast, support for free movement of citizens to live and work anywhere in Europe was lowest in England, Belgium (Flemish), Liechtenstein, and Switzerland. Two of these countries—the latter two—are not members of the EU.

Support for free movement within Europe for economic reasons was weakest in Ireland and Latvia, where only 58 percent of students agreed that allowing citizens from other European countries to work in the country is good for the economy. Other countries with relatively low levels of support for immigration from other European countries for economic reasons included Belgium (Flemish), England, Greece, Liechtenstein, and Switzerland. In contrast, students from Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Slovenia, and Spain showed above-average support for the idea of immigration leading to improved economic outcomes for their countries.

Table 5.5: National averages for students' attitudes toward freedom of migration within Europe overall and by immigrant background

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward Restricting Migration within Europe									
	All students			Students from non-immigrant families (A)		Students with immigrant background (B)		Differences (immigrant–native)*		30 40 50 60 70
Austria	51	(0.2)	△	51	(0.2)	51	(0.6)	-1	(0.6)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	51	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	49	(0.6)	**-3**	(0.7)	
Bulgaria	50	(0.3)		50	(0.3)	^				
Cyprus	51	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	50	(1.0)	0	(1.0)	
Czech Republic †	51	(0.2)	△	51	(0.2)	49	(1.0)	-1	(1.0)	
Denmark †	47	(0.2)	▽	47	(0.3)	46	(0.7)	**-2**	(0.7)	
England ‡	52	(0.2)	△	53	(0.2)	50	(0.6)	**-3**	(0.7)	
Estonia	49	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	49	(0.9)	0	(0.9)	
Finland	47	(0.2)	▽	47	(0.2)	45	(1.1)	-2	(1.1)	
Greece	49	(0.3)	▽	50	(0.3)	48	(0.7)	**-2**	(0.7)	
Ireland	52	(0.2)	△	52	(0.2)	50	(0.7)	**-2**	(0.7)	
Italy	50	(0.3)		50	(0.3)	47	(0.8)	**-3**	(0.8)	
Latvia	50	(0.2)		50	(0.2)	49	(0.7)	-1	(0.7)	
Liechtenstein	50	(0.5)		49	(0.7)	51	(0.8)	**2**	(1.0)	
Lithuania	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	47	(1.2)	-2	(1.2)	
Luxembourg	52	(0.1)	△	53	(0.2)	52	(0.2)	**-1**	(0.3)	
Malta	53	(0.3)	△	53	(0.4)	^				
Poland	47	(0.3)	▼	47	(0.3)	^				
Slovak Republic[1]	49	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	^				
Slovenia	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	48	(0.6)	-1	(0.6)	
Spain	51	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	50	(0.5)	**-1**	(0.6)	
Sweden	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	47	(0.5)	**-2**	(0.6)	
Switzerland †	51	(0.2)	△	52	(0.3)	50	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.5)	
European ICCS average	50	(0.1)		50	(0.1)	49	(0.2)	**-2**	(0.2)	
Country not meeting sampling requirements										
Netherlands	50	(0.4)		50	(0.5)	47	(1.1)	**-3**	(1.4)	

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Non-immigrant students' score +/– confidence interval
Immigrant students' score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about restricting migration within Europe with:

	Disagree or strongly disagree
	Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
^ Number of students too small to report group average scores
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Although a large majority of students in the European ICCS countries supported the notion that European citizens should be allowed to travel anywhere in Europe to increase their understanding of other European cultures, noticeably lower percentages believed that immigration provides cultural benefits for the host nation. For example, 88 percent of students from Liechtenstein advocated free travel for cultural reasons, whereas only 58 percent believed that their own country benefited culturally from European immigration. A similar pattern of views was recorded in Austria, the Czech Republic, and Switzerland.

Table 5.6: National percentages of students' agreement with single items reflecting acceptance of free movement for citizens from European countries within Europe

Country	Percentages of Students Strongly Agreeing or Agreeing to ...			
	Citizens of European countries should be allowed to live and work anywhere in Europe	Other Europeans being allowed to live in <country of test> is good because they bring different cultures with them	Allowing citizens from other European countries to work here is good for the economy of <country of test>	European citizens should be free to travel anywhere in Europe, so they get to understand other European cultures better
Austria	88 (0.7) ▽	61 (1.0) ▼	71 (0.9)	84 (1.0) ▽
Belgium (Flemish) †	80 (0.9) ▼	74 (1.2) ▽	63 (1.0) ▽	84 (0.9) ▽
Bulgaria	95 (0.5) △	87 (0.8) ▲	81 (0.8) ▲	92 (0.7) △
Cyprus	91 (0.6) △	75 (1.0)	72 (1.0) △	83 (0.6) ▽
Czech Republic †	95 (0.3) △	71 (0.8) ▽	69 (0.7)	92 (0.5) △
Denmark †	82 (0.8) ▽	78 (0.9) △	75 (0.8) △	84 (0.7) ▽
England ‡	80 (0.9) ▽	74 (1.2) ▽	64 (1.3) ▽	78 (1.0) ▽
Estonia	96 (0.4) △	84 (0.9) △	75 (1.0) △	94 (0.6) △
Finland	90 (0.7)	80 (0.9) △	71 (0.9)	91 (0.6) △
Greece	91 (0.7) △	77 (0.9)	63 (1.3) ▽	83 (1.0) ▽
Ireland	85 (0.8) ▽	74 (1.0) ▽	58 (1.0) ▼	82 (0.9) ▽
Italy	93 (0.5) △	78 (0.8) △	69 (1.0)	91 (0.6) △
Latvia	92 (0.7) △	76 (1.1)	58 (1.2) ▼	87 (0.9)
Liechtenstein	82 (2.1) ▽	59 (2.4) ▼	65 (2.5)	88 (1.8)
Lithuania	95 (0.4) △	85 (0.8) △	69 (1.0)	94 (0.5) △
Luxembourg	90 (0.4)	74 (0.7) ▽	79 (0.6) △	88 (0.5)
Malta	89 (0.9)	74 (1.2) ▽	71 (1.2)	86 (0.9)
Poland	95 (0.4) △	82 (0.9) △	76 (0.9) △	92 (0.7) △
Slovak Republic[1]	97 (0.3) △	84 (0.9) △	70 (1.1)	92 (0.7) △
Slovenia	92 (0.6) △	81 (1.0) △	77 (1.1) △	89 (0.8)
Spain	94 (0.4) △	86 (0.9) ▲	75 (1.0) △	88 (0.9)
Sweden	86 (0.7) ▽	76 (1.0)	68 (1.2)	87 (0.8)
Switzerland †	81 (1.0) ▽	64 (1.7) ▼	66 (1.2) ▽	86 (0.8)
European ICCS average	**90 (0.2)**	**76 (0.2)**	**70 (0.2)**	**88 (0.2)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	79 (1.9)	71 (1.9)	68 (1.4)	81 (1.6)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Understanding and communicating in other European languages

Georgi (2008) argues that learning European languages, additional to those spoken in one's own country, is key to the socialization of young Europeans. Language learning is also central to the Lisbon Strategy's advocacy for free movement of citizens between EU countries. The current practice is for students in European countries to be encouraged to learn "one plus two" languages, that is, the mother tongue or first language and two additional languages, which can include "foreign" and "community" languages.[2]

We again sound a note of caution relating to diversity across European countries. The extent of linguistic diversity in Europe is considerable in terms of the type and range of languages spoken, the nature and size of the groups speaking those languages, and policy approaches to language learning in and beyond schools. Research underlines the diversity of language categorization, policy, and context (Eurydice, 2001, & 2008). This diversity encompasses, for example:

- *Language categorization:* European languages include "foreign" and "community" languages;
- *Language policies:* there has been a strong policy move in Europe away from "foreign" language learning toward *plurilingualism* (i.e., encouraging individuals to speak several languages). The majority of European countries teach European languages (both foreign and community) from primary-school level upwards;
- *Language context:* the historical context for language learning is different within and across European countries, with some countries more multilingual than others. However, several recent changes in society have affected the nature of language learning in Europe. For example, the spread of English as the predominant "global language" has raised the concern that English has become the language that people most want to learn. Meanwhile, the movement of peoples into and across European countries is bringing increasing multilingualism through multicultural communities.

Two questions in the European student questionnaire were designed to explore students' confidence in communicating in at least one other European language. The first of these questions asked students to give a simple "yes" or "no" as to whether they were able to communicate in, or understand, any languages spoken in European countries other than their own. Those students who answered yes were then asked to state how well they could communicate in these languages on a three-point scale of "not very well," "well," and "very well." The two questions were combined to form one indicator with four categories.

We note here that ICCS provided no opportunity to examine, in any detail, the contextual factors at various levels—personal, school, family, community, and national—that may have impacted on how the participating students interpreted and responded to these questions. This consideration needs to be kept in mind when interpreting the results relating to the language-learning questions that we found in individual countries and across countries.

Table 5.7 shows the percentages of students who reported that they could not communicate at all in another European language, and those who indicated that they could communicate not very well or said they could communicate well or very well in another European language. On average, across the European ICCS countries, three-quarters of students thought that they were able to communicate well or very well in at least one other European language. In contrast,

2 "Foreign languages" are principally the national or official languages of other European countries. Community languages encompass several categories of language, including "regional minority" languages (e.g., Breton or Catalan), "(im)migrant languages" (the languages of more recently established migrant communities, such as Turkish and Punjabi), non-territorial languages (such as Yiddish), and "sign languages" used by deaf people.

Table 5.7: National percentages of students' self-reported ability to understand and communicate in languages, other than their own, spoken in European countries

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Whether and How Well They Are Able to Communicate In or Understand Any Languages Spoken in Other European Countries			
	Not able to communicate	Not very well	Well	Very well
Austria	16 (0.9)	6 (0.5)	47 (1.3)	31 (1.3)
Belgium (Flemish) †	15 (0.9)	10 (0.6)	49 (1.2)	26 (0.8)
Bulgaria	21 (1.3)	12 (0.8)	43 (1.2)	24 (1.2)
Cyprus	17 (0.8)	8 (0.6)	38 (0.9)	37 (0.9)
Czech Republic †	8 (0.5)	20 (0.7)	61 (0.7)	11 (0.7)
Denmark †	6 (0.6)	6 (0.5)	43 (1.1)	45 (1.4)
England ‡	27 (1.5)	17 (0.7)	46 (1.3)	9 (0.8)
Estonia	11 (0.8)	12 (0.8)	50 (1.2)	27 (1.5)
Finland	7 (0.5)	13 (0.7)	49 (0.9)	31 (1.0)
Greece	11 (0.8)	5 (0.4)	43 (1.2)	42 (1.1)
Ireland	23 (1.3)	22 (0.8)	45 (1.2)	11 (0.8)
Italy	10 (0.8)	18 (0.8)	54 (1.0)	17 (0.8)
Latvia	11 (1.0)	12 (0.7)	50 (1.1)	27 (1.1)
Liechtenstein	4 (1.1)	6 (1.2)	57 (2.6)	32 (2.3)
Lithuania	9 (0.7)	25 (0.9)	50 (1.1)	16 (0.8)
Luxembourg	5 (0.5)	4 (0.3)	42 (0.7)	49 (0.6)
Malta	14 (1.0)	18 (0.8)	46 (1.2)	21 (1.0)
Poland	15 (1.0)	19 (0.9)	51 (0.9)	15 (0.9)
Slovak Republic[1]	10 (0.7)	18 (1.1)	55 (1.2)	17 (1.0)
Slovenia	8 (0.6)	8 (0.5)	48 (1.1)	36 (1.1)
Spain	21 (1.2)	17 (0.8)	45 (1.2)	16 (0.9)
Sweden	7 (0.6)	8 (0.5)	41 (1.1)	44 (1.1)
Switzerland †	10 (0.9)	14 (1.1)	51 (1.1)	26 (1.0)
European ICCS average	**12 (0.2)**	**13 (0.2)**	**48 (0.3)**	**27 (0.2)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	14 (1.4)	5 (0.7)	54 (1.6)	26 (1.5)

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

12 percent of students said that they were not able to communicate in any other language, while a similar proportion (13%) indicated that they were able to communicate, but not very well. However, there were noticeable differences between European countries in students' self-reported ability to understand and communicate in another European language.

The lowest percentages (56%) of students who reported being able to communicate in another language well or very well were found in two of the English-speaking countries—England and Ireland. Other countries with relatively low percentages (below 70%) of students reporting that they were able to communicate in another language well or very well were Bulgaria (67%), Lithuania (65%), Malta (67%), Poland (66%), and Spain (62%).

The countries with the highest levels (at or above 80%) of students reporting proficiency in communicating well or very well in another European language included Denmark (88%), Finland (80%), Greece (84%), Liechtenstein (90%), Luxembourg (91%), Slovenia (84%), and Sweden (85%).

The question included in the European questionnaire that sought to measure students' attitudes toward the learning of other European languages asked students to rate their agreement ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") with the following six statements:

- Learning a foreign European language is important for traveling/going on holidays in Europe;
- Learning foreign European languages can make it easier to find a job;
- Learning a foreign European language is important for working or studying in another European country;
- Learning a foreign European language helps people understand other European cultures better;
- All young people in Europe should learn at least two foreign European languages;
- Schools should give young people more opportunity to learn foreign languages used in other European countries.

The scale had a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.85 and was standardized to a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the European ICCS dataset. The higher scores indicate more positive attitudes toward European language learning. Figure 5.5 in Appendix D provides the item-by-score map for this scale. This shows that students with the ICCS average score of 50 were likely to agree with four of the statements and agree even more strongly with two of them. The average percentages of agreement ranged from 74 percent (need to learn at least two foreign European languages) to 93 percent (important for holidays, can make it easier to find a job, important for work or study in another European country).

Table 5.8 displays the average national scale scores for students' attitudes to learning other European languages. Bulgaria and Lithuania were the countries with the highest scale scores (more than three points above the European ICCS average), but in both countries the percentages of self-reported language proficiency were rather low. Austria, England, Finland, and Ireland recorded the lowest average scale scores (more than three points below average) for attitudes toward learning other languages.

In the case of England and Ireland, the low national averages corresponded to relatively low levels of self-reported European language competence (see Table 5.7), whereas in Finland and Austria students generally reported relatively high levels of European language proficiency.

On average, female students across Europe held somewhat more positive attitudes than male students toward learning other European languages. The difference across the European ICCS countries was two scale points. The largest gender differences (more than three points) were evident in Austria, Cyprus, Finland, Italy, Latvia, Poland, and Switzerland. In almost all countries, female students had significantly higher scores than their male counterparts. The only exception was Denmark, where no significant gender difference was recorded.

The data in Table 5.9, which records the average scores for students' attitudes toward European language learning within categories of self-reported European language proficiency in each country, show a positive association between these two variables. On average, an increase of about two to three score points for students' attitudes toward European language learning was recorded between each level of self-reported European language proficiency.

Students who were not able to communicate in or understand languages spoken in other European countries had an overall European mean score of 46 on attitudes toward European language learning. Students who said that they could not communicate very well had an overall average score of 48, those who said they could communicate well had an average score of 50, and those who felt they could communicate very well had an average score of 53.

Table 5.8: National averages for students' attitudes toward European language learning overall and by gender

Country	Students' Attitudes to Learning Other European Languages									
	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males-females)*		30 40 50 60 70
Austria	47	(0.2)	▼	48	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.5)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Bulgaria	54	(0.3)	▲	56	(0.3)	53	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Cyprus	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.5)	
Czech Republic †	52	(0.2)	△	53	(0.3)	51	(0.2)	**-2**	(0.3)	
Denmark †	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	49	(0.3)	0	(0.4)	
England ‡	46	(0.3)	▼	46	(0.4)	45	(0.4)	**-1**	(0.5)	
Estonia	52	(0.2)	△	53	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Finland	47	(0.2)	▼	49	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	**-4**	(0.4)	
Greece	51	(0.2)	△	52	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.5)	
Ireland	46	(0.2)	▼	47	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Italy	52	(0.2)	△	53	(0.2)	51	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.3)	
Latvia	50	(0.3)		51	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Liechtenstein	48	(0.5)	▽	49	(0.7)	47	(0.7)	**-2**	(0.9)	
Lithuania	53	(0.2)	▲	55	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.3)	
Luxembourg	52	(0.2)	△	52	(0.2)	51	(0.2)	**-1**	(0.3)	
Malta	51	(0.3)	△	51	(0.4)	50	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.6)	
Poland	50	(0.3)		51	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
Slovak Republic[1]	52	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Slovenia	51	(0.2)	△	52	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.5)	
Spain	52	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.3)	
Sweden	48	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)	
Switzerland †	48	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)	
European ICCS average	50	(0.1)		51	(0.1)	49	(0.1)	**-2**	(0.1)	
Country not meeting sampling requirements										
Netherlands	49	(0.4)		50	(0.6)	48	(0.5)	**-2**	(0.8)	

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Female average score +/– confidence interval
Male average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in this range have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about learning a European language with:

Disagree or strongly disagree
Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

The association between the two variables is perhaps not surprising. However, the direction of causation is not clear. It could be that the more proficient students are in learning languages, the more they might want to learn them, or it could be that the more interested students are in learning languages, the more proficient they might become.

Research in Belgium and the Netherlands suggests that cultural and linguistic factors can have an impact on ethnocentrism and levels of tolerance toward ethnic minorities and immigrants among young people (Dejaeghere & Quintelier 2008; Quintelier, 2007). For this reason, a decision was made to investigate a potential association between students' attitudes toward European language learning and students' attitudes toward both equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants. To make this comparison possible, we took, for each country, the averages of the students' attitudes toward European language learning and compared these

Table 5.9: National averages for students' attitudes toward European language learning in categories of self-reported European language proficiency

Country	Students' Reported Ability to Communicate in or Understand Any Languages Spoken in Other European Countries			
	Not able to communicate	Not very well	Well	Very well
Austria	42 (0.5)	43 (0.7)	47 (0.3)	50 (0.5)
Belgium (Flemish) †	46 (0.6)	47 (0.5)	50 (0.3)	53 (0.4)
Bulgaria	51 (0.6)	54 (0.6)	55 (0.4)	57 (0.4)
Cyprus	46 (0.5)	48 (1.0)	50 (0.3)	53 (0.4)
Czech Republic †	47 (0.6)	50 (0.3)	53 (0.2)	56 (0.5)
Denmark †	44 (0.6)	46 (0.7)	48 (0.2)	51 (0.3)
England ‡	42 (0.5)	45 (0.5)	47 (0.4)	51 (0.8)
Estonia	48 (0.7)	50 (0.6)	52 (0.2)	54 (0.3)
Finland	42 (0.8)	43 (0.5)	46 (0.2)	50 (0.4)
Greece	45 (0.7)	49 (0.9)	51 (0.3)	53 (0.3)
Ireland	42 (0.4)	45 (0.3)	48 (0.2)	52 (0.6)
Italy	48 (0.7)	49 (0.4)	53 (0.2)	56 (0.3)
Latvia	46 (0.7)	48 (0.5)	50 (0.3)	52 (0.5)
Liechtenstein	40 (2.9)	46 (1.7)	47 (0.7)	49 (1.0)
Lithuania	50 (0.5)	53 (0.4)	54 (0.2)	55 (0.6)
Luxembourg	46 (0.9)	48 (0.8)	50 (0.2)	54 (0.2)
Malta	46 (0.7)	49 (0.4)	51 (0.4)	54 (0.5)
Poland	45 (0.5)	48 (0.5)	50 (0.3)	54 (0.6)
Slovak Republic[1]	48 (0.8)	51 (0.5)	53 (0.3)	55 (0.5)
Slovenia	45 (0.7)	48 (0.7)	50 (0.2)	54 (0.3)
Spain	49 (0.5)	51 (0.5)	53 (0.3)	56 (0.4)
Sweden	43 (0.8)	45 (0.7)	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)
Switzerland †	45 (0.9)	45 (0.6)	47 (0.4)	51 (0.4)
European ICCS average	**46 (0.2)**	**48 (0.1)**	**50 (0.1)**	**53 (0.1)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	45 (1.0)	45 (0.8)	49 (0.4)	51 (0.6)

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

across national tertile groups of their attitudes, as measured by the international instrument, toward equal rights for all ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants.

Table 5.10 shows an association between students' attitudes toward European language learning and their attitudes toward both equal rights for ethnic/racial groups and equal rights for immigrants. For both of these sets of attitudes, the relationship was positive. In all European ICCS countries, the average scores in the high national tertile groups were significantly higher than in the low-tertile groups. Moreover, in the majority of countries, the increases in scale scores from one national tertile group to the next were statistically significant.

On average, students in the low-tertile group for attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups (i.e., those in each country with the least positive attitudes) had a mean score of 47 for attitudes toward European language learning. The same was true for those students in the low-tertile group with respect to attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants. Those students expressing the highest levels of support for the notion of equal rights for ethnic/racial groups and for immigrants were the students most likely to have the highest levels of support for European language learning. These students attained scores averaging 53 on both scales.

Table 5.10: Averages of students' attitudes toward European language learning in tertile groups of attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants

Country	Views on Rights for Ethnic/Racial Groups			Views on Rights for Immigrants		
	Lowest-tertile group	Medium-tertile group	Highest-tertile group	Lowest-tertile group	Medium-tertile group	Highest-tertile group
Austria	44 (0.4)	47 (0.3)	50 (0.4) ▶	44 (0.4)	46 (0.3)	50 (0.4) ▶
Belgium (Flemish) †	47 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	53 (0.3) ▶	48 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	53 (0.3) ▷
Bulgaria	52 (0.5)	53 (0.4)	58 (0.4) ▷	52 (0.5)	55 (0.4)	58 (0.4) ▶
Cyprus	47 (0.5)	50 (0.4)	55 (0.3) ▶	47 (0.4)	51 (0.4)	55 (0.4) ▶
Czech Republic †	50 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	55 (0.2) ▶	50 (0.3)	52 (0.2)	55 (0.3) ▶
Denmark †	47 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	51 (0.3) ▶	48 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	51 (0.3) ▶
England ‡	42 (0.4)	45 (0.3)	49 (0.5) ▶	43 (0.4)	45 (0.4)	49 (0.5) ▶
Estonia	49 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	54 (0.3) ▶	51 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	54 (0.3) ▷
Finland	43 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	50 (0.3) ▶	44 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3) ▶
Greece	48 (0.5)	51 (0.3)	53 (0.3) ▶	48 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	53 (0.4) ▶
Ireland	43 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	49 (0.4) ▶	43 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	50 (0.4) ▶
Italy	49 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	56 (0.2) ▶	49 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	55 (0.3) ▶
Latvia	47 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	53 (0.5) ▶	48 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	52 (0.4) ▶
Liechtenstein	46 (1.1)	46 (0.8)	50 (0.9) ▷	45 (1.0)	46 (0.6)	51 (1.0) ▷
Lithuania	50 (0.3)	54 (0.3)	57 (0.3) ▶	51 (0.3)	54 (0.3)	56 (0.3) ▶
Luxembourg	48 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	55 (0.2) ▶	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	55 (0.2) ▶
Malta	48 (0.4)	51 (0.4)	54 (0.5) ▶	48 (0.5)	50 (0.5)	53 (0.4) ▶
Poland	46 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	54 (0.4) ▶	46 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	53 (0.4) ▶
Slovak Republic[1]	49 (0.5)	52 (0.3)	56 (0.3) ▶	50 (0.4)	52 (0.4)	55 (0.3) ▶
Slovenia	47 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	54 (0.3) ▶	49 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	54 (0.3) ▶
Spain	49 (0.3)	53 (0.4)	56 (0.3) ▶	49 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	55 (0.3) ▶
Sweden	45 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	51 (0.4) ▶	45 (0.4)	48 (0.3)	51 (0.5) ▶
Switzerland †	45 (0.5)	47 (0.3)	50 (0.4) ▶	45 (0.4)	47 (0.3)	51 (0.3) ▶
European ICCS average	**47 (0.1)**	**50 (0.1)**	**53 (0.1)**	**47 (0.1)**	**50 (0.1)**	**53 (0.1)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements						
Netherlands	46 (0.6)	49 (0.6)	51 (0.4) ▶	47 (0.7)	48 (0.4)	51 (0.4) ▶

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Summary of findings

We explored, in this chapter, students' attitudes toward the rights of ethnic or racial groups and immigrants as well as for citizens from other European countries, their views on free movement and migration within Europe, and their engagement with European language learning.

We found that majorities of students who participated in the European ICCS regional module expressed support for equal rights of ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants. In most countries, students from immigrant families displayed significantly more positive attitudes toward the rights of immigrants than students from non-immigrant families did.

The majority of students agreed with positively worded statements about equal opportunities for European citizens living in their countries. Female students were generally more supportive of equal opportunities for other European citizens in their country than were male students. Although this difference was relatively small at the European level, we observed larger gender differences in several individual European countries. European students' views on equal opportunities for European citizens were associated with their attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and for immigrants.

On average, 90 percent of students supported the general right of free movement for citizens to live and work anywhere in Europe; a similar percentage agreed with the value of free travel to improve cultural understanding. Lower percentages perceived the value of migration and immigration for cultural and economic reasons. Support for free movement of citizens to live and work within Europe was particularly strong in countries that are "new democracies" and which joined the EU relatively recently. However, other countries where students exhibited similarly high levels of support had joined the EU much earlier.

Three-quarters of students across Europe felt that they were able to communicate "well" or "very well" in at least one other European language, although there was considerable variation in students' self-reported levels of language proficiency across countries. Students' self-reported ability to communicate in another European language was lowest in two of the English-speaking countries (England and Ireland) and also in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, and Spain. Female students were slightly more likely than males to express positive attitudes toward learning another European language.

Positive attitudes toward European language learning were positively associated with students' self-assessed ability to communicate in another European language. Also, and not unexpectedly, students with higher self-reported European language proficiency were the students most positive about learning European languages. In all European countries, students with more positive views on equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and rights for immigrants were also more likely than their peers to display positive attitudes toward learning other European languages.

CHAPTER 6:

Students' civic engagement and participation

This chapter again relates to Research Question 3, which is concerned with the extent, among adolescents, of interest and disposition to engage in public and political life. Our focus this time, however, is on students' interest in motivation toward and opportunities for civic engagement and participation. We also explore young people's intended future civic participation in European politics. The findings presented in this chapter are based on data from the European student questionnaire and from the ICCS international student questionnaire.

The past two decades have seen considerable interest in the topic of civic engagement and participation. This interest has been accelerated by concerns about a decline in civic participation in many developed countries, including those in Europe (Avbelj, 2005; Mitchell, 2005; Putnam, 2000; Ross & Dooly, 2010). Formal political participation, particularly with respect to voting in national and European elections, appears to be declining (EurActive, 2009; IDEA, 2006). Concern about this general decline in political participation is accompanied with specific concerns about declining levels of civic and political participation among young people, particularly in relation to formal political participation (Brooks, 2009; Phelps, 2005).

