



ICCS 2009 International Report: Civic knowledge, attitudes, and engagement among lower- secondary school students in 38 countries

Wolfram Schulz
John Ainley
Julian Fraillon
David Kerr
Bruno Losito



Università degli Studi Roma Tre
Laboratorio di Pedagogia sperimentale

ICCS 2009 International Report: Civic knowledge, attitudes, and engagement among lower- secondary school students in 38 countries

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



Università degli Studi Roma Tre
Laboratorio di Pedagogia sperimentale

Copyright © 2010 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA)

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

ISBN/EAN: 978-90-79549-07-8

Copies of this publication can be obtained from:

The Secretariat

International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement

Herengracht 487

1017 BT Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Telephone + 31 20 625 3625

Fax + 31 20 420 7136

Email: Department@IEA.nl

Website: www.iea.nl

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

Copyedited by Paula Wagemaker Editorial Services, Christchurch, New Zealand

Design and production by Becky Bliss Design and Production, Wellington, New Zealand

Printed by MultiCopy Netherlands b.v.

Foreword

The International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) is the largest international study on civic and citizenship education ever conducted. Findings published in this report are based on data collected from over 140,000 Grade 8 students, 62,000 teachers, and 5,300 school principals from 38 countries during 2008 to 2009.

The study 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 educational systems and processes.

The International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) was built on two pioneer studies in this area conducted by IEA in 1971 in nine countries and 18 years later in 1999 in 28 countries. The first study showed that not all countries approached teaching civic-related values in a formal way. It also provided inconclusive data about the impact of schooling on students' knowledge and civic attitudes.

The results of the second study clarified the role of the school in preparing young people for their roles as citizens. These results highlighted the rich array of experiences in schools that can be considered important with respect to that preparation, such as an open (receptive) climate for discussion and expression in the classroom. The second civic education study also showed differences between student outcomes that could be attributed to factors beyond the school, such as the socioeconomic status of families. Through its rich findings, the second IEA civic education study contributed to a deeper understanding of the role of civic and citizenship education and identified issues relevant to educational reform.

This report presents analysis of ICCS data concerning students' civics knowledge and attitudes. It explores these in relation to some background characteristics, including those pertaining to the family, classrooms and teachers, schools, and the broader community. It is the second in a series designed to present study outcomes. The first publication in the series was the *Initial Findings* report. This current report, which expands on the findings presented in the first publication, will be followed by three regional reports for Asia, Europe, and Latin America. These latter three reports 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.

International studies of the scale of ICCS would not be possible without the dedication, skill, cooperation, and support of a large number of individuals, institutions, and organizations from around the world. The study was organized by a consortium of three partner institutions: The Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER), the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) in the United Kingdom, and the Laboratorio di Pedagogia sperimentale (LPS) at the Roma Tre University in Italy. These institutions worked in close cooperation with the IEA Secretariat, the IEA Data Processing and Research Center (DPC), and the study's national research coordinators.

I would like to express thanks, on behalf of IEA, to the study's leaders: John Ainley, Julian Fraillon, and Wolfram Schulz from ACER, David Kerr from NFER, and Bruno Losito from LPS, as well as to all the researchers from the consortium institutions involved in the project: Anna-Kristin Albers, Renee Chow, Corrie Kirchhoff, Tim Friedman, Naoko Tabata, Eva Van de Gaer, Maurice Walker, and Louise Wenn, all from ACER; Joana Lopes, who contributed much to the national contexts survey, Linda Sturman, and Jo Morrison, all from NFER; and Gabriella Agrusti, Elisa Caponera, and Paola Mirti, from LPS.



I also extend special thanks to the members of the Project Advisory Committee for the guidance they offered through the four years of the study: John Annette (University of London), Leonor Cariola (Ministry of Education, Chile), Henk Dekker (University of Leiden), Bryony Hoskins (CRELL), Rosario Jaramillo (Ministry of Education, Colombia), Lee Wing-On (University of Hong Kong), Margarita Peña (ICFES), Barbara Malak (IEA Secretariat), Heiko Sibberns (IEA DPC), Judith Torney-Purta (University of Maryland), and Christian Monseur (University of Liège).

Thanks are also extended to the consultants associated with developing the ICCS assessment instruments: Aletta Grisay (University of Liège), Isabel Menezes (Porto University), and Barbara Fraczak-Rudnicka (University of Warsaw). Judith Torney-Purta (University of Maryland), the leader of the two previous IEA civic education studies, Christian Monseur (University of Liège), and John Cresswell (ACER) conducted expert reviews of the report.

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 in participating countries. They are the people who manage and execute the study at the national level. Their contribution is highly appreciated. This study also would not have been possible without the participation of many students, teachers, school administrators, and policy-makers within these countries. 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 ICCS was provided by the European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture, in the form of a grant to the European countries participating in the project, and the Inter-American Development Bank through SREDECC (Regional System for the Evaluation and Development of Citizenship Competencies). Funding also came from the ministries of education and many other organizations in all participating countries.

Dr Hans Wagemaker

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, IEA



Contents

<i>Foreword</i>	3
<i>List of tables and figures</i>	9
Executive Summary	15
About the study	15
Provision of civic and citizenship education	15
Civic knowledge	16