The notions of civic engagement and participation are therefore continuing to generate considerable interest, comment, and debate (see, for example, Norris, 2002). The issues debated focus on whether:

- There has been an actual decline in civic and political participation, generally and among young people (Lister & Pia, 2008);
- The reported decline is, in reality, more a shift from traditional formal political participation to new forms of social and civic participation (Forbrig, 2005; Loader, 2007; Pattie, Seyd, & Whiteley, 2004; Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2003);
- The shift has been from a narrow, passive form of citizenship to a broader, more "active" form of citizenship (Kennedy, quoted in Nelson & Kerr, 2006; Sherod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010); and,
- The shift has marked a move to greater use by people, including young people, of new media and information and communications technologies (ICT), including the internet, in supporting broader forms of participation and engagement (Aapola, Gonick, & Harris, 2005; Bennett, 2007; Buckingham, 2000; Harris, 2004).

The European and international student questionnaires included questions on students' attitudes and perceptions toward civic engagement and intended civic participation in Europe. The European questionnaire sought to find out more about the level of students' interest in European political issues, their participation in political discussions about Europe, their exposure to media information on Europe, and their intended participation in European elections.

The specific research questions that we address in this chapter with regard to students' perceptions and attitudes to civic and political engagement are these:

- To what extent are students interested in European politics and how do students' levels of interest in European politics compare with their interest in other political and social issues?
- To what extent do students report communicating about European events and issues?
- To what extent are students exposed to media information (television, newspaper, and internet) about European news in comparison with media information about national and international news?
- To what extent do students report participation in discussions of political and social issues outside of school and what are the associations between participation and civic knowledge?

The specific research questions that we address in relation to students' behaviors with respect to civic participation are these:

- To what extent do students report participation in civic activities at the European level?
- To what extent do students report civic participation in the wider community and what are the associations between participation in the wider community and civic activities at the European level?
- To what extent do students report that they will vote in European elections and how does this compare with their expected levels of voting in local and national elections?

Students' civic interest and engagement

The theme of students' civic interest and engagement has been a subject of research for a long time (see, for example, Almond & Verba, 1965). This is because civic and political interest is seen as an important pre-condition of political engagement and participation (van Deth, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). It follows that the more interested that young people become in political issues, the more likely it is that they might participate now and in the future.

Research on young people's interest in politics and political issues in Europe has, however, produced conflicting findings. While the EUyoupart Study found that young people in European countries are not very interested in politics (Spannring, Ogris, & Gaiser, 2008), other studies report that young people are just as interested in political issues as their counterparts in previous generations. These other studies argue that what has changed is the appearance of alternative opportunities to access information about political issues (e.g., through new media and the internet) and to engage in more diverse forms of civic and political participation (Henn, Weinstein, & Wring, 2005; Lister & Pia, 2008; Loader, 2007; Ross & Dooly, 2010).

In order to explore and compare students' interest in different levels of political issues, the ICCS international instrument included a question that asked the participating students to indicate their levels of interest ("very interested," "quite interested," "not very interested," "not interested at all") in the following issues:[1]

- Political issues within your local community;
- Political issues in your country;
- Politics in other countries;
- International politics;
- European politics.

Table 6.1 shows the percentages of students in each European ICCS country who reported that they were very interested or quite interested in each of these types of political issues. These data reveal that, overall across European countries, the greatest interest in political issues was at the national level, with almost half of all students, on average (49%), reporting interest in national political issues. In contrast, around 4 in 10 students expressed an interest in political issues within their local community (40%) and in European politics (38%). The least amount of interest was in politics in other countries (26%) and in international politics (33%).

Closer examination of Table 6.1 shows the considerable variability between countries in relation to students' interest in these different types of political issues. Students in five countries (Austria, Estonia, Italy, Poland, and Switzerland) had levels of interest for all five types of issue that were significantly higher than the European ICCS average. In contrast, the percentages of interested students in Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, Finland, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, and Sweden were significantly below average for all five types of issues.

1 The question included two further items regarding social issues in the students' country and environmental issues. These are not reported in this chapter.

Table 6.1: National percentages of students' interest in political and social issues

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Being Very or Quite Interested in:														
	Political issues within their local community			Political issues in their country			Politics in other countries			International politics			European politics		
Austria	62	(1.2)	▲	62	(0.8)	▲	33	(1.0)	△	42	(0.9)	△	50	(1.1)	▲
Belgium (Flemish) †	31	(1.3)	▽	30	(1.7)	▼	16	(1.2)	▽	22	(1.3)	▼	24	(1.3)	▼
Bulgaria	46	(1.1)	△	51	(1.0)	△	24	(1.0)		32	(1.0)		47	(1.1)	△
Cyprus	37	(1.0)	▽	43	(1.0)	▽	23	(0.9)	▽	29	(0.9)	▽	40	(1.0)	△
Czech Republic †	33	(0.9)	▽	43	(1.0)	▽	20	(0.7)	▽	21	(0.9)	▼	25	(0.8)	▼
Denmark †	38	(1.1)		34	(1.2)	▼	26	(1.1)		32	(1.1)		29	(1.0)	▽
England ‡	39	(1.3)		51	(1.4)		30	(1.3)	△	34	(1.2)		31	(1.3)	▽
Estonia	47	(1.4)	△	50	(1.4)	△	29	(1.2)	△	37	(1.2)	△	41	(1.3)	△
Finland	21	(0.8)	▼	29	(0.9)	▼	19	(0.8)	▽	24	(0.9)	▽	25	(0.8)	▼
Greece	46	(1.1)	△	52	(1.0)	△	26	(1.0)		39	(1.1)	△	47	(1.1)	△
Ireland	42	(1.2)	△	56	(1.0)	△	30	(1.0)	△	37	(1.0)	△	35	(1.1)	▽
Italy	59	(1.2)	▲	71	(1.1)	▲	31	(1.0)	△	47	(1.1)	▲	55	(1.3)	▲
Latvia	35	(1.3)	▽	64	(1.3)	▲	26	(0.9)		35	(1.1)		42	(1.2)	△
Liechtenstein	43	(2.7)		49	(2.8)		32	(2.7)	△	37	(2.9)		37	(3.1)	
Lithuania	41	(1.1)		70	(0.8)	▲	26	(0.9)		38	(1.0)	△	52	(1.1)	▲
Luxembourg	36	(0.7)	▽	52	(0.7)	▽	34	(0.9)	△	39	(0.9)	△	45	(0.7)	△
Malta	39	(1.4)		54	(1.5)		21	(1.1)	▽	29	(1.3)	▽	35	(1.7)	
Poland	45	(1.1)	△	54	(1.3)	△	29	(1.0)	△	37	(0.9)	△	40	(1.1)	△
Slovak Republic[1]	31	(1.2)	▽	40	(1.2)	▽	18	(0.9)	▽	26	(0.9)	▽	35	(0.9)	▽
Slovenia	24	(1.1)	▼	33	(1.2)	▼	20	(0.8)	▽	22	(0.9)	▼	31	(1.0)	▽
Spain	44	(1.0)	△	52	(1.0)	△	22	(0.7)	▽	34	(0.9)		38	(0.9)	
Sweden	29	(1.1)	▼	35	(1.4)	▼	22	(1.1)	▽	23	(1.2)	▽	24	(1.2)	▼
Switzerland †	44	(1.2)	△	57	(1.1)	△	32	(1.2)	△	40	(1.0)	△	41	(1.4)	△
European ICCS average	**40**	**(0.3)**		**49**	**(0.3)**		**26**	**(0.2)**		**33**	**(0.2)**		**38**	**(0.3)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements															
Netherlands	31	(1.4)		33	(1.5)		16	(1.6)		22	(1.6)		23	(1.2)	

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Within most countries, there was greater interest in political issues at a national level rather than in political issues within local communities. This difference was particularly pronounced in Latvia and Lithuania. However, students in Austria and Belgium (Flemish) showed similar levels of interest in both local and national political issues, while students in Denmark had a slightly greater interest in local than in national political issues.

The highest percentages of students expressing interest in political issues within their communities were found in Austria (62%) and Italy (59%); the lowest levels of interest were recorded for Finland (21%), Slovenia (24%), and Sweden (29%). Interest in political issues related to the students' country was highest in Austria (62%), Italy (71%), Latvia (64%), and Lithuania (70%). The lowest levels of interest were found in Belgium (Flemish) (30%), Denmark (34%), Finland (29%), Slovenia (33%), and Sweden (35%)

Interest in European politics was generally higher in those countries with higher levels of interest in local and national politics. Interest in European politics was highest in Austria (50%), Italy (55%), and Lithuania (52%), and lowest in Belgium (Flemish) (24%), the Czech Republic (25%), Finland (25%), and Sweden (24%).

Data on students' involvement in discussing and finding out information about various European events and issues were collected through a question in the European ICCS questionnaire about how frequently they engaged in various activities. Students were asked to report how often—"never or hardly ever," "yearly (at least once a year)," "monthly (at least once a month)," "weekly (at least once a week)"—they engaged in the following activities:

- Discussing the political or economic situation in other European countries with your friends or family;
- Discussing European sports events with your friends or family;
- Discussing arts and culture (e.g., music, films) from other European countries with your friends or family;
- Discussing the European Union (EU) with your friends or family;
- Discussing issues raised in the European Parliament with your friends or family;
- Talking about what life is like in other European countries with your friends and family;
- Talking, with your friends and family, about what it might be like to work in other European countries;
- Watching television to inform yourself about European news;
- Reading the newspapers to inform yourself about European news.

The resulting scale reflecting students' participation in communication about Europe had a reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.85 and was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the pooled European ICCS database. Figure 6.1 in Appendix D shows the item-by-score map for this scale. Evident here is the finding that students with the ICCS average score of 50 were likely to report (at least) monthly participation in three of these activities, yearly participation in five activities, and hardly any or no involvement in one activity. Average percentages of at least weekly participation ranged from 6 percent (discussion of issues raised in the European Parliament) to 39 percent (watching television to inform oneself about European news).

Table 6.2 shows the national averages for European ICCS countries on this scale. These ranged from 44 to 53. The graphic in the table shows that students in all countries were, on average, unlikely to report weekly participation in any of these activities. The highest scale scores were found in Bulgaria and Italy. The lowest averages were recorded for Belgium (Flemish), England, and Finland.

Table 6.2: National averages for students' participation in communication about Europe

Country	Students' Participation in Communication about Europe		
	Average scale score		30 40 50 60 70
Austria	51	(0.2)	△
Belgium (Flemish) †	44	(0.3)	▼
Bulgaria	53	(0.2)	△
Cyprus	50	(0.3)	
Czech Republic †	51	(0.1)	△
Denmark †	50	(0.2)	
England ‡	46	(0.3)	▼
Estonia	52	(0.2)	△
Finland	47	(0.3)	▽
Greece	49	(0.2)	▽
Ireland	48	(0.2)	▽
Italy	53	(0.3)	△
Latvia	52	(0.2)	△
Liechtenstein	50	(0.5)	
Lithuania	51	(0.2)	△
Luxembourg	51	(0.2)	△
Malta	49	(0.3)	▽
Poland	52	(0.2)	△
Slovak Republic[1]	51	(0.3)	△
Slovenia	52	(0.2)	△
Spain	48	(0.2)	▽
Sweden	48	(0.2)	▽
Switzerland †	51	(0.2)	△
European ICCS average	**50**	**(0.1)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements			
Netherlands	46	(0.6)	

National percentage

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

■ Average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about participation in political discussions with:

	Less than weekly
	At least once a week

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Interest in how young people access information about political issues through various media is growing. Harris (2004), for example, reports that particular groups of young people are making increasing use of new media for this purpose. A study of youth and politics in eight European countries conducted by Spannring, Ogris, and Gaiser (2008) suggests that media use influences young people's motivation to participate politically, with "active-reception" media, such as newspapers and the internet, having more influence on participation than "passive-reception" media, such as television and radio. However, according to Spannring and colleagues, the medium that young people most frequently use to access information on politics is television.

The European student questionnaire included two items that sought to gauge the frequency of students' use of media to inform themselves about European news. These items are among the items in the scale on students' participation in communication about Europe reported in

Table 6.2. The international student questionnaire also contained three items about students' frequency of use of different media—television, newspapers and the internet—to inform themselves about national and international news.

Note that these two questions had different response categories: the European question distinguished between "never or hardly ever," "yearly (at least once a year)," "monthly (at least once a month)," and "weekly (at least once a week)," whereas the international question had the response categories of "never or hardly ever," "yearly (at least once a year)," "monthly (at least once a month)," "weekly (at least once a week)," and "daily or almost daily." In order to compare results for the European questionnaire items with those from the international question, we combined, for the international question, the two categories indicating weekly and daily use. Given these different response formats, we advise caution when making comparisons.

Table 6.3 records the percentages of students in each European ICCS country accessing media weekly (the highest frequency response option for these items) to gain information about European news, alongside percentages of students who reported informing themselves about national and international news weekly or daily.

The data in Table 6.3 show that, on average, the percentage of students reporting that they watch television to obtain European news was higher than the percentage of students reporting that they read a newspaper to inform themselves. However, there were considerable differences among countries. Even though watching television was, in all countries, the preferred option for obtaining European news compared to reading a newspaper, the differences between these two percentages varied across countries. In Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Latvia, and Spain, students were more than twice as likely to report using a television at least once a week to inform themselves about European news as they were to read a newspaper once per week for the same purpose. In contrast, there was only a small difference between the frequency of use of these two types of media to access information about European news in Austria, England, Finland, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Sweden, and Switzerland.

Overall, the highest proportions of students using television to inform themselves about European news at least once a week were found in the Czech Republic, Italy, and Liechtenstein. The lowest percentages were found in Cyprus, England, Finland, and Ireland. The percentages relating to using newspapers weekly to find out information about European news were highest in Liechtenstein and Switzerland and lowest in Cyprus, Denmark, and Greece.

Table 6.3 also shows that percentages of students reporting that they used television and newspapers to inform themselves about national or international news were higher than those reporting using these media to obtain European news. On average, 64 percent of students reported that they watched television at least once a week to find out about national or international news compared to 39 percent who said they used this medium to obtain European news. Similarly, 40 percent reported that they read a newspaper at least weekly to inform themselves about national or international news whereas just under a quarter of students (24%) reported this frequency for newspaper reading about European news. However, these comparisons need to be interpreted with caution given the differences in response format between the two questions.

Of the three media (television, newspapers, and the internet), students were generally less likely to report using the internet to inform themselves about national or international news at least once a week: slightly more than a quarter of students in European countries (28%) said that they used the internet at least weekly for this purpose. However, in a small number of countries, students were more likely to use the internet than newspapers to find out about national and international news. In Cyprus, for example, 21 percent of students reported using the internet wheras 16 percent reported reading newspapers on at least a weekly basis.

Table 6.3: National percentages of tudents' reported frequency of accessing media information

Country	Percentages of Students Who Report Doing the Following Activities Weekly						Percentages of Students Who Report Doing the Following Activities Weekly, Daily, or Almost Daily											
	Watch television to inform self about European news			Read the newspapers to inform self about European news			Watch television to inform self about national and international news			Read the newspaper to inform self about national and international news			Use the internet to inform self about national and international news					
Austria	37	(1.0)	▽	33	(1.0)	▽	58	(1.0)	▽	52	(1.2)	▲	19	(0.8)	▽			
Belgium (Flemish) †	34	(1.1)	▽	21	(0.9)	▽	62	(1.1)		33	(0.9)	▽	14	(0.8)	▼			
Bulgaria	43	(1.2)	△	23	(0.9)	△	72	(1.1)	△	37	(0.9)	▽	38	(1.1)	△			
Cyprus	25	(0.8)	▼	11	(0.6)	▼	49	(1.1)	▼	16	(0.7)	▼	21	(0.9)	▽			
Czech Republic †	53	(0.9)	▲	23	(0.6)	△	65	(0.9)		41	(0.9)		45	(1.0)	▲			
Denmark †	33	(0.9)	▽	13	(0.8)	▼	69	(1.0)	△	28	(0.8)	▼	31	(0.9)	△			
England ‡	27	(0.9)	▼	20	(1.2)	▽	56	(1.3)	▽	41	(1.5)		25	(0.8)	▽			
Estonia	46	(1.3)	△	33	(1.2)	△	75	(1.0)	▲	53	(1.2)	▲	50	(1.1)	▲			
Finland	28	(1.1)	▼	23	(0.9)	▽	50	(1.1)	▼	48	(1.0)	△	29	(1.0)				
Greece	32	(1.1)	▽	9	(0.6)	▼	56	(1.2)	▽	17	(0.9)	▼	18	(0.8)	▼			
Ireland	28	(0.9)	▼	25	(0.9)	▽	50	(1.2)	▼	40	(1.1)		12	(0.7)	▼			
Italy	52	(1.2)	▲	23	(1.1)	△	78	(0.9)	▲	36	(1.3)	▽	31	(1.1)	△			
Latvia	49	(1.5)	△	21	(0.9)	△	76	(1.1)	▲	37	(1.2)	▽	36	(1.1)	△			
Liechtenstein	50	(2.6)	▲	43	(2.9)	▲	62	(2.0)		54	(2.7)	▲	20	(1.9)	▽			
Lithuania	44	(1.0)	△	24	(0.9)	△	76	(0.9)	▲	45	(1.2)	△	40	(1.0)	▲			
Luxembourg	44	(0.7)	△	32	(0.9)	△	59	(1.0)	▽	48	(0.9)	△	21	(0.6)	▽			
Malta	32	(1.4)	▽	18	(1.0)	▽	64	(0.9)		28	(1.0)	▼	25	(0.9)	▽			
Poland	37	(1.0)		21	(0.8)		78	(0.9)	▲	48	(1.1)	△	44	(1.1)	▲			
Slovak Republic[1]	38	(1.0)		26	(1.1)		73	(1.2)	△	51	(1.4)	▲	39	(1.3)	▲			
Slovenia	35	(0.9)	▽	20	(0.7)	▽	54	(1.3)	▽	32	(1.0)	▽	32	(1.0)	△			
Spain	48	(1.2)	△	16	(0.8)	△	73	(1.1)	△	25	(0.9)	▼	18	(0.8)	▼			
Sweden	30	(1.0)	▽	26	(1.0)	▽	49	(1.0)	▼	51	(1.2)	▲	31	(1.1)	△			
Switzerland †	47	(1.2)	△	41	(1.5)	▲	64	(1.4)		60	(1.7)	▲	18	(0.8)	▼			
European ICCS average	**39**	**(0.2)**		**24**	**(0.2)**		**64**	**(0.2)**		**40**	**(0.3)**		**28**	**(0.2)**				
Country not meeting sampling requirements																		
Netherlands	42	(2.4)		19	(1.7)		62	(1.7)		31	(1.8)		27	(1.9)				

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population .

There was considerable variability among countries in the use of these media to access national or international news. National percentages of students reporting that they watched television to inform themselves about national or international news ranged from 49 percent (in Cyprus and Sweden) to 78 percent (in Italy and Poland). The percentages relating to reading newspapers ranged from 16 percent (in Cyprus) to 60 percent (in Switzerland). Those relating to using the internet ranged from 12 percent (in Ireland) to 50 percent (in Estonia).

The ICCS international student questionnaire included a question asking students how often ("never or hardly ever," "monthly (at least once a month)," "weekly (at least once a week)," "daily or almost daily") they were involved in each of the following activities outside of school:

- Talking with your parent(s) about political and social issues;
- Talking with friends about political and social issues;
- Talking with your parent(s) about what is happening in other countries;
- Talking with friends about what is happening in other countries.

The scale derived from these items reflected students' discussion of political and social issues outside of school and had a reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.72. The metric was set to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the international ICCS database. Figure 6.2 (Appendix D), which presents the item-by-score map for this scale, shows that students with an ICCS average score of 50 were those most likely to report never or hardly ever talking about political and social issues with parents or friends but talking with them at least monthly about what is happening in other countries. On average, across the European ICCS countries, the percentages of students reporting weekly or daily discussion ranged from 13 percent (talking with friends about political and social issues) to 38 percent (talking with parents about what is happening in other countries).

Table 6.4 shows the national averages for this scale. All of these are located in the lighter shaded area of the graphic, which indicates that, on average in each of the European ICCS countries, students were likely to report doing these activities less than weekly. The highest average was found in Latvia, whereas Belgium (Flemish) and Finland had scores that were more than three points below the European ICCS average.

Research suggests that the more people know about politics, the easier they find it to acquire various political and participation skills (Morin, 1996). As a result, the ICCS research team decided to investigate associations between students' civic knowledge and their reported participation in communication about Europe (see Tables 6.2 and 6.5). The average scores for civic knowledge are reported here by national tertile groups for students' participation in communication about Europe.

Table 6.5 shows that in about half of the European ICCS countries there was a strong association between the two variables. In these countries, levels of civic knowledge in the medium-tertile group were significantly higher than in the low-tertile group and significantly lower than in the high-tertile group. In another nine countries, civic knowledge scores were significantly higher in the high-tertile group than in the low one (but not necessarily mid-range in the medium-tertile group). On average, civic knowledge scores were 501 in the low-tertile group, 516 in the medium group, and 527 in the high group. This pattern indicates that, in general, the students in the European ICCS countries who most frequently participated in communication about Europe were the more knowledgeable students.

To investigate the associations between students' participation in communication about Europe and participation in (general) political discussions, we compared the scale scores for the latter across national tertile groups of the scale on participation in communication about Europe.

Table 6.4: National averages for students' reported frequency of discussing political and social issues outside of school

Country	Students' Discussion of Political and Social Issues Outside School		
	Average scale score		30 40 50 60 70
Austria	51	(0.2)	△
Belgium (Flemish) †	45	(0.2)	▼
Bulgaria	50	(0.3)	△
Cyprus	50	(0.2)	
Czech Republic †	48	(0.2)	▽
Denmark †	50	(0.3)	△
England ‡	48	(0.3)	▽
Estonia	49	(0.3)	
Finland	46	(0.3)	▼
Greece	51	(0.2)	△
Ireland	48	(0.2)	▽
Italy	52	(0.3)	△
Latvia	53	(0.2)	▲
Liechtenstein	51	(0.5)	△
Lithuania	51	(0.2)	△
Luxembourg	50	(0.2)	
Malta	51	(0.2)	△
Poland	51	(0.2)	△
Slovak Republic[1]	50	(0.2)	
Slovenia	48	(0.2)	▽
Spain	48	(0.2)	▽
Sweden	46	(0.3)	▽
Switzerland †	51	(0.3)	△
European ICCS average	**49**	**(0.1)**	
ICCS average	**50**	**(0.0)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements			
Netherlands	46	(0.4)	

National percentage

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

■ Average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about participation in political discussions with:

	Less than weekly
	At least once a week

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

As Table 6.6 illustrates, a linear association emerged between these two variables in all European ICCS countries—an association that was fairly similar across the national samples. On average, scale scores on students' participation in discussions of political and social issues were 44 points in the low-tertile group, 50 in the medium group, and 55 in the high-tertile group. The average difference of about 10 points between the high and the low groups was one international standard deviation. Within countries, differences ranged from 7 scale points (in Cyprus) to 14 scale points (in Finland). Thus, the students who reported participation in general discussion of political and social issues were the students most likely to report involvement in communication about European issues.

Table 6.5: National averages for students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of reported participation in communication about Europe

Country	Students' Reported Participation in Communication about Europe					
	Lowest-tertile group		Medium-tertile group		Highest-tertile group	
Austria	491	(5.0)	504	(4.9)	518	(4.7) ▶
Belgium (Flemish) †	502	(5.5)	524	(5.3)	518	(4.9) ▷
Bulgaria	441	(6.1)	470	(5.5)	490	(6.2) ▶
Cyprus	451	(3.0)	447	(3.6)	469	(4.2) ▷
Czech Republic †	493	(2.6)	511	(2.9)	530	(3.3) ▶
Denmark †	556	(4.4)	585	(4.2)	596	(4.1) ▶
England ‡	513	(4.2)	531	(6.0)	521	(7.5)
Estonia	510	(4.5)	525	(5.3)	541	(5.9) ▶
Finland	562	(3.2)	584	(3.1)	585	(3.7) ▷
Greece	472	(4.5)	467	(5.7)	494	(5.7) ▷
Ireland	528	(4.9)	540	(5.1)	537	(5.8)
Italy	517	(4.2)	529	(4.5)	546	(3.7) ▶
Latvia	469	(5.0)	483	(4.8)	495	(4.7) ▶
Liechtenstein	516	(7.6)	535	(8.5)	542	(6.4) ▷
Lithuania	492	(3.7)	507	(3.6)	517	(3.8) ▶
Luxembourg	458	(4.9)	478	(2.9)	487	(2.4) ▶
Malta	485	(5.5)	487	(5.5)	502	(5.3) ▷
Poland	525	(5.0)	538	(5.8)	547	(5.4) ▷
Slovak Republic[1]	512	(4.1)	531	(4.6)	544	(6.6) ▶
Slovenia	500	(3.3)	517	(4.2)	530	(3.3) ▶
Spain	500	(4.2)	503	(4.9)	514	(5.1) ▷
Sweden	522	(4.0)	545	(4.2)	548	(4.6) ▷
Switzerland †	515	(3.7)	533	(5.9)	545	(5.0) ▶
European ICCS average	**501**	**(1.0)**	**516**	**(1.0)**	**527**	**(1.0)** ▶
Country not meeting sampling requirements						
Netherlands	474	(8.0)	502	(7.5)	502	(13.7) ▷

National percentage

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Students' civic participation

The ICCS assessment framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008) acknowledges the importance of (either intended or already practiced) civic participation among young people in the context of civic and citizenship education. The literature emphasizes the key role played by students having opportunity to learn more about civics and citizenship through active participation in the local and wider community beyond schools in general (Huddleston & Kerr, 2006) and at the European level in particular (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005; Georgi, 2008). There is also evidence in the research of gender differences in civic and political engagement, with males and females involved in different types of activities (Hooghe & Stolle, 2004; Vromen, 2003).

Table 6.6: National averages for students' participation in discussions of political and social issues in national tertile groups of students' reported participation in communication about Europe

Country	Students' Reported Participation in Communication about Europe						
	Lowest-tertile group		Medium-tertile group		Highest-tertile group		
Austria	46	(0.4)	52	(0.3)	56	(0.4)	▶
Belgium (Flemish) †	39	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	▶
Bulgaria	46	(0.4)	50	(0.3)	54	(0.4)	▶
Cyprus	46	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	53	(0.4)	▶
Czech Republic †	42	(0.2)	47	(0.2)	53	(0.2)	▶
Denmark †	44	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	57	(0.3)	▶
England ‡	42	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	53	(0.5)	▶
Estonia	44	(0.4)	49	(0.3)	55	(0.4)	▶
Finland	39	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	▶
Greece	47	(0.4)	51	(0.3)	56	(0.3)	▶
Ireland	42	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	54	(0.3)	▶
Italy	47	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	57	(0.3)	▶
Latvia	48	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	57	(0.4)	▶
Liechtenstein	45	(0.9)	51	(0.8)	57	(0.7)	▶
Lithuania	46	(0.3)	51	(0.2)	56	(0.2)	▶
Luxembourg	45	(0.3)	50	(0.2)	54	(0.2)	▶
Malta	46	(0.4)	51	(0.3)	55	(0.3)	▶
Poland	46	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	55	(0.3)	▶
Slovak Republic[1]	44	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	55	(0.3)	▶
Slovenia	44	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	▶
Spain	43	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	▶
Sweden	40	(0.2)	46	(0.3)	53	(0.4)	▶
Switzerland †	45	(0.4)	51	(0.3)	57	(0.3)	▶
European ICCS average	**44**	**(0.1)**	**50**	**(0.1)**	**55**	**(0.1)**	▶
Country not meeting sampling requirements							
Netherlands	41	(0.6)	47	(0.4)	52	(0.5)	▶

National percentage

▶ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **lower** than in highest-tertile group

▷ Average in highest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in lowest-tertile group

◁ Average in lowest-tertile group significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

◀ Average in medium-tertile group significantly **lower** than in lowest-tertile group *and* significantly **higher** than in highest-tertile group

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

The European ICCS questionnaire contained a question that asked students to rate the extent of their participation ("within the last 12 months," "more than a year ago," "have never done this") in the following eight civic activities related to the European level:

- Activities organized in <student's> local area involving meeting people from other European countries;
- Activities related to friendship agreements (twinning) between <student's> local town/city and other European towns/cities;
- Music, dance, or film festival(s) in another European country;
- Sports event(s) in another European country;

- Exchange programs with students from other European countries (going abroad or others coming to <student's> country);
- School trip(s) to another European country;
- Visits to other European countries for leisure/holidays;
- Exhibitions, festivals, or other events about the art and culture (e.g., music, films) of other European countries.

The scale derived from the items reflecting student participation in activities or groups at the European level had a satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.73. Scale scores were standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the European ICCS database. Figure 6.3 in Appendix D shows the item-by-score map for this scale. Those students with an ICCS average score of 50 were the students likely to report not having participated in any of these activities except visits to other European countries for leisure and holidays. The percentages of students who reported having done the latter either in the past 12 months or previously ranged from 25 percent (participation in student exchange programs) to 73 percent (visits to other European countries).

Table 6.7 shows that national averages for students' participation in activities or groups at the European level overall and within gender groups ranged from 45 scale score points to 55 scale score points. Liechtenstein and Luxembourg had the highest averages (more than three points above the European ICCS average); Bulgaria had the lowest level of reported participation.

Gender differences on this scale were generally small, but we found significant differences in eight countries. In Bulgaria and Greece, males scored, on average, about two scale points higher than females. In general, across countries, there was no difference between gender groups for student participation in activities and groups at the European level.

The ICCS international student questionnaire also included a question that asked students to indicate whether they had participated ("within the last 12 months," "more than a year ago," "never done this") in the following groups or organizations:

- A youth organization affiliated with a political party or union;
- An environmental organization;
- A human rights organization;
- A voluntary group doing something to help the community;
- An organization collecting money for a social cause;
- A cultural organization based on ethnicity.

The scale reflecting students' civic participation in the wider community derived from these items had a satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.72 for the combined ICCS database. The metric was set to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the pooled international dataset. Figure 6.4 in Appendix D, which gives the item-by-score map for this scale, shows that students with an average ICCS score of 50 could be expected to report not having participated in any of these groups or organizations. On average, across the European ICCS countries, the percentages of students reporting that they had participated either within the last 12 months or before ranged from 8 percent (youth organizations of political parties or trade unions) to 38 percent (organizations collecting money for a social cause).

Table 6.8 shows the national averages across European ICCS countries. In all countries, students, on average, were likely to report no participation in the listed activities, as indicated by the location of all national averages in the lighter shaded area of the graphic. The European ICCS average of 49 scale points was slightly below the international ICCS average, and the

Table 6.7: National averages for students' participation in activities or groups at the European level overall and by gender

Country	Students' Reported Participation in Activities or Groups at the European Level												
	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males-females)		30	40	50	60	70
Austria	51	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	1	(0.5)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	52	(0.2)	△	52	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	0	(0.4)					
Bulgaria	45	(0.4)	▼	44	(0.6)	46	(0.5)	**2**	(0.8)					
Cyprus	51	(0.2)	△	50	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	**1**	(0.5)					
Czech Republic †	49	(0.2)	▽	50	(0.3)	49	(0.2)	0	(0.3)					
Denmark †	52	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	0	(0.3)					
England ‡	50	(0.3)		50	(0.4)	51	(0.4)	0	(0.5)					
Estonia	53	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	52	(0.4)	**-1**	(0.4)					
Finland	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	**-1**	(0.3)					
Greece	47	(0.3)	▽	47	(0.4)	48	(0.5)	**2**	(0.5)					
Ireland	52	(0.2)	△	52	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	0	(0.4)					
Italy	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.5)	49	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Latvia	48	(0.3)	▽	47	(0.4)	48	(0.4)	0	(0.5)					
Liechtenstein	55	(0.4)	▲	56	(0.5)	55	(0.5)	-1	(0.7)					
Lithuania	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.4)	48	(0.4)	-1	(0.4)					
Luxembourg	55	(0.1)	▲	55	(0.1)	55	(0.2)	**1**	(0.2)					
Malta	49	(0.4)	▽	48	(0.5)	50	(0.6)	1	(0.7)					
Poland	49	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.4)	49	(0.4)	**1**	(0.5)					
Slovak Republic[1]	49	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.4)	49	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Slovenia	52	(0.3)	△	51	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	1	(0.4)					
Spain	48	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**1**	(0.4)					
Sweden	48	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	0	(0.3)					
Switzerland †	51	(0.2)	△	51	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	0	(0.4)					
European ICCS average	**50**	**(0.1)**		**50**	**(0.1)**	**50**	**(0.1)**	**0**	**(0.1)**					
Country not meeting sampling requirements														
Netherlands	51	(0.4)		51	(0.4)	52	(0.5)	1	(0.6)					

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Female average score +/– confidence interval

Male average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements regarding participation in civic activities at the European level with:

No

Yes

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

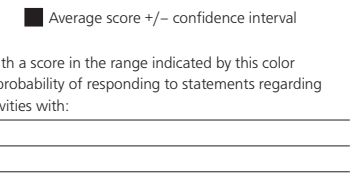
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

national averages ranged from 43 to 52. The highest level of reported civic participation was found in Bulgaria and Cyprus, the lowest in Denmark, Finland, and Sweden. In these three countries, the averages were more than three score points below the European ICCS average. Generally, the results suggest that, as with student participation in groups and activities at the European level, only minorities of the lower-secondary school students who participated in the ICCS European regional module were involved in the listed civic activities in the wider community.

The ICCS research team was also interested in investigating associations between students' participation in groups and activities at the European level and their participation in civic activities in the wider community. To derive a simple index that would summarize students' involvement in different groups or organizations in the wider community, we grouped students

Table 6.8: National averages for students' civic participation in the wider community

Country	Students' Civic Participation in the Wider Community		
	Average scale score		
Austria	50	(0.3)	△
Belgium (Flemish) †	49	(0.2)	
Bulgaria	52	(0.3)	▲
Cyprus	52	(0.2)	△
Czech Republic †	46	(0.2)	▽
Denmark †	45	(0.2)	▼
England ‡	49	(0.3)	△
Estonia	48	(0.2)	
Finland	43	(0.1)	▼
Greece	50	(0.3)	△
Ireland	50	(0.2)	△
Italy	47	(0.2)	▽
Latvia	50	(0.3)	△
Liechtenstein	50	(0.5)	△
Lithuania	49	(0.2)	△
Luxembourg	50	(0.2)	△
Malta	49	(0.3)	
Poland	51	(0.3)	△
Slovak Republic[1]	47	(0.3)	▽
Slovenia	50	(0.3)	△
Spain	47	(0.2)	▽
Sweden	44	(0.2)	▼
Switzerland †	49	(0.3)	
European ICCS average	**49**	**(0.1)**	
ICCS average	**50**	**(0.0)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements			
Netherlands	49	(0.5)	



National percentage

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

■ Average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements regarding participation in civic activities with:

	No
	Yes

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

into those who had never done any of these activities, those who had done one to three of these activities, and those who had participated in more than four of them. We then recorded scale score averages for students' participation in groups and activities at the European level for each country within categories of participation in the wider community.

Table 6.9 shows that, in all European countries, there was a strong association between participation in groups and activities concerned with Europe and participation in civic activities in the wider community. Scale scores for participation in European activities for the group of students who reported between one and three community activities or organizations were significantly higher than for those students who had never participated in any community activities or organizations. These scores were also significantly lower than the scores for students who reported having participated in four or more groups or organizations in the wider community.

Table 6.9: National averages for the frequency of students' participation in activities or groups at the European level within categories of civic participation in the wider community

Country	Students' Civic Participation in the Wider Community		
	Never (A)	In one to three different activities (B)	In four or more activities (C)
Austria	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	56 (0.6) ▶
Belgium (Flemish) †	49 (0.3)	52 (0.2)	58 (0.6) ▶
Bulgaria	41 (0.6)	45 (0.5)	51 (0.6) ▶
Cyprus	47 (0.5)	51 (0.3)	56 (0.5) ▶
Czech Republic †	48 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	55 (0.5) ▶
Denmark †	50 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	58 (0.9) ▶
England ‡	47 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	55 (0.6) ▶
Estonia	50 (0.4)	53 (0.4)	57 (0.6) ▶
Finland	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	55 (1.3) ▶
Greece	43 (0.4)	47 (0.4)	56 (0.6) ▶
Ireland	49 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	57 (0.5) ▶
Italy	46 (0.4)	50 (0.4)	54 (0.6) ▶
Latvia	45 (0.4)	48 (0.4)	51 (0.8) ▶
Liechtenstein	52 (0.9)	56 (0.5)	59 (1.0) ▶
Lithuania	44 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	54 (0.5) ▶
Luxembourg	52 (0.3)	55 (0.2)	59 (0.2) ▶
Malta	45 (0.5)	50 (0.4)	57 (0.7) ▶
Poland	46 (0.5)	48 (0.3)	53 (0.5) ▶
Slovak Republic[1]	47 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	55 (0.8) ▶
Slovenia	49 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	57 (0.5) ▶
Spain	45 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	55 (0.6) ▶
Sweden	47 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	56 (1.1) ▶
Switzerland †	49 (0.4)	51 (0.2)	54 (0.6) ▶
European ICCS average	**47 (0.9)**	**51 (1.0)**	**56 (1.2)** ▶
Country not meeting sampling requirements			
Netherlands	49 (0.4)	52 (0.4)	56 (1.1) ▶

National percentage

▶ Average in B significantly **higher** than in A *and* significantly **lower** than in C

▷ Average in C significantly **higher** than in A

◁ Average in A significantly **higher** than in C

◀ Average in B significantly **lower** than in A *and* significantly **higher** than in C

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

On average, students who had never participated had a score of 47, those in the middle group had a score of 51, and those in the group with the highest involvement had a score of 56.

Given that there are limitations to the extent of civic or political participation among young people who have not yet reached voting age, researchers and policy-makers are extremely interested in young people's expected political participation, especially whether they will vote in elections at local, national, and European levels when they reach voting age. The ICCS international student questionnaire therefore included a question asking students to rate their expectations ("I will certainly do this," "I will probably do this," "I will probably not do this," "I will certainly not do this") about participating as adults in a range of political activities, including voting in local or national elections. ICCS researchers inserted a regional optional

item for students in European countries that concerned voting in European elections. Data for the following three items were viewed as particularly relevant:

- Vote in local elections;
- Vote in national elections;
- Vote in European elections.

Table 6.10 shows the percentage of students in each European ICCS country who reported that they certainly would or probably would vote in these elections. This information is set alongside actual adult voter turnout in the last parliamentary election and the 2009 European election in each country, along with indications of whether or not voting is compulsory in each country. Note that the table does not include data for expected participation in voting and voter turnout for European elections for Liechtenstein and Switzerland, given that these two countries are not members of the EU.

It is clear from Table 6.10 that a high percentage of students in all countries expected to vote in elections as adults. Also noticeable are the percentages of students expecting to vote in European elections (both overall and within each country). These are lower, on average, than the percentages for expected levels of voting in local and national elections.

On average, across the European ICCS countries, 80 percent of the students reported that they expected to vote in local elections, 78 percent said they would vote in national elections, and just 58 percent intended to vote in European elections. It is interesting to compare these figures with the average voter turnout in European ICCS countries in national elections (71%) and in European elections (49%). However, we also need to recognize that the expectations that young people have at this age do not necessarily predict their actual future behavior as adults.

Table 6.10 also shows considerable variation across countries in the percentages of students who expected to vote in these different types of election. Austria, Ireland, Italy, and Spain were all countries where percentages of students expecting probably or definitely to vote were significantly above average for all three types of election. Only two of these countries (Austria and Italy) also had relatively high voter turnouts (above 80%) at their last national elections.

Percentages significantly below average for all three elections were recorded for Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, and England. The Czech Republic had relatively low voter turnout for its last national and European elections, and England had relatively low turnout for its last national election. In contrast, in Belgium, where voting is compulsory, voter turnout at the last national and European elections was around 90 percent. A non-member country of the EU, Switzerland, had percentages significantly below the European ICCS average for expected voting in both local and national elections—a finding that coincides with the low voter turnout for this country's last national election.

Generally, there was no strong association between student expectations of future voting and adult voter turnout for the national or the European election. At the country level, the correlation between national voter turnout and percentages of students who expected to vote was 0.28 for national elections and 0.32 for European elections. There was also no consistent association between a country having compulsory voting and the percentages of its students expecting to vote in these three types of election.

Table 6.10: National percentages of students' expected electoral participation in European, local, and national elections

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting That They Probably Will or Certainly Will:			Electoral Turnout		
	Vote in local elections	Vote in national elections	Vote in European elections	In last national election (%)	In last European election (%)	Compulsory voting (yes/no)
Austria	83 (0.8) △	82 (0.9) △	77 (0.9) ▲	82	46	No
Belgium (Flemish) †	75 (1.1) ▽	72 (1.3) ▽	52 (1.1) ▽	93 [a]	90 [b]	Yes
Bulgaria	78 (1.0)	69 (1.0) ▽	55 (1.3)	56	39	No
Cyprus	76 (0.8) ▽	75 (0.8) ▽	59 (1.1)	89	59	Yes
Czech Republic †	67 (0.9) ▼	50 (1.1) ▼	38 (1.2) ▼	65	28	No
Denmark †	80 (0.7)	89 (0.6) ▲	54 (1.0) ▽	87	60	No
England ‡	75 (1.1) ▽	72 (1.1) ▽	43 (1.1) ▼	61 [c]	35 [c]	No
Estonia	78 (1.2)	73 (1.3) ▽	30 (1.0) ▼	62	44	No
Finland	85 (0.7) △	85 (0.7) △	53 (1.0) ▽	65	40	No
Greece	83 (0.9) △	77 (1.1)	68 (1.3) △	74	53	Yes
Ireland	89 (0.7) △	87 (0.7) △	73 (1.0) ▲	67	59	No
Italy	91 (0.6) ▲	88 (0.6) ▲	78 (0.9) ▲	81	65	No
Latvia	81 (1.1)	77 (1.2)	62 (1.1) △	61	54	No
Liechtenstein	80 (2.2)	81 (2.0)	n/a	85	n/a	No
Lithuania	88 (0.8) △	88 (0.8) △	58 (1.1)	49	21	No
Luxembourg	69 (0.7) ▼	73 (0.7) ▽	64 (0.8) △	92	91	Yes
Malta	81 (1.3)	86 (1.2) △	60 (1.3)	93	79	Yes
Poland	82 (1.0) △	77 (1.0)	50 (1.0) ▽	54	5	No
Slovak Republic[1]	74 (1.2) ▽	75 (1.2) ▽	64 (1.5) △	55	20	No
Slovenia	79 (0.8)	81 (0.8) △	43 (1.0) ▼	63	28	No
Spain	87 (0.8) △	85 (0.8) △	68 (0.9) ▲	75	45	No
Sweden	81 (1.1)	85 (0.9) △	63 (1.3) △	82	46	No
Switzerland †	70 (1.2) ▽	70 (1.4) ▽	n/a	48	n/a	No
European ICCS average	**80 (0.2)**	**78 (0.2)**	**58 (0.2)**	**71**	**49**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements						
Netherlands	76 (2.0)	74 (2.3)	59 (2.0)	80	37	No

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

Data for voter turnout in last national election relate to elections held between 2004–2009 and are taken from the International Institute for Democracy Electoral Assistance (IDEA) website.

n/a Not applicable because Liechtenstein and Switzerland are not members of the EU

[a] Data refer to the Flemish part of Flanders

[b] Data refer to the whole of Belgium

[c] Data refer to the whole of the United Kingdom

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population .

Sources:

International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA)—voter turnout in last national election: http://www.idea.int/uid/fieldview.cfm?field=221 [09/06/10].
Website of the European Parliament—voter turnout in last European election: http://www.europarl.europa.eu/parliament/archive/staticDisplay.do?language=EN&id=211 [20/09/2010].

Summary of findings

We explored, in this chapter, students' civic engagement and participation. We described students' levels of interest in different political issues (including European issues), students' participation in communication about Europe, and the media these young people use to obtain information. We also reviewed student participation in groups and activities at the European level as well as in organizations in the wider community, and students' reports of their expected participation in local, national, and European elections.

The findings show that students expressed relatively more interest in national political issues than in European political issues. Interest in European political issues appeared generally to be a little stronger than interest in international politics or politics in other countries. More than 6 out of 10 students reported that they informed themselves about national or international news from television on a weekly or more frequent basis. However, fewer than 4 out of 10 students indicated that they used television with that extent of frequency to obtain news about Europe.

Students were generally less likely to use the internet than to watch television or read a newspaper to find out about national or international news at least once a week. However, students in some countries were more likely than students in other countries to use the internet for this purpose. There were no countries where more students used the internet than watched television to find out about European news.

Student participation in discussions about political and social issues was not particularly frequent. Only minorities of the European lower-secondary school students reported weekly involvement in these activities. The students who tended to discuss political and social issues more frequently were also more likely than their peers to be involved in communication about Europe. Students who reported involvement in these activities also tended to have higher levels of civic knowledge.

When students were asked about their participation in different activities or groups at the European level, most of them reported not having participated. The only frequently reported activity was traveling to other European countries for leisure and holidays. This finding coincides with the finding that relatively few students reported having participated in organizations or groups in the wider community. Students who reported participation in a wider range of organizations also tended to indicate involvement in more activities and groups at the European level.

Most students said that they expected to vote in local and national elections when they reached adulthood. Expectations about voting in European elections were, however, much lower. There was considerable variation across the European ICCS countries with respect to voting expectations, and there were no clear associations between the percentages of students expecting to vote, voter turnout rates at national and European levels, and compulsory voting.

CHAPTER 7:

The context of schools and communities in Europe

This chapter focuses on the context in which students' learning takes place in Europe. We describe the aims and implementation of civic and citizenship education in schools, and related student activities in communities.

The ICCS assessment framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008) recognizes that civic and citizenship education outcomes can be influenced by factors with four levels of context: family background, classrooms, schools, and the wider community. The school context includes factors at both classroom and whole-school levels, including classroom climate, school ethos, and opportunities for student participation in school-based activities and in civic activities in the local community. The wider community context includes factors at local, national, and supra-national levels.

The data that we consider in this chapter include those that were collected through the European ICCS student questionnaire (particularly on students' opportunities for learning about Europe in school) and from the ICCS international school and teacher questionnaires (including information on teachers' confidence, and principals' and teachers' perceptions of students' participation in community activities). Together, these data provide information about the school and community contexts (and the variation in those contexts) potentially influencing civic and citizenship education outcomes across the 24 countries that participated in the European regional module.

The data from the ICCS school and teacher questionnaires cover some of the issues addressed in the online ICCS national contexts survey and that we reported in Chapter 2. One such issue highlighted in the research literature concerns the gaps that can exist between official national policies for civic and citizenship education and their implementation at national level (Birzea et al., 2004; Kerr et al., 2007). This situation tends to be especially evident in education systems where schools have higher levels of autonomy (Eurydice, 2007).

While the ICCS national research coordinators (NRCs) in each country provided responses to the national contexts survey, the people who responded to the ICCS school and teacher questionnaires were the principals and teachers in the participating schools in each ICCS country. The data obtained from them provide further background information on how schools implement civic and citizenship education.

The ICCS teacher questionnaire data were provided by a randomly selected sample of teachers in each school who taught students in the ICCS target grade. Also included was an international option containing questions that were answered only by teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education. This international option provided data about teacher confidence in teaching specific topics related to civics and citizenship.

Research Question 5 sought information on the aspects of schools and education systems that are related to civic and citizenship knowledge and attitudes to civic and citizenship. Research Question 5 was accompanied by several sub-questions. The following specific research questions are addressed in this chapter:

- What do principals believe are the most important aims of civic and citizenship education?
- What do teachers believe are the most important aims of civic and citizenship education?
- To what extent do teachers have confidence in teaching about topics related to civic and citizenship education, especially those concerning the European Union (EU)?
- To what extent do students have opportunities to learn about Europe at school?

Three sub-questions addressed the community context:

- What are principals' perceptions of the participation of students in civic-related activities in the local community?
- What are teachers' perceptions of the participation of students in civic-related activities in the local community?
- To what extent do students participate in activities or groups related to Europe?

The context of schools

Schools are a crucial context in influencing students' civic and citizenship education outcomes. Research suggests a number of factors that appear to influence the impact that schools can have on students' civic and citizenship education outcomes. These factors include the approaches that principals and teachers take to civic and citizenship education and the importance that they place on different aspects of civic and citizenship education as well as teachers' confidence in delivering topics related to civics and citizenship and students' opportunities to learn about those topics and other related aspects (Keating, Kerr, Lopes, Featherstone, & Benton, 2009; Niemi & Junn, 1998; Ofsted, 2010; Torney-Purta, 2002b). Other general school-culture factors potentially influencing civic and citizenship education are opportunities for students to engage in and practice community-based activities and the relationships that schools and their members have with their respective communities (Homana, Barber, & Torney-Purta, 2006; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001).

The ICCS school and teacher questionnaires contained questions that asked principals and teachers to identify what they perceived to be the most important aims of civic and citizenship education. More specifically, these respondents were asked to identify the three aims they saw as the most important. They were not, however, required to rank their three chosen aims. The list of aims from which principals and teachers could choose included the following:

- Promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions;
- Promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment;
- Promoting the capacity to defend one's own point of view;
- Developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution;
- Promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities;
- Promoting students' participation in the <local community>;
- Promoting students' critical and independent thinking;
- Promoting students' participation in school life;
- Supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia;
- Preparing students for future political engagement.

As is evident in Table 7.1, school principals in the majority of the European ICCS countries considered the three most important aims of civic and citizenship education to be developing the civic knowledge and skills of students through (i) promoting students' critical and independent thinking, (ii) promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities, and (iii) promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions.

There were, however, differences across countries with respect to principals' choice of important aims for civic and citizenship education. For example, principals in seven countries (Austria, Belgium (Flemish), Denmark, Liechtenstein, the Slovak Republic, Spain, and Switzerland) identified developing students' skills in conflict resolution as one of the three most important aims for civic and citizenship education. In Belgium (Flemish), Finland, Ireland, Liechtenstein,

Lithuania, Malta, and Slovenia, principals identified promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment as one of the three most important aims of civic and citizenship education.

Another notable difference that we observed occurred in England and Poland, where just over 40 percent of the principals cited promoting students' participation in the local community as one of the three most important aims. However, this aim was viewed as having much less importance in most other countries: in Austria, Estonia, Greece, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden, less than 10 percent of principals mentioned it.

Also evident in Table 7.1 is the finding that almost one third (31%) of the principals in Sweden viewed supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia as one of the three most important aims of civic and citizenship education. In most of the other countries participating in the European regional module, less than 10 percent of principals viewed this as an important aim.

Only minorities of principals gave preparing students for future political engagement as one of their three most important aims of civic and citizenship education. Greece was the only country in which a majority of principals (53%) mentioned this aim as an important one.

These results show that principals across countries tended to view promoting students' knowledge, critical and independent thinking, and knowledge of institutions as the three most important aims. However, there were considerable differences across the participating European countries, a situation that most likely reflects the diversity of approaches that these countries take to civic and citizenship education. This cross-national diversity of opinions is highlighted by our observation that at least one third of principals in each of the participating countries cited promoting students' critical and independent thinking among their three most important aims.

Table 7.2 shows the percentage of teachers in each European ICCS country who considered each of the aims to be one of the three most important aims of civic and citizenship education. Generally, the teachers' views were similar to those of the principals. Teachers also indicated that aims linked to developing students' civic knowledge and skills were among the most important aims of civic and citizenship education. They listed, in this regard, promoting students' critical and independent thinking, promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities, and (to a lesser extent) promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions.

On average, the aim of developing students' skills in conflict resolution was mentioned more often by teachers than by principals. A higher average percentage of teachers than principals also considered promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment as an important aim of civic and citizenship education. In six countries (Bulgaria, Finland, Lithuania, Malta, the Slovak Republic, and Slovenia), more than 40 percent of teachers viewed this aim as one of the three most important aims of civic and citizenship education.

There was some variation across countries with respect to the choice of aim chosen as important. In Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, and Latvia, more than a third of teachers identified promoting the capacity to defend one's own point of view as one of the three most important aims of civic and citizenship education. However, in most countries, only minorities of teachers stated this as an important aim. Promoting participation in the local community was viewed as one of the most important aims by more than a third of teachers in Ireland and Poland; in most other countries, only smaller minorities of teachers considered this aim to be an important one. This finding with respect to Ireland and Poland is similar to that for principals in these two countries. It may be that engagement in the local community is an intended key outcome of civic and citizenship education in the respective national curriculums of Ireland and Poland.

Table 7.1: Principals' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of principals)

Country	Percentages of Principals Considering the Following To Be an Important Aim of Civic and Citizenship Education:									
	Promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions	Promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment	Promoting the capacity to defend one's own point of view	Developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution	Promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities	Promoting students' participation in the local community	Promoting students' critical and independent thinking	Promoting students' participation in school life	Supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia	Preparing students for future political engagement
Austria	33 (5.1)	12 (3.8) ▼	25 (4.7)	42 (4.6) ▲	10 (3.2) ▼	3 (1.9) ▼	51 (5.4) ▼	5 (2.2) ▼	12 (3.5)	14 (3.7)
Belgium (Flemish) †	26 (5.0) ▼	42 (4.5) ▲	40 (4.7) ▲	59 (4.8) ▲	19 (4.6) ▼	10 (2.9)	61 (5.0)	30 (4.1) ▲	9 (2.4)	4 (3.2) ▽
Bulgaria	43 (6.0)	27 (4.0)	28 (5.8) ▲	27 (4.3)	72 (4.6) ▲	19 (4.6)	45 (4.5) ▼	31 (5.0) ▲	1 (0.6) ▽	5 (1.6) ▽
Cyprus	55 (7.2) ▲	21 (4.8)	22 (6.2)	22 (6.2)	66 (6.8)	10 (3.5)	60 (6.3)	21 (5.5)	14 (4.8)	9 (3.9)
Czech Republic †	46 (4.9)	32 (4.2)	36 (4.2) ▲	31 (4.2)	73 (3.7) ▲	16 (3.3)	45 (3.9) ▼	13 (2.8)	6 (2.2)	2 (1.3) ▽
Denmark †	54 (5.0) ▲	15 (3.7) ▼	7 (2.3) ▽	46 (4.5) ▲	43 (4.6) ▼	13 (2.5)	81 (3.6) ▲	4 (1.4) ▼	15 (4.0)	23 (3.4) ▲
England ‡	38 (6.4)	24 (5.7)	3 (1.3) ▼	19 (4.9) ▼	70 (4.8)	45 (5.8) ▲	45 (6.4) ▼	32 (5.8) ▲	10 (2.9)	13 (3.0)
Estonia	72 (4.0) ▲	11 (3.2) ▼	19 (4.8)	13 (2.9) ▼	87 (3.8) ▲	9 (3.8)	75 (5.0) ▲	8 (2.0) ▼	0 (0.0) ▽	5 (1.9) ▽
Finland	47 (4.5)	49 (4.7) ▲	9 (3.8)	36 (3.8)	44 (4.0) ▼	10 (2.4) ▽	84 (2.8) ▲	10 (2.7) ▽	6 (2.6)	4 (1.7) ▽
Greece	57 (7.1) ▲	12 (3.2) ▼	23 (5.8)	21 (6.1)	69 (5.7)	6 (2.5) ▽	47 (6.3) ▼	10 (3.9) ▽	4 (1.9) ▽	53 (7.0) ▲
Ireland	72 (4.9) ▲	41 (4.5) ▲	3 (2.0) ▼	12 (2.9) ▼	75 (4.4) ▲	33 (5.7) ▲	41 (5.5) ▼	9 (2.7) ▽	4 (1.9) ▽	9 (3.2)
Italy	61 (4.2) ▲	20 (3.2) ▽	5 (2.2) ▼	25 (4.5)	85 (3.5) ▲	25 (4.8) △	64 (4.9)	6 (1.4) ▼	8 (3.1)	1 (0.4) ▼
Latvia	32 (4.7) ▽	10 (2.6) ▼	34 (5.7) ▲	15 (4.3) ▼	76 (5.0) ▲	17 (4.1)	66 (5.6)	31 (5.8) ▲	1 (0.6) ▽	17 (4.8)
Liechtenstein	22 (15.9) ▼	44 (20.0) ▲	0 (0.0) ▼	44 (16.3) ▲	44 (20.0) ▼	0 (0.0) ▼	78 (15.9) ▲	11 (11.2)	22 (2.2) ▲	33 (19.5) ▲
Lithuania	22 (3.5) ▼	48 (6.4) ▲	10 (2.7) ▽	11 (2.3) ▼	63 (5.8)	31 (5.5) ▲	68 (5.8)	44 (6.9) ▲	3 (2.6) ▽	1 (0.3) ▼
Luxembourg	68 (12.0) ▲	18 (9.1) ▼	5 (4.6) ▼	23 (10.2)	59 (7.9)	9 (6.4)	59 (10.2)	23 (4.6)	18 (6.4)	18 (9.1)
Malta	13 (5.0) ▼	55 (6.6) ▲	11 (3.8)	32 (5.5)	70 (5.2)	25 (5.0)	66 (5.8)	21 (5.6)	6 (3.3)	0 (0.0) ▼
Poland	36 (5.9)	21 (4.7)	11 (2.9) ▽	32 (5.3)	66 (6.0)	44 (5.2) ▲	33 (4.7) ▼	34 (5.6) ▲	2 (1.0) ▽	20 (5.5)
Slovak Republic[1]	40 (4.9)	35 (5.0)	12 (3.8)	44 (5.2) ▲	70 (5.5)	15 (4.2)	58 (5.0)	11 (3.1) ▽	12 (3.6)	3 (1.8) ▽
Slovenia	30 (4.4) ▼	48 (3.9) ▲	29 (5.4) ▲	26 (3.8)	63 (4.3)	5 (1.9) ▼	72 (4.8) ▲	21 (5.0)	4 (1.5) ▽	3 (1.4) ▽
Spain	24 (4.2) ▼	26 (4.6)	6 (2.0) ▼	52 (5.2) ▲	77 (4.2) ▲	5 (2.1) ▼	73 (4.7) ▲	15 (3.5)	18 (4.5) △	3 (1.6) ▽
Sweden	21 (3.7) ▼	24 (4.7)	16 (3.6)	23 (4.5)	79 (5.0) ▲	1 (0.7) ▼	89 (3.6) ▲	13 (4.3)	31 (6.0) ▲	3 (2.4) ▽
Switzerland †	48 (6.5)	28 (5.2)	23 (6.0)	44 (6.0) ▲	36 (5.0) ▼	13 (4.8)	64 (5.8)	8 (2.2) ▼	5 (1.8) ▽	32 (4.9) ▲
European ICCS average	**42 (1.1)**	**29 (1.1)**	**16 (0.7)**	**30 (1.1)**	**61 (1.1)**	**16 (0.7)**	**62 (1.1)**	**18 (0.8)**	**9 (0.6)**	**12 (1.0)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements										
Netherlands	40 (8.0)	22 (6.5)	28 (8.8)	64 (7.3)	22 (7.6)	13 (6.8)	69 (8.4)	15 (4.6)	12 (6.6)	13 (5.7)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 7.2: Teachers' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of teachers)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Considering the Following To Be an Important Aim of Civic and Citizenship Education:									
	Promoting knowledge of social, political and civic institutions	Promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment	Promoting the capacity to defend one's own point of view	Developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution	Promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities	Promoting students' participation in the <local community>	Promoting students' critical and independent thinking	Promoting students' participation in school life	Supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia	Preparing students for future political engagement
Bulgaria	28 (2.0)	43 (1.6)	36 (1.7) ▲	30 (1.8) ▽	61 (1.4) △	11 (1.4) ▽	55 (1.9) ▽	28 (1.6) △	4 (0.8) ▽	3 (0.5) ▽
Cyprus	41 (1.8) ▲	34 (1.8) ▽	34 (1.8) △	23 (1.5) ▼	45 (1.7) ▽	12 (1.2)	63 (1.5)	18 (1.3)	22 (1.4) △	8 (0.9) △
Czech Republic †	36 (1.7) △	37 (1.3) ▽	36 (1.3) ▲	44 (1.7) △	57 (1.3)	19 (1.0) △	45 (1.6) ▼	9 (0.9) ▽	12 (0.9)	2 (0.4) ▽
Estonia	46 (1.6) ▲	30 (1.6) ▼	23 (1.2)	30 (1.5) ▽	71 (1.3) ▲	12 (1.0)	66 (1.3) △	13 (0.9) ▽	1 (0.3) ▼	7 (0.8) △
Finland	27 (1.1) ▽	61 (1.0) ▲	14 (0.7) ▽	44 (1.1) △	37 (1.0) ▼	7 (0.6) ▽	81 (0.9) ▲	18 (0.8)	9 (0.7) ▽	1 (0.3) ▽
Ireland ‡	42 (1.5) ▲	39 (1.4)	13 (0.9) ▼	22 (1.1) ▼	56 (1.3)	40 (1.3) ▲	49 (1.6) ▼	19 (1.0)	12 (1.0)	7 (0.7) △
Italy	50 (1.1) ▲	38 (1.1) ▽	12 (0.7) ▼	21 (1.0) ▼	78 (1.0) ▲	8 (0.6) ▽	58 (1.2) ▽	11 (0.7) ▽	21 (1.0) △	2 (0.3) ▽
Latvia	27 (2.0)	35 (2.0) ▽	38 (1.7) ▲	27 (1.7) ▽	52 (1.7)	9 (1.1) ▽	61 (1.3)	29 (1.8) ▲	1 (0.3) ▼	13 (1.5) △
Liechtenstein	31 (4.6)	35 (5.5)	20 (4.1)	58 (5.3) ▲	19 (3.8) ▼	3 (1.5) ▼	74 (3.8) ▲	11 (2.4) ▽	30 (4.9) ▲	19 (4.3) ▲
Lithuania	17 (1.1) ▼	49 (1.5) △	25 (1.2)	34 (1.4)	54 (1.4)	24 (1.3) ▲	57 (1.4) ▽	35 (1.4) ▲	2 (0.5) ▼	2 (0.4) ▽
Malta	20 (1.6) ▼	58 (1.8) ▲	18 (1.6) ▽	32 (1.8) ▽	60 (1.8) △	18 (1.5) △	60 (1.9)	21 (1.6)	10 (1.0) ▽	3 (0.6) ▽
Poland	24 (1.3) ▽	29 (1.1) ▼	22 (1.0) ▽	36 (1.4)	53 (1.3)	38 (1.3) ▲	44 (1.5) ▼	35 (1.3) ▲	7 (0.6) ▽	10 (0.9) △
Slovak Republic[1]	38 (1.4) △	50 (1.5) △	18 (1.0) ▽	43 (1.4) △	63 (1.5) △	12 (1.0)	41 (1.6) ▼	15 (1.5) ▽	16 (1.5) △	1 (0.3) ▽
Slovenia	24 (1.0) ▽	55 (1.0) ▲	31 (0.9) △	40 (1.0) △	49 (1.1) ▽	5 (0.5) ▽	64 (1.0) △	17 (1.0) ▽	13 (0.7)	1 (0.2) ▽
Spain	17 (1.0) ▼	32 (1.3) ▽	22 (1.1) ▽	57 (1.5) ▲	61 (1.3) △	3 (0.4) ▼	67 (1.4) △	13 (0.9) ▽	23 (1.2) △	3 (0.5) ▽
Sweden †	16 (1.1) ▼	37 (1.3) ▽	24 (1.2)	30 (1.2) ▽	62 (1.6) △	2 (0.4) ▼	84 (0.9) ▲	10 (0.8) ▽	31 (1.3) ▲	2 (0.4) ▽
European ICCS average	**30 (0.5)**	**42 (0.5)**	**24 (0.4)**	**36 (0.5)**	**55 (0.4)**	**14 (0.3)**	**61 (0.4)**	**19 (0.3)**	**13 (0.4)**	**5 (0.3)**
Countries not meeting sampling requirements										
Austria	25 (2.0)	27 (1.5)	38 (1.5)	46 (1.9)	17 (1.9)	3 (0.5)	65 (1.5)	2 (0.5)	21 (1.7)	16 (2.3)
Belgium (Flemish)	17 (1.1)	58 (1.4)	46 (1.5)	59 (1.2)	25 (1.2)	11 (0.9)	58 (1.4)	14 (0.9)	11 (1.0)	1 (0.2)
Denmark	48 (1.6)	22 (1.7)	20 (1.7)	51 (1.7)	32 (1.9)	7 (1.1)	89 (1.2)	4 (0.9)	9 (1.4)	16 (1.1)
England	27 (1.3)	35 (1.5)	13 (0.9)	31 (1.5)	50 (1.4)	27 (1.5)	64 (1.3)	22 (1.3)	23 (1.2)	6 (0.6)
Luxembourg	46 (4.1)	33 (3.5)	22 (2.8)	36 (3.8)	57 (4.0)	6 (1.5)	64 (3.3)	14 (2.6)	15 (2.7)	5 (1.5)
Switzerland	33 (1.8)	43 (2.2)	28 (1.8)	48 (1.6)	32 (1.9)	5 (0.7)	70 (1.7)	10 (0.9)	15 (1.4)	16 (1.4)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

In nearly all of the European ICCS countries, only minorities of teachers identified supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia as an important aim of civic and citizenship education. Liechtenstein and Sweden were the only countries in which approximately one third of teachers viewed this as an important aim. In a similar vein, only minorities of teachers in European countries acknowledged preparing students for future political participation as an important aim of civic and citizenship education.

In general, the results show that, similar to the findings from the survey of principals, teachers viewed promoting students' knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities as well as students' critical and independent thinking as the most important aims of civic and citizenship education. However, on average, teachers were more likely than principals to cite promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment as an important aim. On the other hand, comparison of the teachers' and the principals' responses on their respective surveys showed lower percentages of teachers than of principals identifying the promotion of knowledge of institutions.

As with the results from the school questionnaire, there was considerable variation across the European countries. Promoting students' critical and independent thinking was named by more than a third of surveyed teachers in each country. This variation shows that the participating teachers across the European countries held quite diverse views about what civic and citizenship education should achieve. In this context, it is worth mentioning that the teacher survey reflects the views of teachers responsible for all subjects taught at the target grade and not just of those teaching subjects related to civics and citizenship.

One of the questions included in the international option asked teachers to indicate how confident they felt about teaching a range of topics related to civic and citizenship education. A region-specific topic, which concerned teaching about the EU, was added for the European countries. The question included the following topics related to civic and citizenship education:

- The European Union (EU);
- Human rights;
- Different cultures and ethnic groups;
- Voting and elections;
- The global community and international organizations;
- Emigration and immigration;
- Citizens' rights and responsibilities;
- The constitution and political systems;
- Legal institutions and courts.

Teachers were asked to rate whether they felt "very confident," "quite confident," "not very confident," or "not confident at all" when teaching each topic.

Table 7.3 shows the percentages of teachers in each European ICCS country who felt very or quite confident when teaching each of these topics. The absence of data for Estonia, Greece, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands in the table is because either the national center had not included this international option or the teacher survey did not meet the minimum sampling requirements. Note, also, that differences across countries may be the result of variations in approach to civic and citizenship education (in terms of policies and aims) and differences in the subjects taught by the teacher respondents.

Table 7.3: National percentages of teachers' self-reported confidence to teach topics related to civics and citizenship

Country	Percentages of Teachers Very or Quite Confident in Teaching about ...								
	The European Union	Human rights	Different cultures and ethnic groups	Voting and elections	The global community and international organizations	Emigration and immigration	Citizens' rights and responsibilities	The constitution and political systems	Legal institutions and courts
Bulgaria	85 (3.6)	89 (2.6)	90 (2.7) △	81 (3.3)	80 (4.7)	86 (3.0) △	87 (3.0)	85 (3.3)	46 (5.5) ▼
Cyprus	77 (4.9)	95 (2.7)	86 (4.2)	78 (5.2)	73 (5.2)	85 (3.6)	93 (3.0)	70 (5.6)	54 (5.2)
Czech Republic †	84 (2.8) △	96 (1.4)	80 (3.0)	90 (1.9) △	80 (3.1)	77 (3.4)	98 (1.1) △	87 (2.7) △	72 (3.2) ▲
Finland	47 (2.1) ▼	83 (1.8) ▽	73 (2.3) ▼	65 (1.9) ▼	53 (2.4) ▼	61 (2.2) ▼	90 (1.2) ▽	54 (2.0) ▼	51 (2.2) ▽
Ireland ‡	76 (3.2)	94 (1.8)	78 (3.0) ▽	86 (2.4)	88 (2.0) ▲	87 (2.1) △	96 (1.2) △	80 (2.8)	68 (3.6) ▲
Italy	93 (1.2) ▲	98 (0.5) △	94 (0.8) ▲	87 (1.3) △	86 (1.6) △	94 (0.9) ▲	99 (0.4) △	94 (1.0) ▲	41 (2.6) ▼
Latvia	75 (3.8)	94 (1.9)	74 (3.2) ▼	83 (3.5)	64 (4.2) ▼	80 (3.3)	96 (2.0)	78 (3.3)	61 (4.2)
Liechtenstein	66 (8.8) ▼	85 (7.5)	82 (7.4)	84 (7.5)	77 (8.8)	65 (10.5) ▼	71 (9.2) ▼	77 (8.9)	37 (9.5) ▼
Lithuania	95 (1.8) ▲	89 (2.4)	88 (3.0)	82 (3.5)	91 (2.1) ▲	88 (2.8) △	92 (2.3)	71 (4.2) ▽	55 (3.7)
Malta	65 (4.1) ▼	87 (3.2)	85 (2.9)	73 (3.9) ▼	63 (4.6) ▼	84 (3.5)	88 (3.2)	55 (4.7) ▼	31 (4.6) ▼
Poland	96 (1.6) ▲	100 (0.0) △	88 (3.4)	97 (1.2) ▲	90 (3.2) ▲	93 (2.8) ▲	99 (0.5) △	97 (1.5) ▲	85 (3.4) ▲
Slovak Republic[1]	87 (2.4) △	97 (1.1) △	76 (2.9) ▽	85 (2.7)	68 (3.8) ▽	54 (4.4) ▼	95 (1.4)	83 (2.7)	65 (3.3) △
Slovenia	70 (1.8) ▽	91 (1.7)	83 (1.5)	77 (1.7) ▽	63 (2.2) ▼	66 (2.1) ▼	93 (1.0)	72 (1.8) ▽	40 (3.2) ▼
Spain	78 (3.6)	98 (1.3) △	94 (1.9) ▲	90 (2.7) △	88 (2.7) ▲	92 (2.1) ▲	98 (1.2) △	84 (3.1)	58 (4.3)
Sweden †	76 (2.1)	99 (0.7) △	90 (1.8) △	97 (1.0) ▲	93 (1.7) ▲	95 (1.3) ▲	99 (0.7) △	94 (1.5) ▲	89 (2.7) ▲
European ICCS average	**78 (0.9)**	**93 (0.7)**	**84 (0.8)**	**84 (0.9)**	**77 (1.0)**	**80 (1.0)**	**93 (0.8)**	**79 (1.0)**	**57 (1.1)**
Countries not meeting sampling requirements									
Austria	88 (3.7)	94 (1.7)	78 (4.3)	96 (1.9)	79 (4.2)	75 (4.1)	90 (3.3)	94 (2.4)	64 (4.2)
Belgium (Flemish)	47 (2.4)	61 (2.7)	72 (2.8)	55 (2.1)	54 (2.7)	56 (2.9)	60 (2.3)	41 (2.1)	26 (2.1)
Denmark	57 (2.8)	93 (1.6)	86 (2.0)	83 (2.6)	74 (3.3)	81 (2.9)	88 (1.6)	84 (2.2)	68 (2.3)
England	50 (3.2)	83 (2.1)	80 (2.2)	73 (2.6)	70 (2.5)	66 (2.7)	82 (2.4)	53 (2.9)	41 (3.0)
Switzerland	59 (3.2)	85 (3.0)	73 (4.5)	91 (2.8)	72 (5.0)	69 (4.8)	85 (3.2)	85 (3.2)	39 (5.0)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 7.3 also shows the percentages of teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education who reported feeling very or quite confident about teaching each of these topics. In general, the results revealed high levels of confidence with respect to teaching a range of topics related to civics and citizenship. The average percentages of teachers expressing this degree of confidence ranged from 57 percent (for legal institutions and courts) to 93 percent (for human rights and for citizens' rights and responsibilities).

For more than half of the countries, the percentages of teachers reporting that they felt very or quite confident did not drop below 50 percent for any of the listed topics. In the Czech Republic, Poland, and Sweden, a minimum of 70 percent of teachers expressed confidence in teaching all topics to their students. The only two topics where less than 50 percent expressed confidence in teaching these topics were the EU and legal institutions and courts. Forty-seven percent of teachers in Finland said they felt very or quite confident about teaching the first topic while 46 percent of teachers in Bulgaria, 41 percent in Italy, 37 percent in Liechtenstein, 31 percent in Malta, and 40 percent in Slovenia expressed confidence in teaching the second topic.

The results for teacher confidence in teaching topics related to civic and citizenship education show that, on average, across the participating European countries, majorities of teachers felt confident to teach about the EU (78%). The average level of confidence was similar to that reported for the topics global community and international organizations (77%) and the constitution and political systems (79%).

There has been much discussion of the need to integrate a European dimension into education processes, so that this dimension becomes part of the knowledge, understanding, skills, and attitudes that young people need to acquire in order to live and participate in modern European democratic societies. Research underlines the challenges of building this dimension into curricula in European countries (including civic and citizenship education curricula) that continue to be dominated by national affairs and concerns (Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education/CIDREE 2005; Eurydice, 2005; Dejaeghere & Quintelier, 2008).

The European ICCS questionnaire included a question that asked students about the extent to which their school offered the following opportunities to learn about Europe:

- Visiting other European countries;
- Meeting young people from other European countries;
- Learning about political and economic issues in other European countries;
- Finding out what is happening in other European countries;
- Finding out about other European countries through the internet or the media (press, television, or radio);
- Learning about arts and culture (e.g., music and films) in other European countries;
- Learning about sport in other European countries;
- Finding out what it is like to live in other European countries;
- Learning about how they <the students> could work in other European countries.

Students were asked to indicate how much they agreed ("strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") that their school provided such opportunities.

We used these items to derive a scale of student reports on opportunities for learning about Europe at school. The scale had a satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.83 for the pooled European ICCS sample and was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. The item-by-score map for this scale presented in Figure 7.1, Appendix D, shows that students with an average of 50 were likely to agree with all of the items used for

measurement. The average percentages across countries ranged from 51 percent (learning how one can work in other European countries) to 74 percent (finding out what is happening in other European countries and learning about arts and culture in other European countries).

Table 7.4 shows the national average scale scores for each participating country in the European region. The higher scores come from the students who most agreed that their respective schools offered them various opportunities to learn about Europe.

There was some variation across countries, with national averages ranging from 46 to 55. The highest scale score (of more than three points above the European ICCS average) was found in Bulgaria, Italy, and Malta. Students in Sweden and Switzerland had the lowest scale scores, an outcome that reflects fewer perceived opportunities to learn about Europe at school.

The context of communities

The ICCS assessment framework posits that it is not just the school that can influence students' civic and citizenship outcomes. Influence can also be exerted by communities, including the local community. Part of this influence can come through the interactions between schools and communities.

Participation in civic-related community activities allows students to practice the knowledge and skills they have developed through their civic and citizenship education in the classroom. Participation also provides them with opportunities to experience civic participation and engagement outside of the school environment. Research supports the notion of giving young people opportunities to learn more about civic issues and participation by taking an active part in communities beyond schools (Eurydice, 2005; Georgi, 2008; Huddleston & Kerr, 2006; Kahne & Sporte, 2008; Sherrod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010).

In Chapter 6, we reported on students' participation in various civic activities in the wider community and Europe. A question in the ICCS school questionnaire provided data giving further insight into this involvement. The question asked principals about their perceptions of how many students in the target grade in that school year had been given an opportunity to participate in various specified civic-related community activities carried out by the school in cooperation with external groups or organizations. The list of activities provided included the following:

- Activities related to the environment, geared to the local area;
- Human rights projects;
- Activities related to underprivileged people or groups;
- Cultural activities (e.g., theater, music, cinema);
- Multicultural and intercultural activities within the <local community>;
- Campaigns to raise people's awareness, such as <World AIDS Day, World No Tobacco Day>;
- Activities related to improving facilities for the <local community> (e.g., public gardens, libraries, health centers, recreation centers, community hall);
- Sports events.

Principals were asked to indicate on a five-point scale whether "all or nearly all," "most," "some," or "none" or "hardly any" of their students had received opportunity to participate in each of these activities. Principals were also advised that they could indicate whether an activity was "not offered at school." Table 7.5 shows the percentages of students at schools where principals reported that all, nearly all, or most students had the opportunity to participate in each activity. The results show that, according to the principals' reports, students in the target grade took part in a wide range of community activities.

Table 7.4: National averages for students' reports on opportunities for learning about Europe at school

Country	Average scale score			30 40 50 60 70
Austria	53	(0.2)	△	
Belgium (Flemish) †	47	(0.3)	▽	
Bulgaria	54	(0.3)	▲	
Cyprus	52	(0.3)	△	
Czech Republic †	51	(0.2)	△	
Denmark †	49	(0.3)	▽	
England ‡	51	(0.3)	△	
Estonia	49	(0.3)	▽	
Finland	48	(0.2)	▽	
Greece	49	(0.3)	▽	
Ireland	50	(0.3)		
Italy	53	(0.2)	▲	
Latvia	50	(0.3)		
Liechtenstein	47	(0.5)	▽	
Lithuania	50	(0.2)	▽	
Luxembourg	50	(0.2)	▽	
Malta	55	(0.3)	▲	
Poland	50	(0.3)		
Slovak Republic[1]	48	(0.2)	▽	
Slovenia	50	(0.3)		
Spain	50	(0.3)		
Sweden	46	(0.3)	▼	
Switzerland †	47	(0.3)	▼	
European ICCS average	**50**	**(0.1)**		
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	48	(0.3)		

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above European ICCS average
△ Significantly above European ICCS average
▼ More than 3 score points below European ICCS average
▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

■ Average score +/– confidence interval

On average, students with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of responding to statements about opportunities for learning about Europe with:

	Disagree or strongly disagree
	Agree or strongly agree

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

In a majority of countries, the highest percentages of students were found for schools where principals reported that students had taken part in sports events and cultural activities. Percentages of students above 70 percent at schools where most students had participated in campaigns to raise people's awareness of issues such as Aids World Day or World No Tobacco Day were recorded in Belgium (Flemish), Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Poland, Slovenia, and Spain.

In many countries, there were also high percentages of students at schools for which principals reported that most had participated in activities related to the environment, geared to the local area. On average, 47 percent of students at schools had had opportunity to take part in such activities. We observed particularly high percentages (over 70 percent of students at schools) in the Czech Republic, Estonia, and the Slovak Republic.

On average, across countries, only minorities of students studied at schools for which principals reported that most students had participated in human rights projects (35%), activities related to underprivileged people or groups (36%), multicultural activities (31%), and activities related to improving facilities (25%).

The ICCS teacher questionnaire contained a similar question to the one administered to the principals. The teachers were presented with the same list of activities, but were asked whether they had participated ("yes," "no") with their ICCS target-grade students in any or all of these activities during the current school year.

Table 7.6 records the percentages of teachers in each European ICCS country who reported they had participated with their target-grade students in each of the activities. The table shows that, across the European ICCS countries, more than two thirds of teachers reported having taken part with their target-grade class in cultural activities (70%) and sports events (67%) during the school year. Many—but less than half—of the teachers across these countries reported having participated with students in activities related to the environment (40%) or campaigns to raise people's awareness, such as AIDS World Day or World No Tobacco Day (46%).

Meanwhile, only about a quarter of teachers reported such participation for human rights projects (25%), activities related to underprivileged people or groups (26%), multicultural and intercultural activities (29%), and activities related to improving facilities for the local community. On average, only a small percentage (11%) of teachers across the countries indicated that they and their students had not been involved in any of the listed community activities. The only countries in which the non-participation percentage was above 20 were Cyprus, Ireland, and Liechtenstein.

Generally, the results of the teacher survey about student participation in community activities were similar to those from the survey of school principals, with participation in cultural activities and sports events being the dominant forms of involvement in the community. However, as with the survey results for school principals, there was considerable variation across countries with respect to the teachers' responses. In particular, participation in campaigns to raise people's awareness was reported by a majority of teachers in several countries whereas in others only small minorities stated that they had done this with their target-grade students.

The European ICCS student questionnaire included a question that asked students about their participation in a variety of activities or groups related to the European level. The question included three activities of interest in the context of this chapter:

- Activities organized in my <the student's> local area that involve meeting people from other European countries;
- Activities related to friendship agreements (twinning) between my <the student's> local town/city and other towns/cities;

Table 7.5: Principals' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities (in national percentages of students)

Country	Percentages of Students at Schools Where Principals Reported that All, Nearly All or Most Students at their School Had Opportunity To Take Part in:							
	Activities related to the environment, geared to the local area	Human rights projects	Activities related to under-privileged people or groups	Cultural activities (for example, theater, music, cinema)	Multicultural and intercultural activities within the local community	Campaigns to raise people's awareness, such as <AIDS World Day, World No Tobacco Day>	Activities related to improving facilities for the local community	Participating in sports events
Austria	32 (4.2) ▼	27 (4.3) ▽	33 (4.6)	87 (3.2) △	18 (3.6) ▼	65 (4.3)	11 (3.0) ▼	84 (3.5)
Belgium (Flemish) †	63 (4.1) ▲	45 (4.8) △	68 (4.7) ▲	95 (1.5) ▲	33 (4.8)	73 (3.5) ▲	12 (2.5) ▼	88 (2.6)
Bulgaria	46 (4.6)	8 (2.6) ▼	24 (3.5) ▼	75 (3.7)	36 (4.8)	76 (3.4) ▲	37 (4.2) ▲	85 (3.1)
Cyprus	21 (0.2) ▼	19 (0.2) ▼	11 (0.1) ▼	41 (0.3) ▼	26 (0.2) ▽	19 (0.2) ▼	13 (0.1) ▼	46 (0.3) ▼
Czech Republic †	74 (4.1) ▲	42 (5.0)	34 (4.7)	98 (1.0) ▲	51 (4.8) ▲	77 (4.1) ▲	28 (4.3)	87 (2.9)
Denmark †	22 (3.7) ▼	24 (3.8) ▼	25 (3.8) ▼	80 (3.1)	18 (3.6) ▼	18 (3.5) ▼	26 (3.8)	74 (3.9) ▽
England ‡	49 (5.3)	47 (5.1) ▲	70 (3.9) ▲	89 (3.3) △	40 (5.5)	66 (4.7)	24 (4.6)	96 (2.2) ▲
Estonia	76 (3.8) ▲	22 (3.7) ▼	15 (2.9) ▼	99 (1.1) ▲	40 (3.9) △	78 (3.5) ▲	56 (4.7) ▲	99 (0.9) ▲
Finland	39 (3.3) ▽	15 (3.2) ▼	48 (4.2) ▲	82 (2.9)	28 (3.7)	88 (2.6) ▲	32 (3.9)	86 (2.5)
Greece	25 (3.5) ▼	10 (2.8) ▼	13 (3.4) ▼	41 (4.1) ▼	11 (2.8) ▼	22 (3.4) ▼	6 (2.1) ▼	50 (4.8) ▼
Ireland	40 (3.7)	39 (4.6)	33 (4.3)	52 (4.4) ▼	18 (3.4) ▼	21 (3.5) ▼	10 (2.7) ▼	79 (3.9)
Italy	60 (4.3) ▲	66 (3.6) ▲	44 (3.8) △	82 (3.1)	47 (3.7) ▲	56 (3.8)	24 (3.6)	81 (2.8)
Latvia	43 (4.2)	30 (4.1)	31 (4.9)	96 (1.8) ▲	47 (4.4) ▲	53 (4.8)	65 (4.2) ▲	98 (1.2) ▲
Liechtenstein	32 (0.4) ▼	59 (0.4) ▲	59 (0.4) ▲	87 (0.3) △	0 (0.0) ▼	75 (0.4) ▲	13 (0.3) ▼	87 (0.3) △
Lithuania	55 (4.3)	28 (4.2)	20 (3.3) ▼	76 (3.4)	51 (3.5) ▲	67 (4.1)	63 (3.9) ▲	97 (1.5) ▲
Luxembourg	23 (1.4) ▼	32 (2.2)	39 (2.3)	63 (2.2) ▼	35 (2.2)	74 (1.8) ▲	0 (0.0) ▼	75 (2.3) ▽
Malta	42 (0.9) ▽	38 (0.9)	48 (0.9) ▲	65 (0.9) ▼	19 (0.6) ▼	39 (0.9) ▼	13 (0.4) ▼	94 (0.1) ▲
Poland	63 (4.1) ▲	51 (4.3) ▲	50 (4.1) ▲	88 (2.7) △	33 (4.3)	92 (2.1) ▲	22 (3.6)	92 (2.2) △
Slovak Republic[1]	74 (3.6) ▲	50 (4.5) ▲	34 (4.1)	93 (2.2) ▲	53 (4.5) ▲	63 (4.2)	36 (4.3) ▲	94 (1.9) ▲
Slovenia	68 (3.4) ▲	49 (4.6) ▲	39 (4.4)	90 (2.2) ▲	46 (3.7) ▲	85 (2.8) ▲	31 (3.4)	89 (2.7) △
Spain	63 (4.3) ▲	52 (4.2) ▲	44 (3.9) △	86 (2.3) △	34 (4.1)	72 (4.0) ▲	14 (2.9) ▼	76 (3.9) ▽
Sweden	35 (4.1) ▼	47 (4.1) ▲	34 (4.1)	92 (2.2) ▲	27 (3.3)	30 (4.2) ▼	20 (3.5)	81 (3.3)
Switzerland †	38 (6.1)	15 (3.2) ▼	12 (3.2) ▼	85 (3.0)	13 (2.5) ▼	52 (4.8)	13 (2.8) ▼	94 (2.1) △
European ICCS average	**47 (0.7)**	**35 (0.7)**	**36 (0.7)**	**80 (0.5)**	**31 (0.7)**	**59 (0.6)**	**25 (0.6)**	**84 (0.5)**
Country not meeting sampling requirements								
Netherlands	25 (9.4)	24 (7.2)	42 (8.8)	82 (7.7)	23 (9.3)	29 (10.3)	16 (5.2)	82 (5.1)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 7.6: Teachers' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities (in national percentages of teachers)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Reporting Having Taken Part with Their Target-Grade Classes in:								
	Activities related to the environment, geared to the local area	Human rights projects	Activities related to under-privileged people or groups	Cultural activities (for example, theater, music, cinema)	Multicultural and intercultural activities within the <local community>	Campaigns to raise people's awareness, such as <AIDS World Day, World No Tobacco Day>	Activities related to improving facilities for the <local community>	Participating in sports events	None of these activities
Bulgaria	43 (2.4)	9 (1.0) ▼	23 (2.1)	73 (2.2)	44 (2.6) ▲	70 (2.0) ▲	37 (2.4) ▲	79 (1.6) ▲	7 (0.8) ▽
Cyprus	28 (1.6) ▼	22 (1.4) ▽	25 (1.4)	50 (1.8) ▼	27 (1.5)	22 (1.7) ▼	19 (1.5) ▽	44 (1.7) ▼	21 (1.5) △
Czech Republic †	35 (1.7) ▽	22 (1.2) ▽	16 (1.2) ▼	71 (1.4)	31 (1.5)	46 (2.0)	19 (1.3) ▽	54 (1.3) ▼	14 (1.0) △
Estonia	54 (1.9) ▲	8 (1.0) ▼	6 (0.8) ▼	80 (1.3) ▲	24 (1.8) ▽	54 (1.7) △	45 (1.7) ▲	87 (1.0) ▲	6 (0.8) ▽
Finland	16 (1.1) ▼	5 (0.7) ▼	19 (1.0) ▽	50 (1.3) ▼	13 (1.1) ▼	60 (1.3) ▲	20 (1.7) ▽	56 (1.4) ▼	14 (0.8) △
Ireland ‡	29 (1.3) ▼	24 (1.2)	25 (1.2)	41 (1.3) ▼	13 (0.9) ▼	21 (1.1) ▼	12 (0.8) ▼	57 (1.4) ▼	24 (1.2) ▲
Italy	40 (1.9)	40 (2.0) ▲	39 (1.6) ▲	80 (1.4) ▲	34 (1.6) △	44 (1.6)	19 (1.3) ▽	65 (1.6)	7 (0.7) ▽
Latvia	59 (2.2) ▲	21 (1.5) ▽	22 (2.0) ▽	80 (1.3) ▲	37 (2.2) △	39 (2.2) ▽	56 (2.4) ▲	81 (1.5) ▲	7 (0.8) ▽
Liechtenstein	23 (4.2) ▼	23 (4.4)	20 (4.6)	54 (5.1) ▼	2 (1.2) ▼	29 (4.0) ▼	9 (2.7) ▼	55 (4.5) ▼	21 (4.3) ▲
Lithuania	46 (1.8) △	26 (1.7)	28 (1.9)	76 (1.4) △	50 (1.8) ▲	65 (1.9) ▲	54 (1.6) ▲	72 (1.1) △	7 (0.7) ▽
Malta	45 (1.9) △	29 (1.8) △	41 (1.8) ▲	75 (1.9) △	29 (1.5)	39 (2.1) ▽	19 (1.4) ▽	78 (1.8) ▲	8 (1.3) ▽
Poland	46 (1.5) △	28 (1.8)	41 (1.5) ▲	65 (1.7) ▽	24 (1.2) ▽	65 (1.5) ▲	16 (1.0) ▽	56 (1.4) ▼	10 (0.9)
Slovak Republic[1]	77 (1.7) ▲	50 (2.0) ▲	30 (1.7) △	96 (0.7) ▲	57 (2.1) ▲	72 (1.6) ▲	48 (2.1) ▲	96 (0.9) ▲	1 (0.2) ▼
Slovenia	46 (1.5) △	27 (1.1)	23 (1.5)	74 (1.1) △	38 (1.2) △	47 (1.3)	17 (0.9) ▽	70 (1.3) △	10 (0.7) ▽
Spain	41 (2.1)	42 (1.6) ▲	41 (1.8) ▲	74 (1.5) △	27 (1.5)	50 (1.7) △	12 (1.0) ▼	55 (2.1) ▼	10 (0.8)
Sweden †	19 (1.5) ▼	27 (2.0)	17 (1.4) ▽	80 (1.5) ▲	16 (1.3) ▼	18 (1.2) ▼	16 (1.4) ▽	69 (1.4)	11 (1.1)
European ICCS average	**40 (0.5)**	**25 (0.5)**	**26 (0.5)**	**70 (0.5)**	**29 (0.4)**	**46 (0.5)**	**26 (0.4)**	**67 (0.5)**	**11 (0.3)**
Countries not meeting sampling requirements									
Austria	31 (1.5)	22 (1.8)	23 (2.1)	64 (2.0)	16 (1.5)	27 (1.6)	19 (1.6)	56 (2.0)	16 (1.3)
Belgium (Flemish)	49 (2.5)	35 (2.2)	51 (2.0)	83 (1.3)	32 (1.7)	51 (2.6)	14 (1.2)	78 (1.3)	6 (0.8)
Denmark	12 (1.2)	14 (1.4)	15 (1.9)	55 (2.3)	6 (0.8)	14 (1.4)	13 (1.5)	43 (2.1)	27 (1.8)
England	32 (1.7)	27 (1.4)	37 (1.6)	51 (1.7)	21 (1.2)	35 (1.5)	17 (1.3)	60 (1.6)	17 (1.2)
Luxembourg	17 (2.8)	22 (2.6)	21 (2.7)	34 (3.4)	17 (2.3)	40 (3.4)	12 (2.7)	35 (3.5)	32 (3.4)
Switzerland	18 (2.0)	11 (1.5)	11 (1.1)	47 (1.9)	8 (0.9)	22 (1.6)	8 (1.1)	55 (3.3)	25 (2.0)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

- Exhibitions, festivals, or other events about the art and culture (e.g., music, films) of other European countries.

Students were asked to indicate, for each activity, whether they had done it within the last 12 months or more than a year ago, or whether they had never done it.

Table 7.7 shows the national percentages of students who had participated in these three activities (either within the last 12 months or more than a year ago). The results reveal only a minority of students, across countries, had participated in activities and groups relating to Europe and organized in the local community. On average, the percentage of students who reported participation in activities organized in their local area and involving meeting people from other European countries was 34 percent. The percentage for activities related to friendship agreements between the students' local towns/cities and other European towns/cities was 30 percent. The highest such percentage observed (45%) was for exhibitions, festivals, or other events about the art and culture (e.g., music, films) of other European countries.

There was also some variation across the European ICCS countries. In five countries (Denmark, Estonia, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, and Switzerland), more than half of the students reported having participated in exhibitions, festivals, or other events about art and culture from other European countries. However, in Bulgaria, only 28 percent of students said they had done this. The percentages for local activities involving meeting people from other European countries ranged from 23 to 47 percent. The range for activities related to friendship agreements with other European towns or cities was 17 to 43 percent.

Summary of findings

Our focus in this chapter was on the role of schools and communities as contexts that influence students' civic and citizenship outcomes in the European region. We explored the aims of civic and citizenship education in schools and the opportunities that students have to learn about Europe and participate in a range of activities in their communities.

The results show that majorities of principals and teachers across European countries perceived that the most important aims of civic and citizenship education involved developing students' civic knowledge and skills, particularly those concerning critical and independent thinking, knowledge of rights and responsibilities, and knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions. However, the results from both the principals' and the teachers' surveys showed considerable variation across countries, an outcome that probably reflects diversity in how civic and citizenship education and its roles are perceived in the different countries across the region.

Only minorities of principals and teachers in each European country considered preparing students for future political engagement and supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia to be among the three most important aims of civic and citizenship education.

Results from the international option in the teacher questionnaire that was aimed at teachers of subjects related to this area of learning showed that teachers, on average, had high levels of confidence in their ability to teach a wide range of topics pertaining to civic and citizenship education. The topics that teachers felt most confident to teach were citizens' rights and responsibilities and human rights. However, in a relatively large number of countries, only a minority of teachers expressed confidence in teaching content related to legal institutions and courts.

Table 7.7: National percentages of students' participation in activities or groups relating to Europe

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Having Participated In:					
	Activities organized in local area that involve meeting people from other European countries		Activities related to friendship agreements (twinning) between local town/city and other European towns/ cities		Exhibitions, festivals, or other events about the art and culture (e.g., music, films) of other European countries	
Austria	36 (1.3)		27 (1.2)	▽	46 (1.1)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	32 (0.8)	▽	28 (0.9)	▽	47 (1.1)	△
Bulgaria	32 (1.5)		26 (1.2)	▽	28 (1.2)	▼
Cyprus	43 (1.0)	△	43 (1.1)	▲	45 (1.0)	
Czech Republic †	27 (0.8)	▽	27 (1.0)	▽	38 (0.8)	▽
Denmark †	31 (1.0)	▽	17 (0.9)	▼	53 (1.1)	△
England ‡	28 (1.1)	▽	32 (1.1)		44 (1.2)	
Estonia	46 (1.4)	▲	32 (1.4)		57 (1.2)	▲
Finland	29 (1.3)	▽	28 (1.5)		50 (1.1)	△
Greece	36 (1.3)		35 (1.4)	△	45 (1.2)	
Ireland	29 (1.0)	▽	34 (1.1)	△	47 (1.3)	
Italy	33 (1.3)		28 (1.5)		45 (1.1)	
Latvia	23 (1.1)	▼	27 (1.1)	▽	44 (1.1)	
Liechtenstein	47 (2.7)	▲	19 (2.2)	▼	59 (2.4)	▲
Lithuania	37 (1.1)	△	37 (1.0)	△	42 (1.1)	▽
Luxembourg	40 (0.9)	△	30 (0.7)		62 (0.9)	▲
Malta	32 (1.6)		29 (1.3)		50 (1.4)	△
Poland	41 (1.3)	△	29 (1.3)		42 (1.1)	▽
Slovak Republic[1]	30 (1.5)	▽	24 (1.2)	▽	45 (1.5)	
Slovenia	37 (1.3)	△	39 (1.3)	△	46 (1.3)	
Spain	38 (1.0)	△	38 (1.1)	△	49 (1.2)	△
Sweden	31 (1.0)	▽	27 (1.0)	▽	43 (1.1)	▽
Switzerland †	30 (1.5)	▽	20 (1.2)	▽	52 (1.2)	△
European ICCS average	**34 (0.3)**		**30 (0.3)**		**45 (0.3)**	
Country not meeting sampling requirements						
Netherlands	45 (3.1)		17 (1.6)		46 (1.7)	

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above European ICCS average

△ Significantly above European ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below European ICCS average

▽ Significantly below European ICCS average

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Majorities of teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education felt confident in teaching about the EU. Teachers' confidence levels on this topic were similar to those for the topics of the global community and international organizations and the constitution and political systems.

Majorities of students across the European ICCS countries agreed that they had opportunities at their schools to learn about a wide range of topics related to other European countries. In particular, students reported that there were opportunities to find out about events and to learn about arts and culture in other European countries.

ICCS included questions in the teacher and the school surveys that sought to ascertain the extent to which the target-grade students were involved in community activities. In almost all of the participating European ICCS countries, majorities of students studied at schools for which principals reported most students had opportunities to participate in cultural activities and sports events in the community. However, opportunities for participation in activities that were more directly concerned with civics and citizenship were less common, and there was considerable variation across the European ICCS countries.

Teacher survey data on teachers' involvement in community activities showed a similar picture. Only minorities of teachers across countries reported not having been involved in any community activities with their target-grade classes.

When students were asked about their involvement in activities related to relationships with other European countries, only minorities of them reported having participated in activities directed at meeting people from other European countries. The same pattern of findings was evident in relation to friendship agreements with other European towns or cities and in relation to events centered on art and culture in other European countries.

The types of community-based European activities that students had most been involved in were exhibitions, festivals, or other events about the art and culture of other European countries. Students were least likely to have been involved in activities related to friendship agreements between towns and cities.

CHAPTER 8:

Summary and discussion

The International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) set out to investigate the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens. ICCS was initiated on the premise that preparing students for citizenship roles involves the development of relevant knowledge and understanding as well as the formation of positive attitudes toward being a citizen and participating in activities related to civic issues and matters of citizenship in the school and community. This approach was set out in detail in the ICCS framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008).

The framework recognized that one of the influences on where and how young people undertake their roles as citizens is the regional context. It also recognized the growth in importance of regional institutions and perspectives in Europe that has occurred since IEA conducted its CIVED survey in the late 1990s. In order to assess this development, ICCS included a regional module for Europe, as well as regional modules for Asia and Latin America.

The ICCS framework provided a conceptual basis that guided the scope and content for the region-specific assessment for European countries. The purpose of the European module was to investigate region-specific civics and citizenship issues that were identified within the overarching assessment framework for this study. Twenty-four European countries participated in the European module of ICCS.

In this report on the findings from the European ICCS regional survey, we described and analyzed differences among countries in relation to civics and citizenship issues that have special relevance to Europe.

In order to provide an overview of the results, we summarize, in this final chapter, the main outcomes of the regional survey in relation to students' civic knowledge in a European context and with respect to student perceptions and behaviors related to European citizenship and identity, intercultural relations in Europe, free movement of citizens in Europe, European policies, institutions, and participation, and European language learning.

We also summarize the results relating to the overarching research questions that guided ICCS. We will then discuss some possible implications of the outcomes of these findings for policy and practice in Europe, and then end the chapter with a brief look at future directions for research on civic and citizenship education in the context of Europe.

Variations among and within countries in civic knowledge in Europe

ICCS Research Question 1 was concerned with the extent of variation existing among and within countries in students' knowledge about civics and citizenship (i.e., their civic knowledge). The European cognitive test investigated the extent of students' civic knowledge about the European Union (EU) and its policies, institutions, practices, and processes. In this report, Chapter 3 was dedicated to describing and discussing the outcomes of the ICCS international and European tests for the 24 European ICCS countries.

The international ICCS test measured civic knowledge on a scale for which the international average was set to 500 scale points, with a standard deviation of 100 scale points. Students in European ICCS countries scored an average of 514 score points, which was above the average (500) for all participating ICCS countries. However, the results showed considerable variation in civic knowledge among and within European countries. European national averages ranged from 453 to 576 points.

ICCS established three proficiency levels based on students' responses to the international test. Taken in order, the three levels denote students' progressive acquisition of civic knowledge.

- *Proficiency Level 1* is characterized by engagement with the fundamental principles and broad concepts that underpin civic and citizenship education and by a mechanistic working knowledge of the operation of civic, civil, and political institutions.
- *Proficiency Level 2* is characterized by knowledge and understanding of the main civic and citizenship institutions, systems, and concepts as well as an understanding of the interconnectedness of civic and civil institutions and relevant operational processes.
- *Proficiency Level 3* is characterized by the application of knowledge and understanding to evaluate or justify policies, practices, and behaviors based on students' understanding of civics and citizenship.

Across the participating European ICCS countries, the country averages for four countries (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, and Luxembourg) set the average civic knowledge of their students as being within Proficiency Level 1. On average, the civic knowledge proficiency of students in most of the other European countries related to Level 2. The country averages for the two highest-performing European countries (Denmark and Finland) positioned the students in these countries at Proficiency Level 3.

In addition to the international test, there was also a European cognitive test with a focus on the EU. These items were not used to form a scale but are reported in relation to three groups of items:

- Basic facts about the European Union (EU);
- Knowledge of EU laws and policies;
- Knowledge about the euro currency.

A number of findings about students' civic knowledge about the EU emerged. It was evident that knowledge of basic facts about the EU was widespread among students across most of the European ICCS countries, including those countries that are not EU members. However, we observed variation among countries in the levels of students' civic knowledge about EU laws and policies. Students' civic knowledge about the euro and eurozone was also relatively widespread across European ICCS countries; this extent of knowledge was also true for students in those countries that are not part of the eurozone.

Interest and disposition to engage in public and political life in Europe

ICCS Research Question 3 was concerned with the extent to which the students participating in ICCS were interested in public and political life and their disposition to engage in it. The European student questionnaire investigated the extent to which students were interested in and engaged with five specific European-related civics and citizenship issues:

- European citizenship and identity;
- Intercultural relations in Europe;
- Free movement of citizens in Europe;
- European policies, institutions, and participation;
- European language learning.

We recorded a number of interesting findings about the way students think about these European-related issues in civic society and how they engage with them. Chapters 4, 5, and 6 in this report feature descriptions and discussion of the results from the European ICCS student questionnaire concerned with attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors.

The European data relating to European citizenship and identity suggested that large majorities of students had a strong sense of European identity and that this sense was stronger for male students than for female students. In a number of countries, students from immigrant backgrounds expressed a weaker sense of European identity than did students from non-immigrant backgrounds.

There was some variation across countries with regard to students' sense of identity at the European and national levels. However, the data showed a consistent association between students' national and European identities. The more positively students felt about their country, the stronger, on average, was their sense of European identity.

Large majorities of students in EU countries expressed pride in the fact that their country was an EU member. However, students' sense of actually feeling part of the EU varied across these countries.

On average, students in the European ICCS countries held positive attitudes toward equal rights for other European citizens living in their countries, and toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants. Students who expressed positive attitudes toward equal rights for other European citizens living in their country were also likely to express positive attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants.

Most students supported the general right of free movement for citizens to live, work, and travel anywhere in Europe. However, when students were asked more specific questions about this topic, just over half of them expressed support for some restrictions in practice on the movement of citizens in Europe. Students in some countries were more supportive than students in other countries of such restrictions on movement. In many countries, students from non-immigrant backgrounds were more supportive of such restrictions than were those from immigrant backgrounds.

Majorities of students across Europe reported that they could communicate in at least one other European language, although there was considerable variation across countries in students' self-reported levels of language proficiency. There was a consistent association between students' attitudes toward learning European languages and their views on intercultural relations. Students who expressed positive attitudes toward learning other European languages were also likely to express positive views on equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants.

When we considered the data on European policies, institutions, and participation, we found that majorities of students agreed with the concept of increased policy harmonization and convergence in Europe. Agreement was strongest on convergence of policies concerning the environment, education, and relations with non-European countries, and the legal system. It was less strong with respect to convergence of economic policy, including having a common currency (the euro) in Europe. On average, over half of the students who participated in the European ICCS regional module supported enlarging the EU, but the levels of support varied across participating countries.

There was some variation among the European ICCS countries with regard to students' trust in civic and political institutions. On average, levels of trust or support for the European Commission and the European Parliament were similar to levels of trust in civic institutions at local, national, and international levels.

Students' interest in political and social issues was stronger with regard to domestic political and social issues than with regard to European and international politics. However, there was an association between students' interest in political issues within their country of residence and their interest in European and international political issues. Students' interest in European political issues was generally higher in those countries where there was a higher level of interest in local and national political issues.

Students reported that they informed themselves about European news from different sources, most frequently television. Majorities of students also reported that schools provided them with opportunities to learn about other European countries. However, relatively small proportions reported that they had participated in specific activities and groups related to Europe.

We noted an association between students' reported participation in active civic participation in the wider community and students' participation in activities or groups with a European focus. The more students reported involvement in active civic participation in the community, the more likely they were to report participation in activities or groups with a European focus.

Large majorities of students reported that they intended to vote as adults in local and national elections, but expectations to vote in European elections were much lower. This finding parallels differences between voter turnout in European elections and national elections.

Aspects of schools and education systems related to outcomes of civic and citizenship education in Europe

Research Question 5 was concerned with aspects of schools and education systems that might be related to knowledge about, and attitudes toward, civics and citizenship. It embraced general approaches to civics and citizenship as well as teaching practices and aspects of school organization.

ICCS collected data on these aspects of curricula, teaching, and organization at the national level through its national contexts survey. It collected these data at the school level through the teacher and school surveys, and at the student level through its student questionnaire. The European module collected data on aspects of students' learning context about Europe in schools and through active participation in communities. This approach gave us opportunity to review the various aspects related to the research question from different perspectives and at different levels of the education system. Chapters 2 and 7 in this report presented our descriptions and discussion of these aspects.

General approaches to civic and citizenship education in Europe

The national contexts survey, completed by national centers in the 24 ICCS countries that participated in the European module, made evident that all of these countries gave priority to civic and citizenship education in their education policies. However, it was also clear that there was considerable variation in how countries defined and approached civic and citizenship education. These approaches included providing a specific subject, integrating relevant content into other subjects, and including content as a cross-curricular theme. Eleven countries included a specific subject concerned with civic and citizenship education, while 22 countries provided civic and citizenship education by integrating it into several subjects.

According to the information collected from the national centers, curricula for civic and citizenship education covered a wide range of topics across the participating European ICCS countries. These topics encompassed knowledge and understanding of political institutions and concepts, such as human rights, as well as topics covering social and community cohesion, diversity, the environment, communications, and global society (including regional and international institutions).

Most of the teachers, as well as most of the school principals, who participated in the European ICCS regional module regarded the development of knowledge and skills as the most important aim of civic and citizenship education. They noted, in particular, "promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions," "promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities," and "promoting students' critical and independent thinking."

Only minorities of teachers and principals in the European ICCS countries saw "preparing students for future political participation" and "supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia" as important aims of civic and citizenship education. There was greater support among teachers than principals for "promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment" as an important aim of civic and citizenship education. However, the development of active participation was not among the objectives that teachers or school principals in any of the participating European ICCS countries frequently cited as important. When looking at the results from the teacher survey, we need to remember that in ICCS the teacher sample consisted of teachers teaching across the full range of subject areas.

Teaching practices

According to teachers in the European ICCS countries teaching at the target-grade level, students' school-based participation in civic-related activities in the local community was relatively widespread but focused primarily on sports events and cultural activities rather than on activities relating to European groups or links.

When teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education were asked about their confidence in teaching topics in this area, the results that emerged were similar to those in the CIVED study. Teachers felt most confident about teaching citizenship rights and responsibilities and human rights. They were less confident about teaching topics related to the economy and to the business and legal aspects of civics and citizenship. Teachers in the European ICCS countries also tended to feel confident teaching about the EU.

Aspects of students' personal and social background associated with civics and citizenship outcomes in Europe

Research Question 6 was concerned with the association between students' personal and social backgrounds (e.g., gender, socioeconomic status, language) and students' knowledge about, and attitudes toward, civic and citizenship education topics.

In nearly all the European ICCS countries, females achieved higher scores on the international civic knowledge test than males; the average difference was 22 scale points across all ICCS countries. However, males perceived that they had higher levels of EU knowledge than females did. Gender differences were also apparent with regard to a number of affective-behavioral measures concerning European-related civics and citizenship issues, most notably sense of European identity, attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens, and attitudes toward European language learning.

Analysis of the international ICCS data for all participating countries showed that a number of student background characteristics were associated with civic knowledge scores. There was an average difference of 37 scale points in favor of non-immigrant students. However, the difference in knowledge scores between immigrant and non-immigrant students varied across countries from fewer than 10 to almost 70 points. Differences related to home language were slightly larger. On average, across countries, students who reported not speaking the test language at home scored 46 score points lower on the civic knowledge scale than those who did speak the test language at home.

Differences associated with immigrant background were also apparent in a number of affective-behavioral measures concerning civics and citizenship issues related to Europe. In particular, these concerned students' sense of European identity and students' attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants, freedom of movement for European citizens, and their country of residence.

Possible implications for policy and practice

The outcomes of ICCS 2009 illustrate the fact that European education systems adopt different approaches to civic and citizenship education and that there are varying associations between antecedents, processes, and outcomes. Spelling out implications for policy and practice tends to be easier within a specific national context. However, it is possible to outline a number of general conclusions that draw upon findings from a European—as well as from an international—comparative perspective.

On the positive side, the ICCS results indicate that, on average, a majority of students in the participating European ICCS countries had knowledge of major civics and citizenship institutions and understood the interconnectedness of institutions and processes (Level 2 civic knowledge). However, the finding in all countries that substantial minorities of students had lower levels of civic knowledge indicates the need to improve civic and citizenship education. In addition, the considerable differences among countries suggest that, in some, enhancing civic learning would most likely have to be part of general improvements to the education system.

It is also positive that the results from the European module indicate that, on average, a majority of students in European ICCS countries demonstrated knowledge of basic facts about the EU and the euro and eurozone. However, in all countries, there was considerable variation in students' knowledge of more detailed information about the EU and EU laws and policies. There is still, therefore, a need to improve, within the context of civic and citizenship education, teaching about the EU.

Another observation is that the majority of students in the European ICCS countries expressed a strong sense of European identity, pride that their country is a member of the EU, and support for increased European harmonization and convergence of policies. About half of the students supported EU expansion. However, there was considerable variation across and within countries in students' attitudes toward issues related to European integration.

It is also noteworthy that the majority of students in the European ICCS countries expressed positive attitudes toward intercultural relations and European language learning, and that they gave strong support for equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants as well as for freedom of movement of citizens within Europe. However, in all countries there were substantial minorities of students who held negative attitudes about equal opportunities and freedom of movement, as well as about European language learning.

In terms of "active citizenship" among the lower-secondary students in the European ICCS countries, it is important to emphasize the relatively high levels of student trust in many civic institutions. Furthermore, large majorities of students said they intended to vote, once they reached adulthood, in elections. However, active citizenship with a European focus was generally low, with only minorities of students reporting involvement in activities and groups relating to Europe or other civic organizations in the wider community.

Students' interest in European political issues and students' expectations to vote in European elections were much lower than their interest in issues and their voting expectations relative to the local and national levels. Students' levels of trust in European civic institutions were similar to their levels of trust in local, national, and international civic institutions. There is a need for further examination of such attitudes and, in particular, the nature of the relationship between students' attitudes and behaviors toward European-related civics and citizenship issues and institutions and those at the local or national level. In the context of what schools can do to prepare students for more active citizenship and for their future roles as citizens, attention should also be drawn to another finding. According to majorities of school teachers and principals in the European ICCS countries, the most important focus of civic learning

should primarily be placed on the development of knowledge and skills, and not so much on participatory skills or strategies to fight against racism and xenophobia. In addition, the European ICCS data show that school-based student participation in the wider community was largely focused on sports and cultural events, a finding which indicates that there is room for increasing the focus of civic and citizenship learning so that it encompasses broader citizenship issues and community participation.

Outlook for future directions of research in Europe

This report on findings from ICCS provides an overview of a wide range of results based on the rich data collected in ICCS, including that from the European module. As was the case with the IEA CIVED study in 1999, we expect that this report and the other reports in the ICCS publication series will be followed by a large number of secondary research analyses. We recommend that subsequent analyses investigate in greater detail the associations between civic knowledge and attitudes toward aspects of civics and citizenship, including those that refer to the European context. We also strongly recommend focusing on the associations between these outcomes and approaches to civic and citizenship education and characteristics of students and their societies. Interaction between the country-level context and within-country associations between context factors and outcome variables are, to our minds, of particular interest.

By building on previous studies in the area of civic and citizenship education, ICCS has provided a new baseline for future research on this area of educational provision. The study's approach of collecting data at several levels and from different perspectives will enable secondary analysts to explore a rich international database. The implementation of additional data collection focused on region-specific aspects in Europe, as well as in Asia and Latin America, is another asset of the study. This design feature will allow researchers to explore the ICCS database for European countries and address further region-specific aspects of civic and citizenship education.

The complex design of the study and the wide coverage of its cognitive test instrument also offer opportunities for future international surveys in this area, notably those directed at collecting data on cognitive and affective-behavioral outcomes and then comparing these results with those from the current study.

Finally, any future survey pertaining to civic and citizenship education will be able to build on the instruments, experience, and results from ICCS 2009 (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010a, 2010b) as well as CIVED 1999 (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). The resources that allowed the inclusion and analysis of the European ICCS regional module have considerably broadened the scope and relevance of these studies.

Appendices

APPENDIX A: INSTRUMENT DESIGN, SAMPLES, AND PARTICIPATION RATES

Table A.1: Coverage of ICCS 2009 European target population

Country	International Target Population		Exclusions from Target Population		
	Coverage	Notes on coverage	School-level exclusions	Within-sample exclusions	Overall exclusions
Austria	100%		2.7%	0.2%	2.9%
Belgium (Flemish)	100%		2.7%	0.4%	3.1%
Bulgaria	100%		1.6%	0.1%	1.7%
Cyprus	100%		0.0%	0.5%	0.5%
Czech Republic	100%		4.6%	0.1%	4.7%
Denmark	100%		1.9%	1.6%	3.6%
England	100%		2.0%	2.3%	4.3%
Estonia	100%		3.8%	0.0%	3.8%
Finland	100%		2.7%	1.1%	3.8%
Greece	100%		0.6%	1.4%	2.0%
Ireland	100%		0.1%	1.2%	1.2%
Italy	100%		0.1%	4.4%	4.5%
Latvia	100%		5.0%	0.7%	5.7%
Liechtenstein	100%		0.0%	2.7%	2.7%
Lithuania	100%		1.7%	3.0%	4.7%
Luxembourg	100%		1.1%	0.1%	1.2%
Malta	100%		1.3%	2.4%	3.7%
Netherlands	100%		4.6%	3.4%	8.0%
Poland	100%		2.3%	1.2%	3.5%
Slovak Republic	94%	Students taught in Slovak	0.0%	2.5%	2.5%
Slovenia	100%		1.8%	3.0%	4.7%
Spain	100%		0.4%	2.2%	2.6%
Sweden	100%		2.2%	2.6%	4.8%
Switzerland	100%		0.8%	1.2%	2.0%

Note:
Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Table A.2: ICCS test booklet design

	Position		
Booklet	A	B	C
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

Note:
CIVED link cluster shaded in grey.

Table A.3: Participation rates and sample sizes for student survey

Country	School Participation Rate (in %)			Total Number of Schools that Participated in Student Survey	Student Participation Rate (weighted) in %	Total number of Students Assessed	Overall Participation Rate (in %)	
	Before replacement (weighted)	After replacement (weighted)	After replacement (unweighted)				Before replacement (weighted)	After replacement (weighted)
Austria	82.0	90.1	90.0	135	92.4	3385	75.8	83.2
Belgium (Flemish)	74.4	94.8	95.0	151	96.7	2968	71.9	91.7
Bulgaria	99.1	100.0	100.0	158	95.4	3257	94.5	95.4
Cyprus	100.0	100.0	100.0	68	93.4	3194	93.4	93.4
Czech Republic	82.8	96.0	96.0	144	88.4	4630	73.2	84.9
Denmark	53.1	84.6	84.6	193	91.7	4508	48.7	77.6
England	51.6	78.5	78.5	124	93.8	2916	48.4	73.6
Estonia	96.8	99.3	99.3	140	89.9	2743	87.0	89.3
Finland	84.5	95.1	95.1	176	94.5	3307	79.8	89.9
Greece	91.1	98.7	98.7	153	96.1	3153	87.5	94.9
Ireland	81.8	87.4	87.8	144	91.6	3355	74.9	80.1
Italy	93.2	100.0	100.0	172	96.6	3366	90.0	96.6
Latvia	85.8	93.4	93.8	150	90.9	2761	78.0	84.9
Liechtenstein	100.0	100.0	100.0	9	97.8	357	97.8	97.8
Lithuania	99.4	99.9	99.5	199	94.1	3902	93.5	94.0
Luxembourg*	100.0	100.0	100.0	31	97.2	4852	96.5	96.5
Malta	100.0	100.0	100.0	55	93.9	2143	93.9	93.9
Netherlands	36.6	47.7	47.2	67	95.4	1964	35.0	45.5
Poland	99.3	100.0	100.0	150	91.1	3249	90.4	91.1
Slovak Republic	87.1	97.8	97.9	138	96.3	2970	83.9	94.1
Slovenia	92.5	95.9	95.9	163	93.9	3070	86.9	90.1
Spain	97.1	98.7	98.7	148	91.9	3309	89.2	90.7
Sweden	94.7	99.0	98.2	166	93.9	3464	89.0	93.0
Switzerland	60.2	82.1	83.4	156	95.9	2924	57.7	78.7

Note:
* The weighted class participation rate in Luxembourg is 99.3 percent.

Table A.4: Participation rates and sample sizes for teacher survey

Country	School Participation Rate (in %)			Total Number of Schools that Participated in Teacher Survey	Teacher Participation Rate (weighted) in %	Total number of Teachers Assessed	Overall Participation Rate (in %)	
	Before replacement (weighted)	After replacement (weighted)	After replacement (unweighted)				Before replacement (weighted)	After replacement (weighted)
Austria	44.5	49.2	50.0	75	73.8	999	32.8	36.3
Belgium (Flemish)	65.5	84.9	84.9	135	81.2	1630	53.2	68.9
Bulgaria	98.9	100.0	100.0	158	99.2	1850	98.2	99.2
Cyprus	97.1	97.1	97.1	66	91.0	906	88.3	88.3
Czech Republic	84.1	98.0	98.0	147	94.7	1599	79.6	92.8
Denmark	24.8	49.6	49.6	113	83.8	928	20.8	41.5
England	49.7	74.7	74.7	118	89.3	1505	44.4	66.7
Estonia	91.4	94.6	94.3	133	93.9	1863	85.8	88.8
Finland	84.6	94.0	94.1	174	90.2	2295	76.3	84.8
Greece	n.a.	n.a.	63.2	98	n.a.	1271	n.a.	n.a.
Ireland	79.0	84.6	83.5	137	87.0	1861	68.8	73.6
Italy	90.6	97.7	97.7	168	97.8	3023	88.6	95.6
Latvia	83.9	90.0	91.3	146	92.5	2077	77.5	83.2
Liechtenstein	100.0	100.0	100.0	9	92.2	115	92.2	92.2
Lithuania	98.7	99.8	99.5	199	93.3	2774	92.1	93.1
Luxembourg	77.4	77.4	77.4	24	79.9	290	61.8	61.8
Malta	100.0	100.0	100.0	55	98.9	900	98.9	98.9
Netherlands	n.a.	n.a.	7.2	22	n.a.	236	n.a.	n.a.
Poland	99.5	100.0	100.0	150	96.2	2081	95.8	96.2
Slovak Republic	87.0	98.5	98.6	139	99.3	1984	86.4	97.8
Slovenia	92.9	96.5	96.5	164	91.7	2755	85.2	88.4
Spain	98.0	98.8	98.7	148	96.7	2017	94.7	95.5
Sweden	89.3	92.5	92.3	156	82.7	1942	73.9	76.4
Switzerland	56.4	75.3	77.0	144	85.2	1571	48.0	64.2

APPENDIX B: PERCENTILES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR CIVIC KNOWLEDGE

Table B.1: Percentiles of civic knowledge

Country	5th Percentile	25th Percentile	75th Percentile	95th Percentile
Austria	336 (8.8)	435 (6.9)	574 (4.6)	657 (5.4)
Belgium (Flemish) †	374 (7.0)	459 (8.1)	572 (6.1)	640 (5.5)
Bulgaria	296 (7.5)	389 (8.6)	544 (8.2)	632 (7.4)
Cyprus	304 (5.7)	386 (3.9)	518 (3.8)	607 (6.5)
Czech Republic †	370 (4.9)	447 (3.7)	571 (4.9)	656 (5.2)
Denmark †	410 (7.1)	509 (6.0)	645 (5.6)	736 (5.9)
England ‡	344 (8.3)	447 (6.6)	592 (6.3)	690 (10.6)
Estonia	371 (9.2)	463 (6.2)	590 (6.4)	671 (8.1)
Finland	433 (7.4)	520 (4.5)	635 (4.7)	710 (4.2)
Greece	317 (6.7)	404 (8.4)	548 (6.5)	635 (7.7)
Ireland	361 (8.2)	461 (8.4)	607 (6.6)	695 (6.6)
Italy	380 (8.5)	472 (6.0)	593 (4.3)	669 (6.1)
Latvia	349 (6.2)	425 (6.3)	538 (5.2)	617 (7.8)
Liechtenstein	380 (20.9)	477 (15.3)	595 (5.6)	682 (9.2)
Lithuania	373 (5.8)	450 (4.8)	561 (4.0)	635 (5.9)
Luxembourg	315 (5.2)	405 (4.2)	542 (3.2)	630 (4.6)
Malta	326 (9.4)	423 (8.5)	560 (6.5)	635 (8.0)
Poland	371 (6.9)	469 (7.8)	606 (7.1)	695 (6.4)
Slovak Republic[1]	382 (6.4)	466 (5.3)	593 (6.6)	673 (8.0)
Slovenia	372 (5.4)	455 (5.0)	577 (5.0)	660 (6.0)
Spain	358 (8.5)	447 (6.9)	566 (6.4)	639 (5.6)
Sweden	374 (5.5)	468 (4.6)	605 (6.0)	701 (6.5)
Switzerland †	391 (7.5)	476 (5.3)	589 (5.2)	665 (6.4)
Country not meeting sampling requirements				
Netherlands	342 (13.8)	431 (10.4)	559 (8.5)	635 (8.7)

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.

[1] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

APPENDIX C: THE SCALING OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

ICCS used sets of student, teacher, and school questionnaire items to measure constructs relevant in the field of civic and citizenship education. Usually, sets of Likert-type items with four categories (e.g., "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," and "strongly disagree") were used to obtain this information, but at times two-point or two-point rating scales were chosen (e.g., "Yes" and "No"). The items were then recoded so that the higher scale scores reflected more positive attitudes or higher frequencies.

The Rasch Partial Credit Model (Masters & Wright, 1997) was used for scaling, and the resulting weighted likelihood estimates (Warm, 1989) were transformed into a metric with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted ICCS national samples that satisfied guidelines for sample participation. Details on scaling procedures will be provided in the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

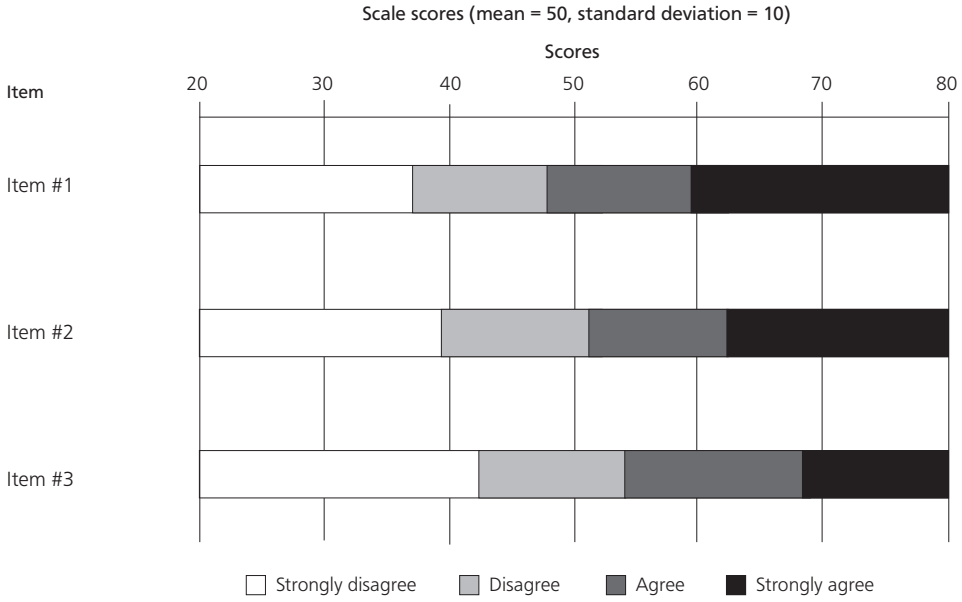
The resulting ICCS scale scores can be interpreted with regard to the average across countries participating in ICCS, but they do not reveal the extent to which students endorsed the items used for measurement. However, use of the Rasch Partial Credit Model allows for mapping scale scores to item responses. Thus, it is possible for each scale score to predict the most likely item response for a respondent. (For an application of these properties in the IEA CIVED survey, see Schulz, 2004.)

Appendix D provides item-by-score maps, which predict the minimum coded score (e.g., 0 = "strongly disagree," 1 = "disagree," 2 = "agree," and 3 = "strongly agree") a respondent would obtain on a Likert-type item. For example, for students with a certain scale score, one could predict that these students would have a 50 percent probability of agreeing (or strongly agreeing) with a particular item (see example item-by-score map in Figure D.1, Appendix D). For each item, it is possible to determine Thurstonian thresholds, the points at which a minimum item score becomes more likely than any lower score and which determine the boundaries between item categories on the item-by-score map.
This information can also be summarized by calculating the average thresholds across all items in a scale. For four-point Likert-type scales, this was usually done for the second threshold, making it possible to predict how likely it would be for a respondent with a certain scale score to have (on average across items) responses in the two lower or upper categories. Use of this approach in the case of items measuring agreement made it possible to distinguish between scale scores with which respondents were most likely to agree or disagree with the average item used for scaling.

National average scale scores are depicted as boxes that indicate their mean values plus/minus sampling error in graphical displays (e.g., Table 3.7 in the main body of the text) that have two underlying colors. If national average scores are located in the area in light blue, then, on average across items, students' responses would be in the lower item categories ("disagree or strongly disagree," "not at all or not very interested," "never or rarely"). If these scores are found in the darker blue area, then students' average item responses would be in the upper item response categories ("agree or strongly agree," "quite or very interested," "sometimes or often").

APPENDIX D: ITEM-BY-SCORE MAPS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE SCALE

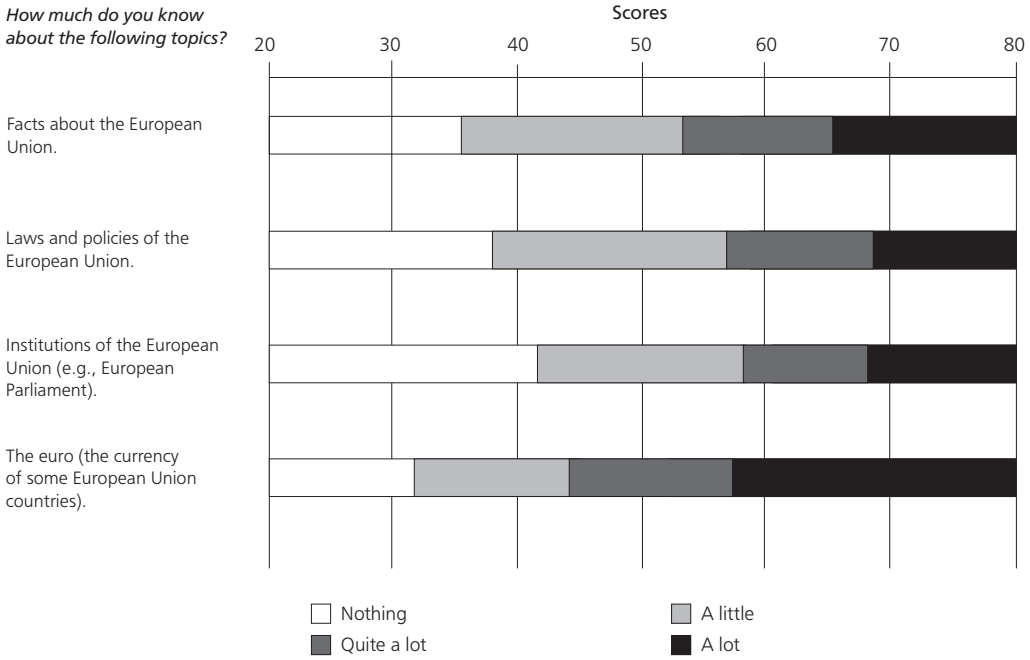
Figure D.1: Example of questionnaire item-by-score map



Example of how to interpret the item-by-score map

#1:	A respondent with score 30 has more than a 50 percent probability of strongly disagreeing with all three items
#2:	A respondent with score 40 has more than a 50 percent probability of **not** strongly disagreeing with Items 1 and 2 but of strongly disagreeing with Item 3
#3:	A respondent with score 50 has more than a 50 percent probability of agreeing with Item 1 and of disagreeing with Items 2 and 3
#4:	A respondent with score 60 has more than a 50 percent probability of strongly agreeing with Item 1 and of at least agreeing with Items 2 and 3
#5:	A respondent with score 70 has more than a 50 percent probability of strongly agreeing with Items 1, 2, and 3

Figure 3.4: Item-by-score map for students' self-reported knowledge about the European Union

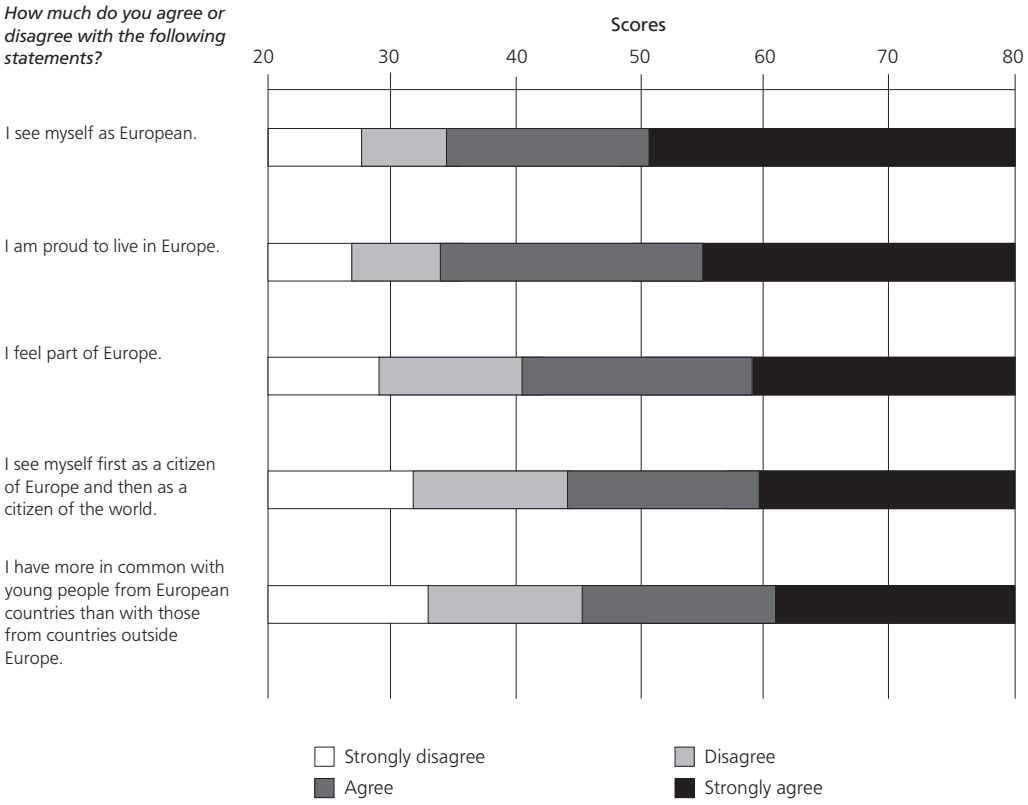


European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
Facts about the European Union.	12	49	30	9	100
Laws and policies of the European Union.	17	54	24	5	100
Institutions of the European Union (e.g., European Parliament).	24	51	19	6	100
The euro (the currency of some European Union countries).	6	24	44	26	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

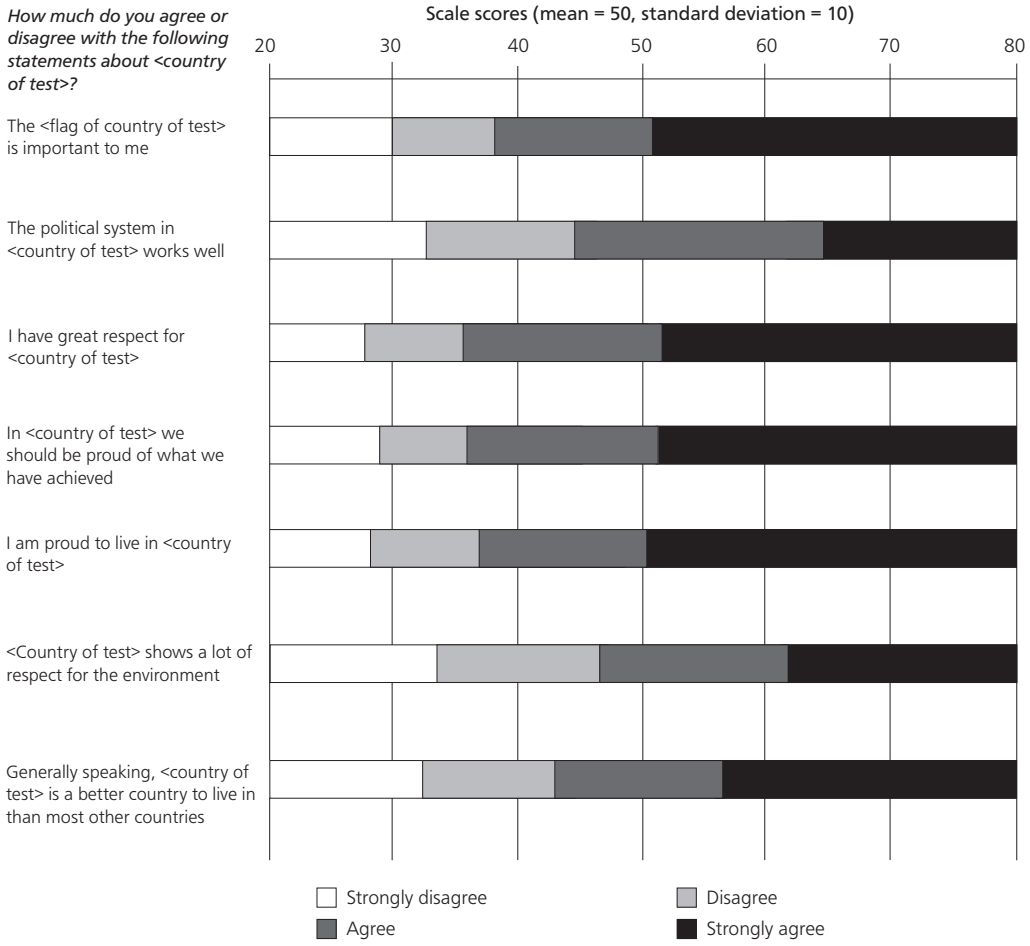
Figure 4.1: Item-by-score map for students' sense of European identity



European Item Frequencies (row percentages)					Sum
I see myself as European.	2	7	44	47	100
I am proud to live in Europe.	2	8	57	34	100
I feel part of Europe.	3	18	54	25	100
I see myself first as a citizen of Europe and then as a citizen of the world.	6	25	47	22	100
I have more in common with young people from European countries than with those from countries outside Europe.	7	28	46	19	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 4.2: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward their country

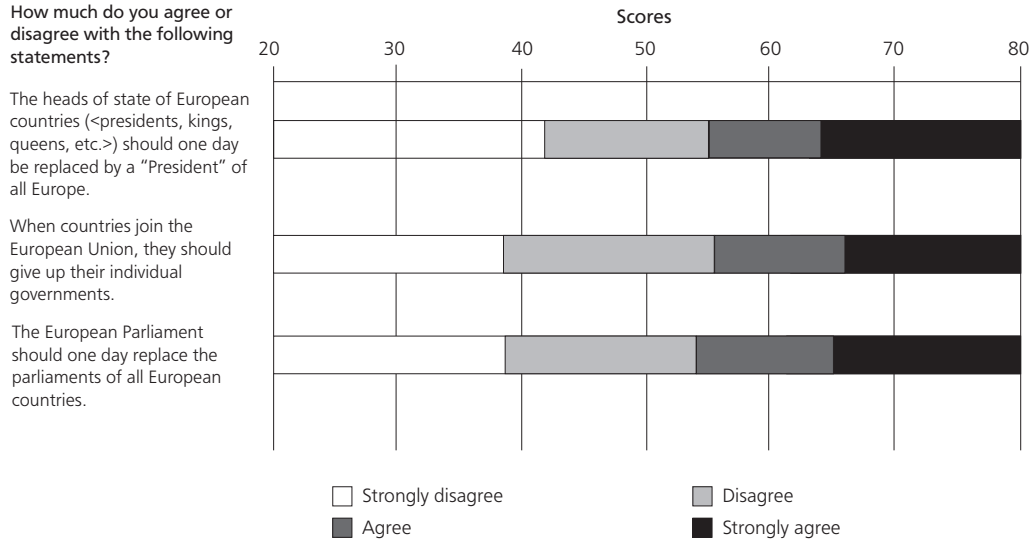


European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
The <flag of country of test> is important to me	5	13	40	43	100
The political system in <country of test> works well	9	29	51	11	100
I have great respect for <country of test>	3	10	48	40	100
In <country of test> we should be proud of what we have achieved	3	11	45	41	100
I am proud to live in <country of test>	3	12	40	44	100
<Country of test> shows a lot of respect for the environment	10	35	42	14	100
Generally speaking, <country of test> is a better country to live in than most other countries	8	24	40	28	100

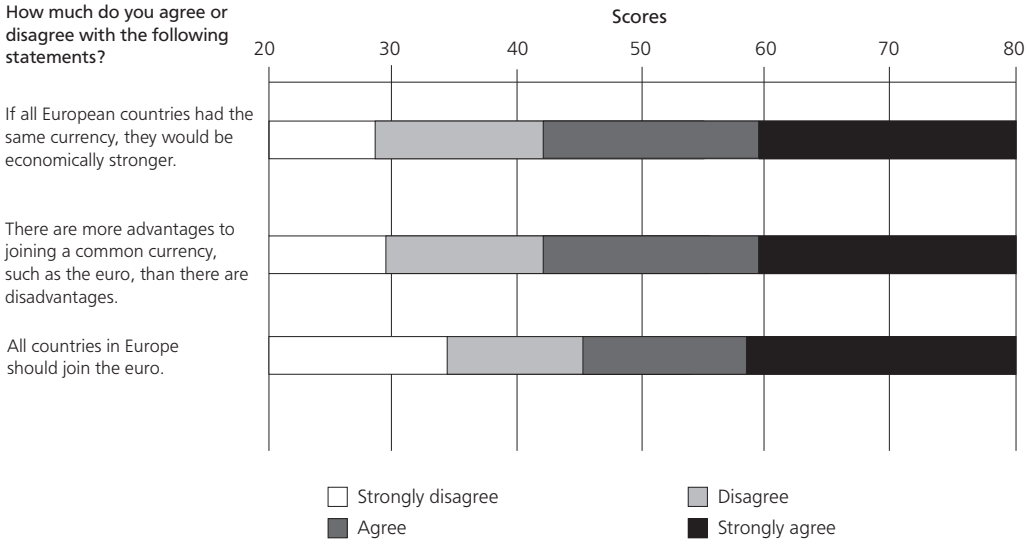
Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

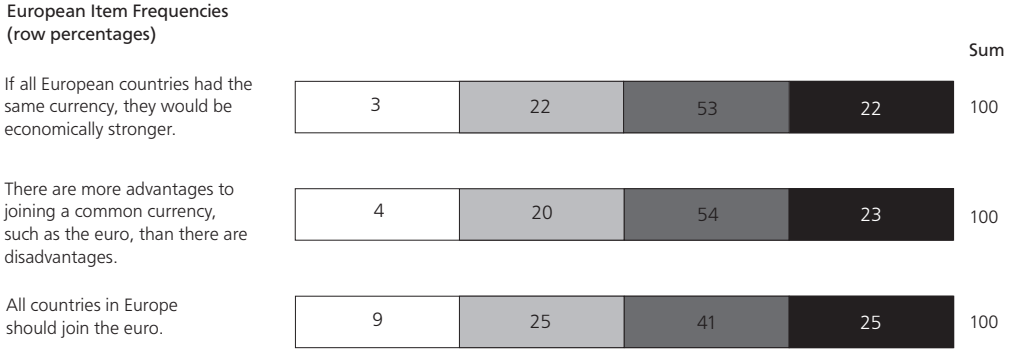
Figure 4.3: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward common policies in Europe



Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

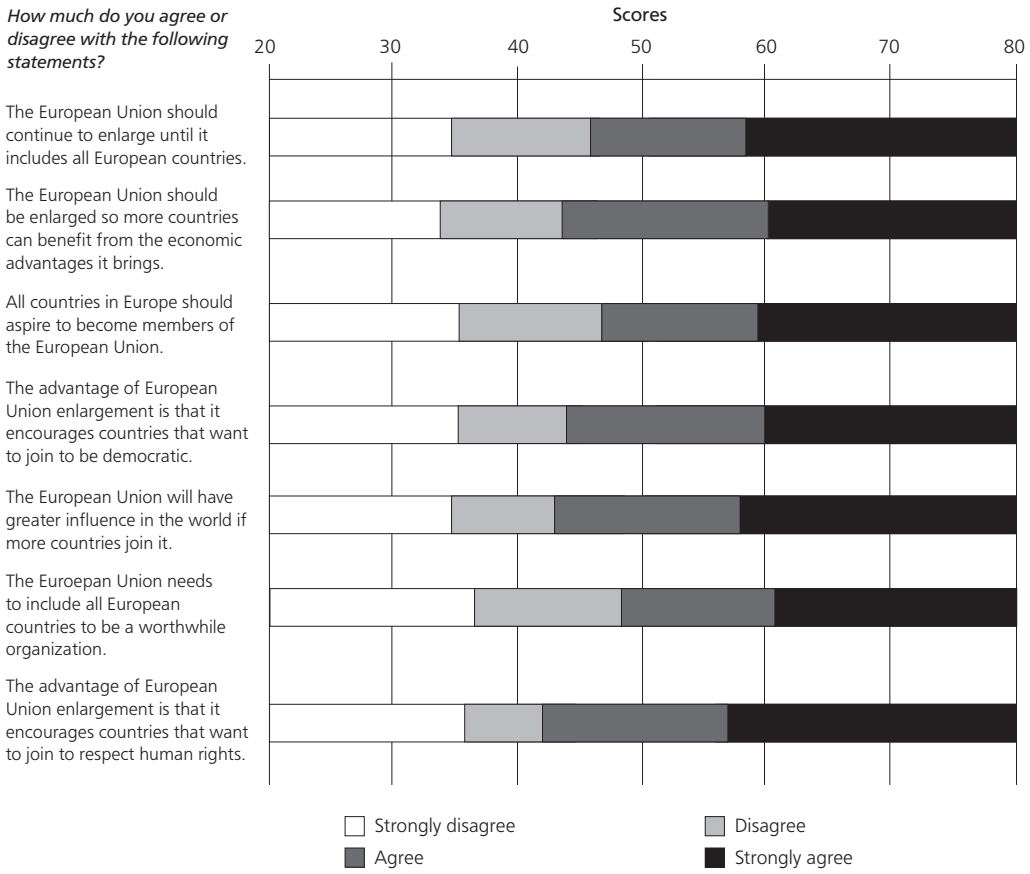
Figure 4.4: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward common European currency





Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 4.5: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward further expansion of the European Union

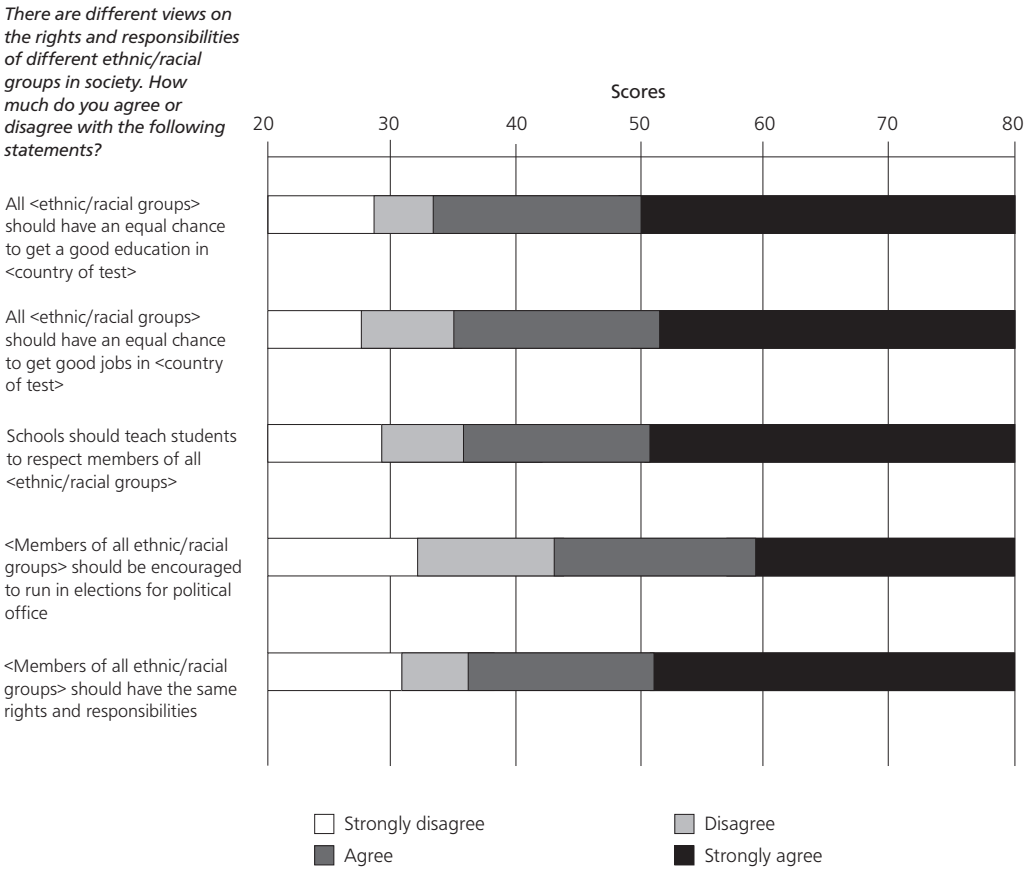


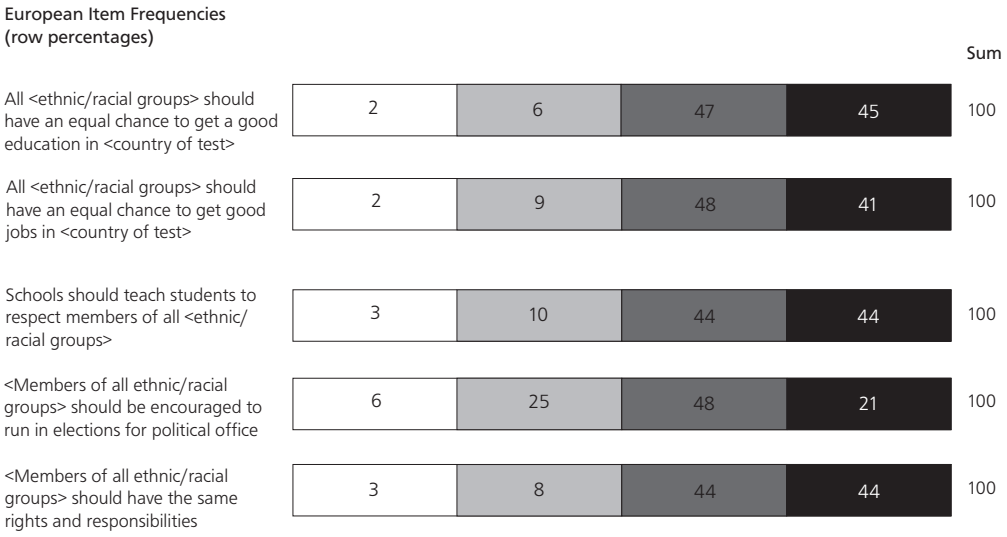
European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
The European Union should continue to enlarge until it includes all European countries.	4	25	51	20	100
The European Union should be enlarged so more countries can benefit from the economic advantages it brings.	3	19	62	17	100
All countries in Europe should aspire to become members of the European Union.	5	29	49	17	100
The advantage of European Union enlargement is that it encourages countries that want to join to be democratic.	4	19	60	17	100
The European Union will have greater influence in the world if more countries join it.	3	16	59	22	100
The Euroepan Union needs to include all European countries to be a worthwhile organization.	6	36	44	14	100
The advantage of European Union enlargement is that it encourages countries that want to join to respect human rights.	3	12	60	25	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

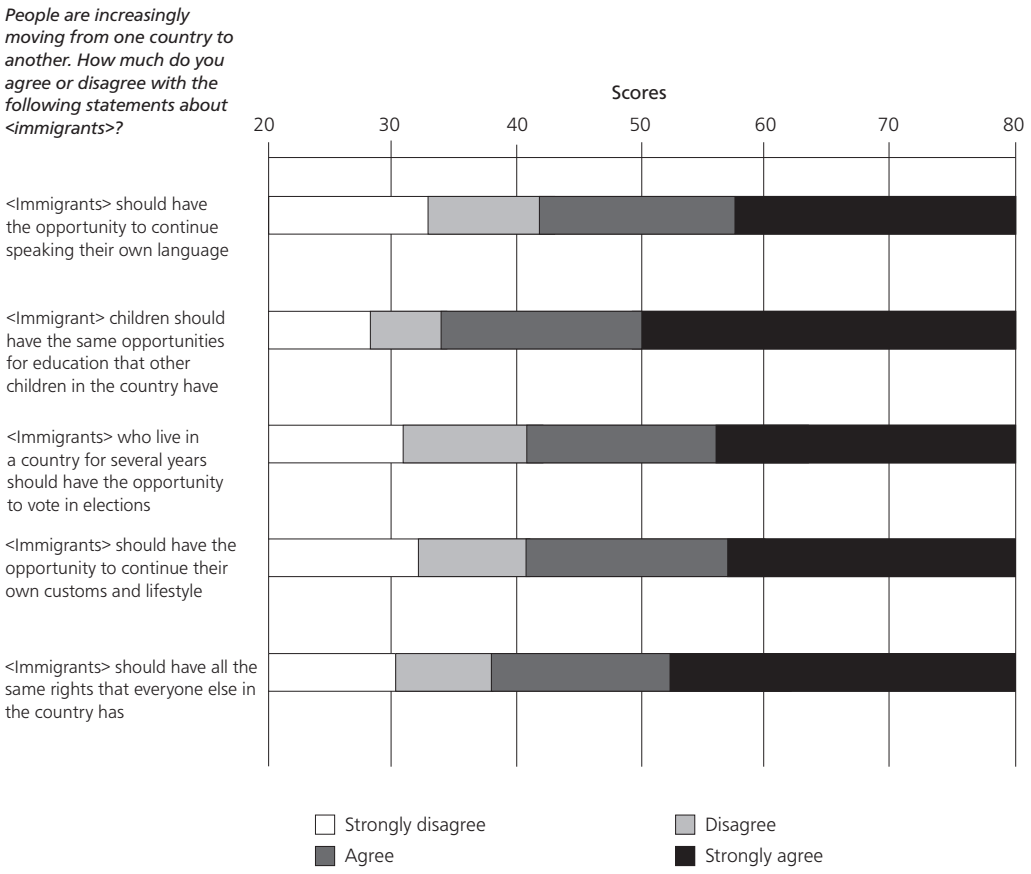
Figure 5.1: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethni or racial groups

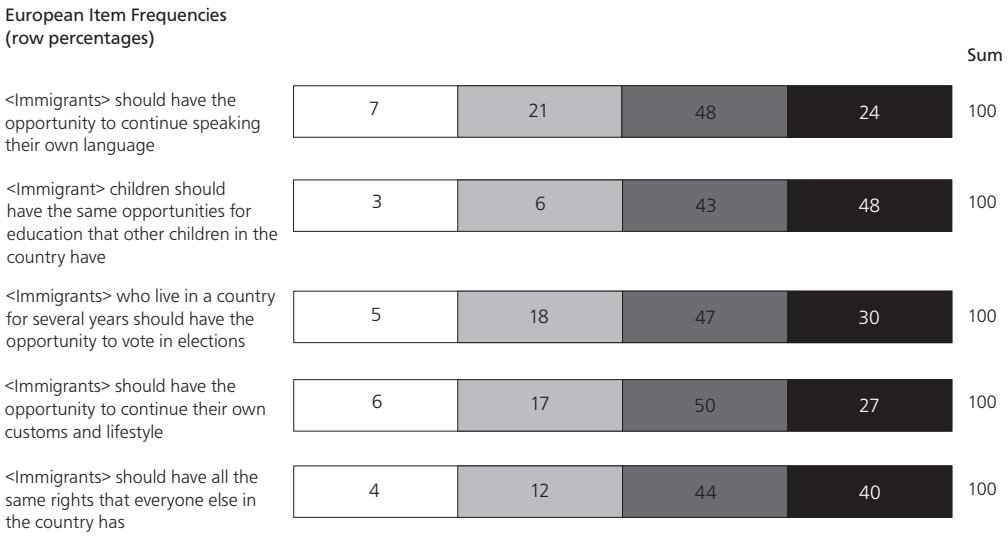




Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

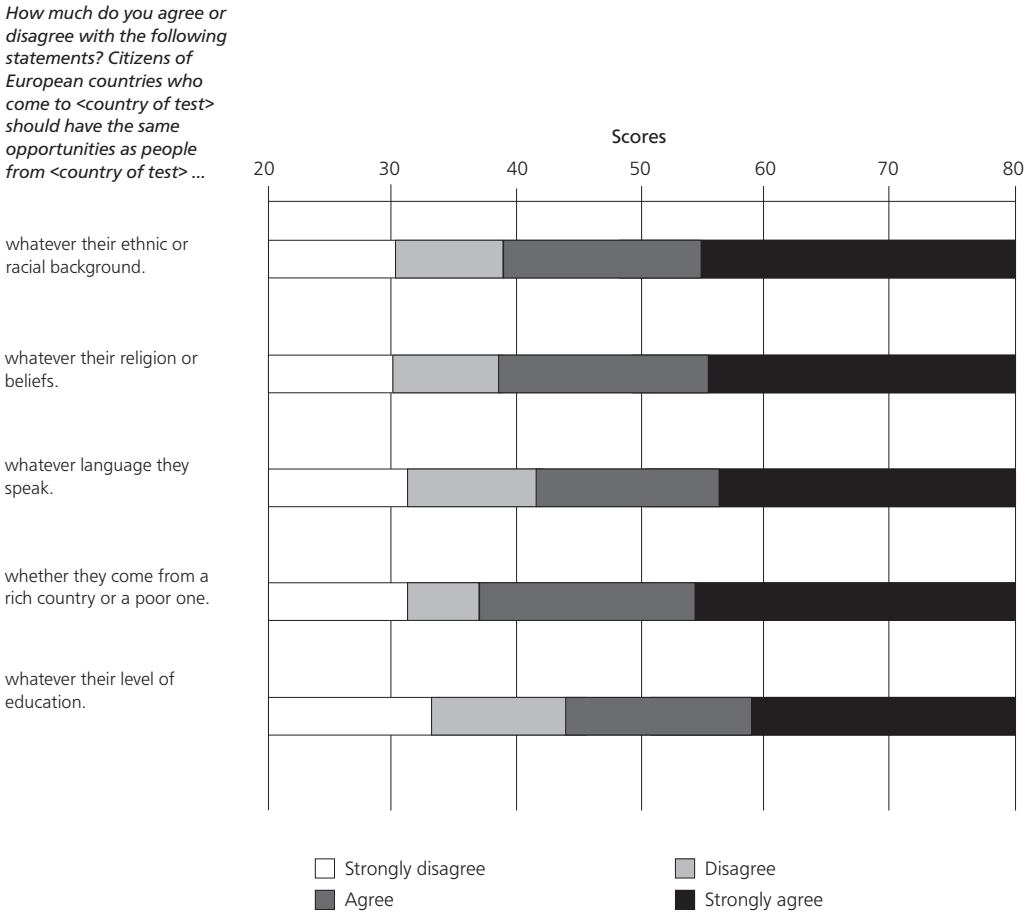
Figure 5.2: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants





Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 5.3: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward equal opportunities for other European citizens

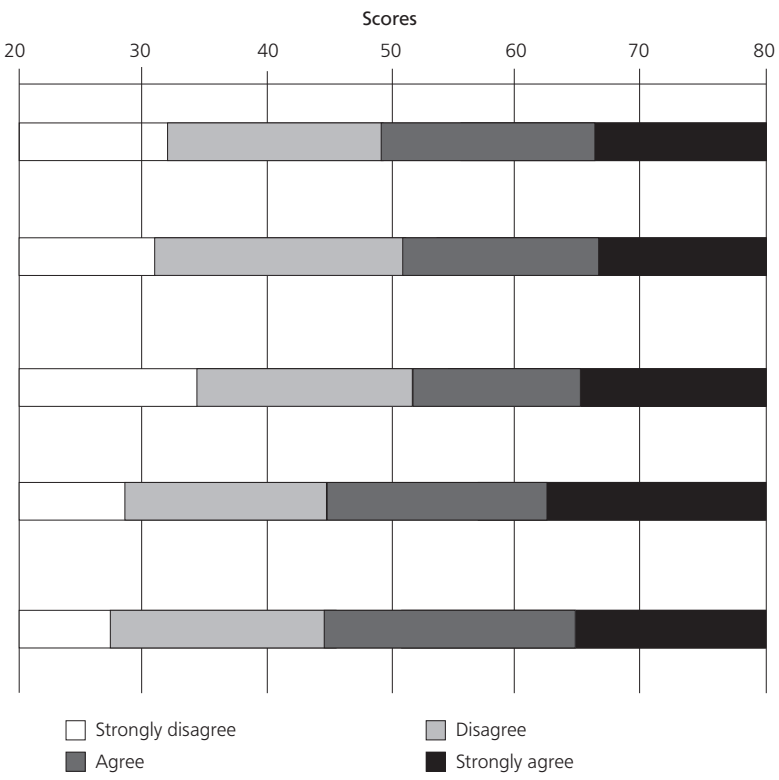


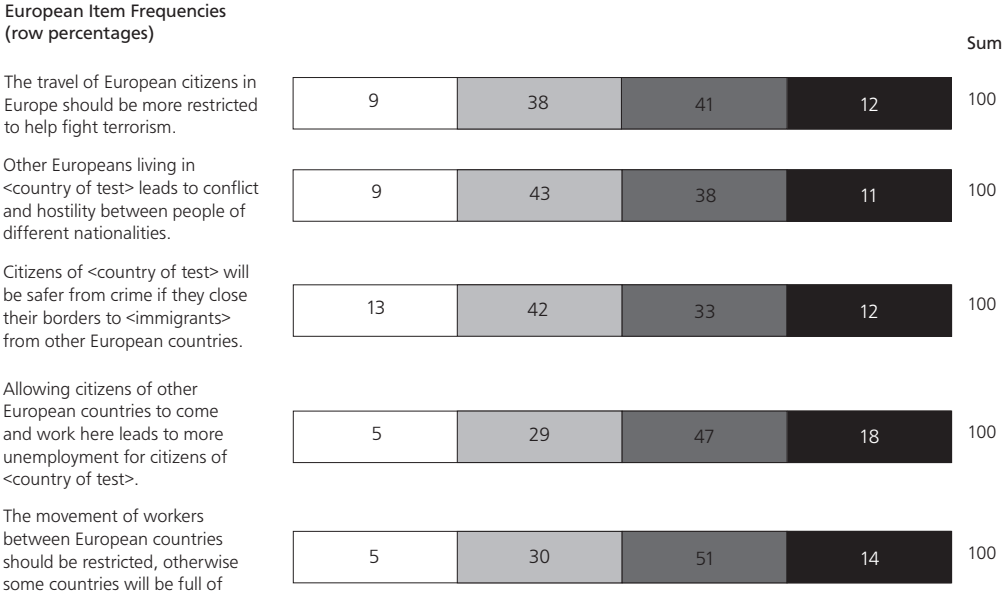
European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
whatever their ethnic or racial background.	3	12	50	34	100
whatever their religion or beliefs.	3	12	53	32	100
whatever language they speak.	4	19	49	29	100
whether they come from a rich country or a poor one.	3	8	53	36	100
whatever their level of education.	6	25	46	24	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

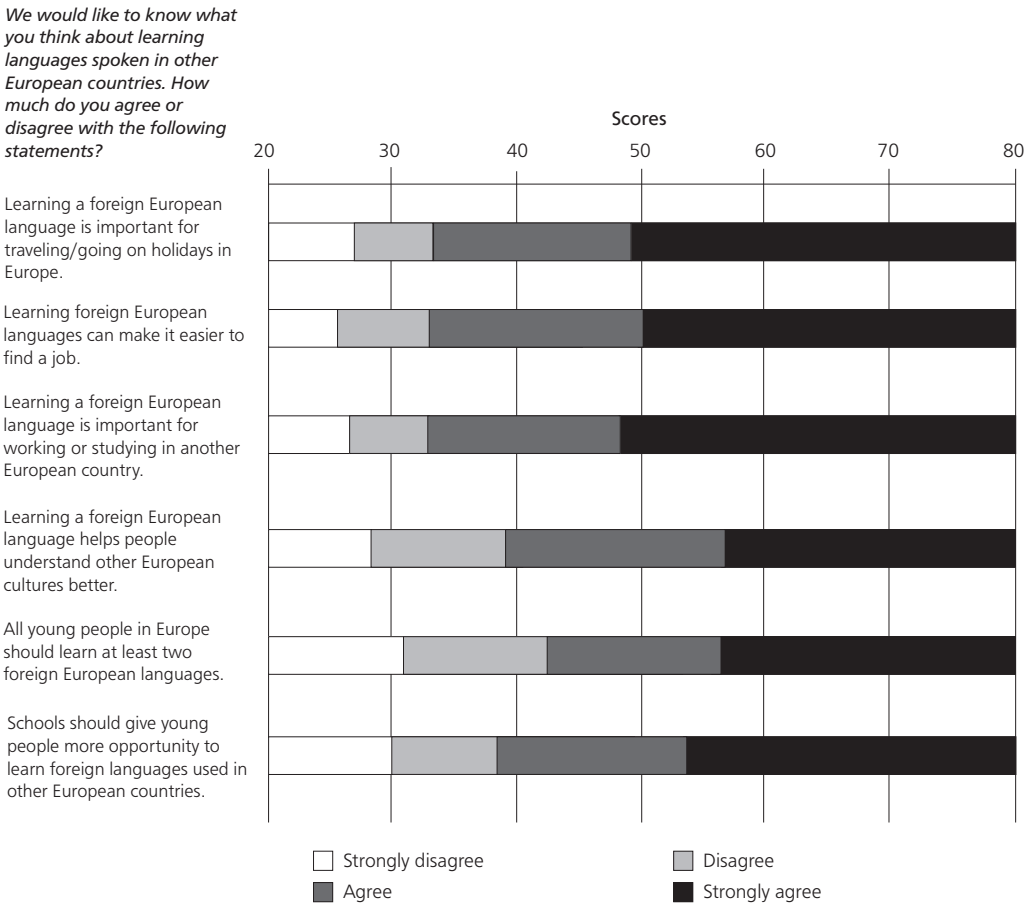
Figure 5.4 Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward restricting migration within Europe





Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 5.5: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward European language learning

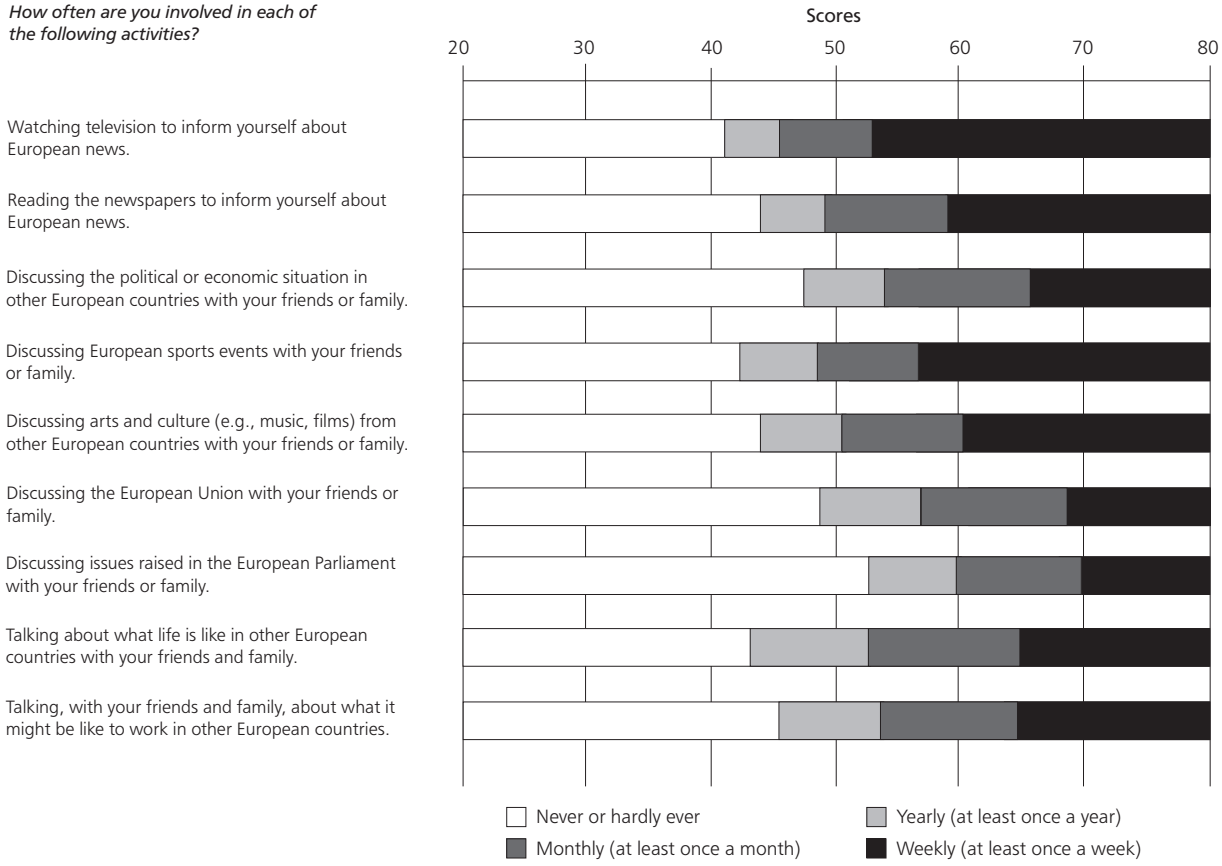


European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
Learning a foreign European language is important for traveling/going on holidays in Europe.	2	5	41	52	100
Learning foreign European languages can make it easier to find a job.	1	6	43	50	100
Learning a foreign European language is important for working or studying in another European country.	2	5	39	55	100
Learning a foreign European language helps people understand other European cultures better.	3	15	52	31	100
All young people in Europe should learn at least two foreign European languages.	5	22	44	30	100
Schools should give young people more opportunity to learn foreign languages used in other European countries.	4	13	46	38	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 6.1: Item-by-score map for students' participation in communication about Europe

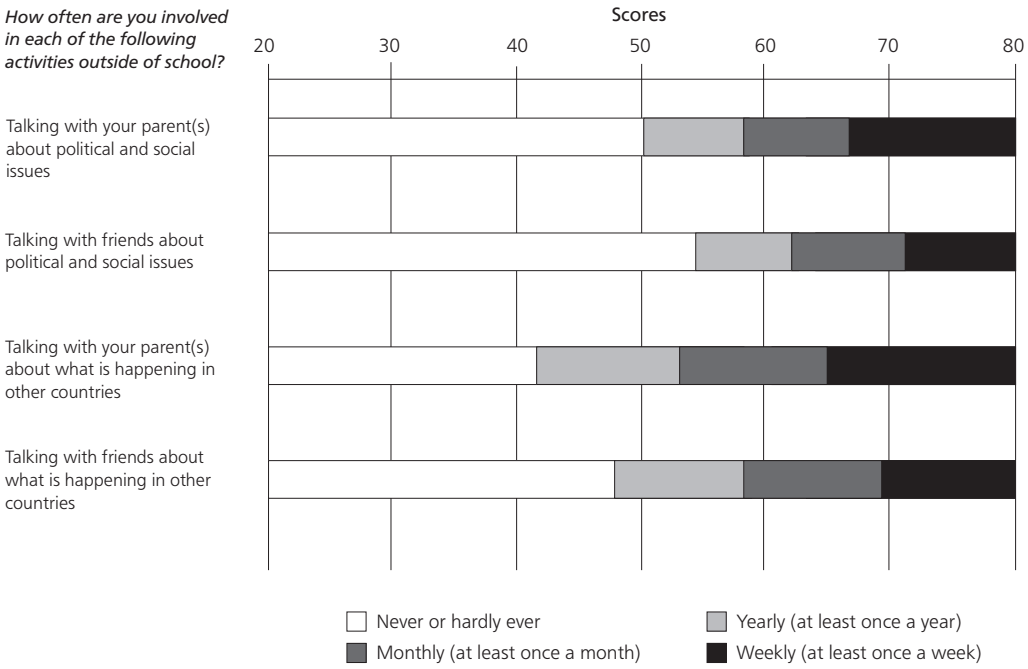


European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
Watching television to inform yourself about European news.	21	14	26	39	100
Reading the newspapers to inform yourself about European news.	29	18	29	24	100
Discussing the political or economic situation in other European countries with your friends or family.	40	22	27	12	100
Discussing European sports events with your friends or family.	24	20	27	29	100
Discussing arts and culture (e.g., music, films) from other European countries with your friends or family.	29	23	28	20	100
Discussing the European Union with your friends or family.	44	27	21	8	100
Discussing issues raised in the European Parliament with your friends or family.	56	23	15	6	100
Talking about what life is like in other European countries with your friends and family.	29	29	29	13	100
Talking, with your friends and family, about what it might be like to work in other European countries.	34	27	26	13	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 6.2: Item-by-score map for students' discussion of political and social issues outside of school

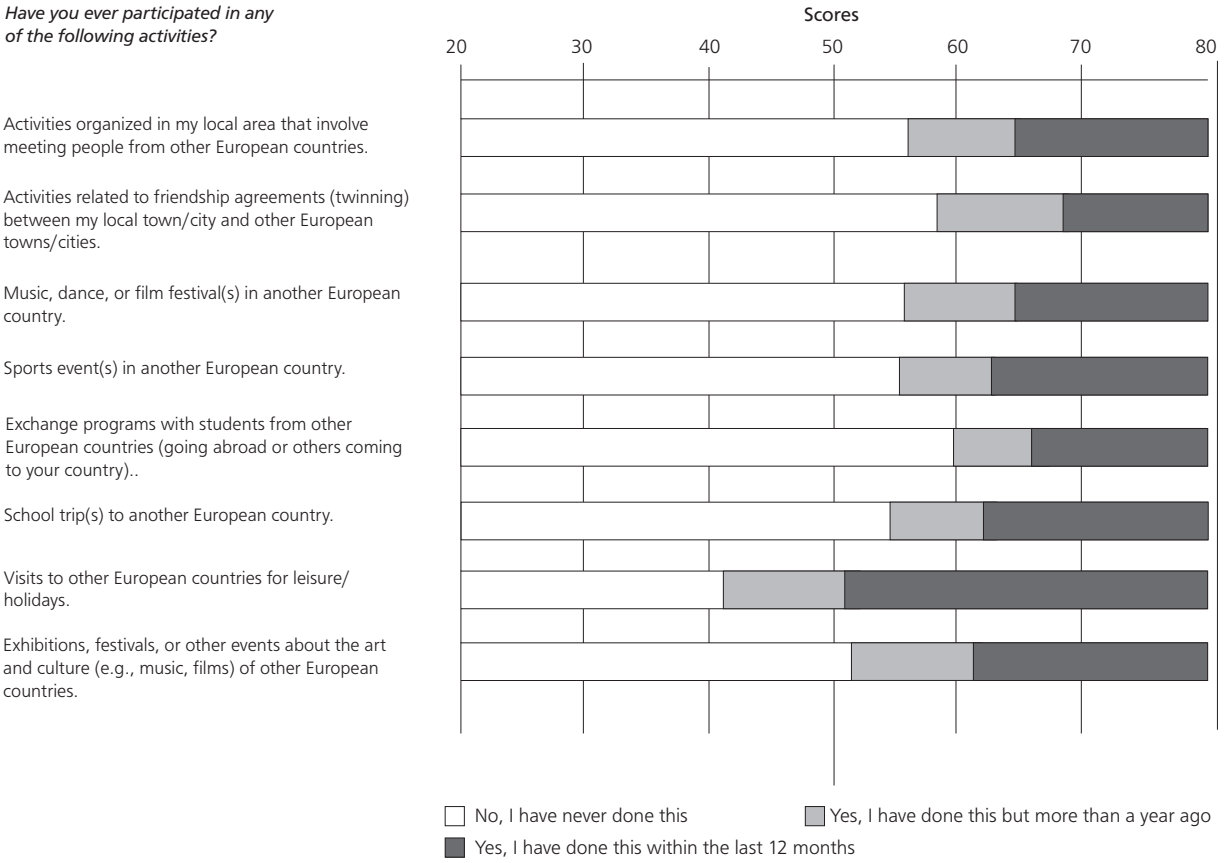


European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
Talking with your parent(s) about political and social issues	52	26	15	8	100
Talking with friends about political and social issues	65	22	9	3	100
Talking with your parent(s) about what is happening in other countries	27	35	28	10	100
Talking with friends about what is happening in other countries	43	34	18	5	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 6.3: Item-by-score map for students' participation in activities or groups at the European level

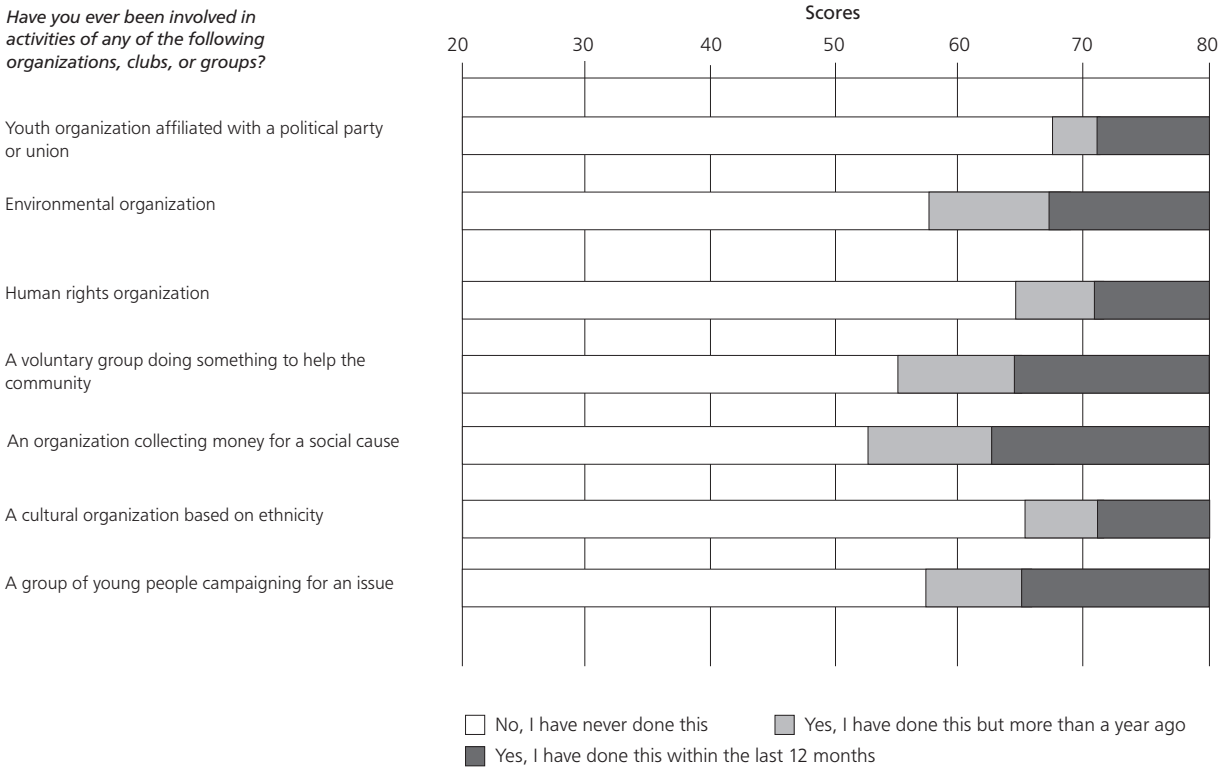


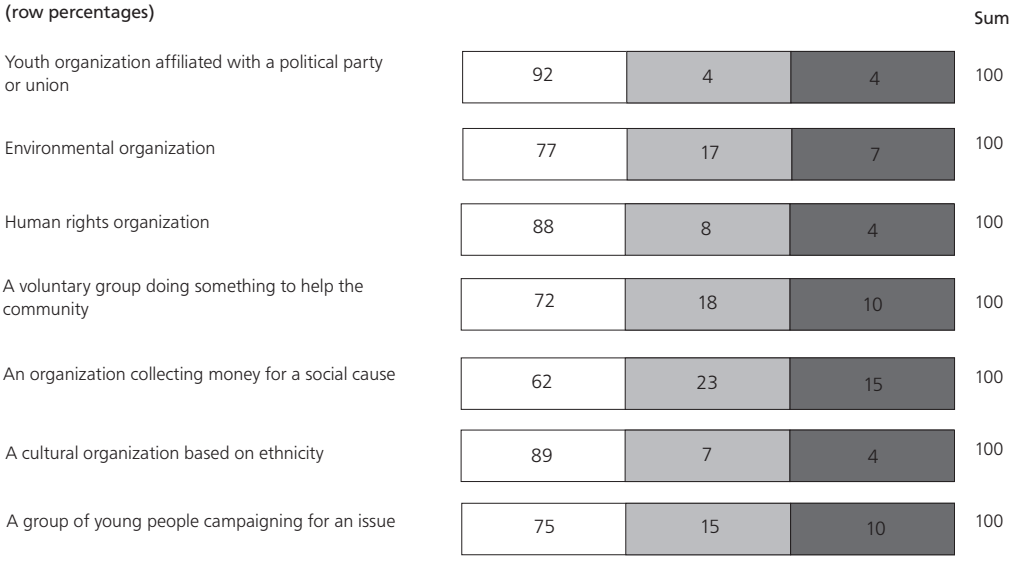
European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

				Sum
Activities organized in my local area that involve meeting people from other European countries.	66	21	13	100
Activities related to friendship agreements (twinning) between my local town/city and other European towns/cities.	71	21	9	100
Music, dance, or film festival(s) in another European country.	65	22	14	100
Sports event(s) in another European country.	64	20	16	100
Exchange programs with students from other European countries (going abroad or others coming to your country).	75	15	10	100
School trip(s) to another European country.	62	20	17	100
Visits to other European countries for leisure/ holidays.	27	28	46	100
Exhibitions, festivals, or other events about the art and culture (e.g., music, films) of other European countries.	53	27	20	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

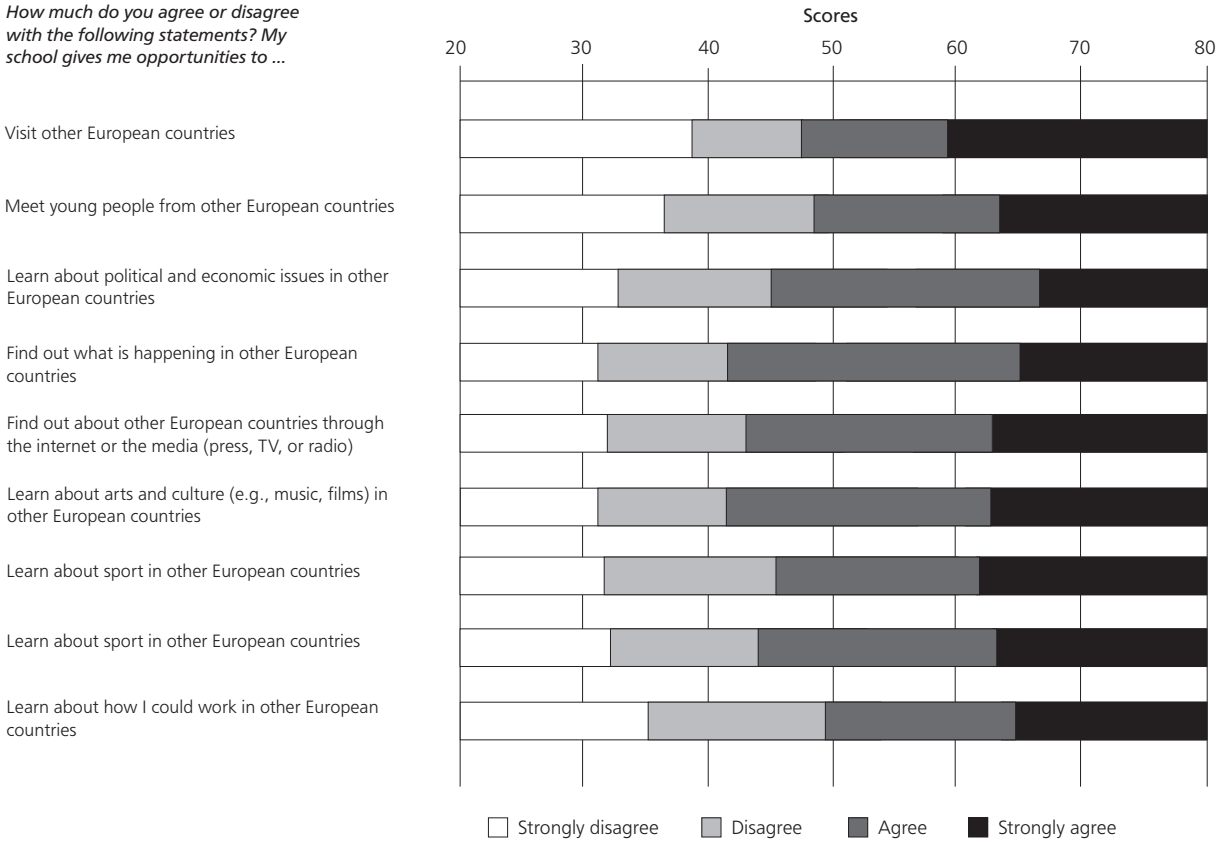
Figure 6.4: Item-by-score map for students' civic participation in the wider community





Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Figure 7.1: Item-by-score map for students' reports on opportunities for learning about Europe at school



European Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
Visit other European countries	16	26	37	21	100
Meet young people from other European countries	14	33	39	14	100
Learn about political and economic issues in other European countries	8	27	53	12	100
Find out what is happening in other European countries	6	20	60	14	100
Find out about other European countries through the internet or the media (press, TV, or radio)	7	22	54	17	100
Learn about arts and culture (e.g., music, films) in other European countries	6	20	57	18	100
Learn about sport in other European countries	7	28	47	18	100
Learn about sport in other European countries	7	25	52	16	100
Learn about how I could work in other European countries	12	37	39	12	100

Note:
Average percentages for 23 equally weighted European ICCS countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

APPENDIX E: ORGANIZATIONS AND INDIVIDUALS INVOLVED IN ICCS

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 at ACER were 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.

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Tim Friedman, *project researcher*
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Paola Mirti, *project researcher*

International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA)

IEA provides overall support with respect to 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.

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Barbara Malak, *manager membership relations*
Dr Paulína Koršňáková, *senior professional officer*
Jur Hartenberg, *financial manager*

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Falk Brese, *ICCS coordinator*
Michael Jung, *researcher*
Olaf Zuehlke, *researcher (sampling)*
Sabine Meinck, *researcher (sampling)*
Eugenio Gonzalez, *consultant to the Latin American regional module*

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 members
John Ainley (*chair*), ACER, Australia
Barbara Malak, IEA Secretariat
Heiko Sibberns, IEA Technical Expert Group
John Annette, University of London, United Kingdom
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Henk Dekker, University of Leiden, The Netherlands
Bryony Hoskins, Center for Research on Lifelong Learning, European Commission
Rosario Jaramillo F., Ministry of Education, Colombia (2006–2008)
Margarita Peña B., Colombian Institute for the Evaluation of Education (2008–2010)
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Isabel Menezes, Porto University, Portugal
Barbara Fratczak-Rudnicka, Warszaw University, Poland

ICCS sampling referee

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

National research coordinators (NRCs)

The national research coordinators (NRCs) played a crucial role in the development of the project. They provided policy- and content-oriented advice on the development of the instruments and were responsible for the implementation of ICCS in participating countries. NRCs for countries participating in the European module are marked with an asterisk (*).

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This report presents findings from the European regional module of 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 30 comparative research studies focusing on educational policies, practices, and outcomes in various school subjects in more than 80 countries around the world.

ICCS studied the ways in which young people in lower-secondary schools are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens in a range of countries. The ICCS modules for Europe, Asia, and Latin America supplemented the international survey by investigating specific regional aspects of civic and citizenship education.

Twenty-four countries participated in the European regional module. Data gathered from more than 75,000 students in their eighth year of schooling in more than 3,000 schools provide unique evidence from the European settings that may be used to improve policy and practice in civic and citizenship education. These data also provide a new baseline for future research in this area.

The report includes extensive analyses of students' knowledge and understandings of civics and citizenship in the European context as well as students' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors in relation to civic and political issues, institutions, policies, and participation in Europe. Although these analyses showed some variation among and within countries with respect to the civic knowledge of their students, the majority of these young people demonstrated a sense of European identity and support for increased European harmonization of policies. They also reported positive attitudes toward intercultural relations, strong support for equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants, and strong support for the right of European citizens to move freely within Europe.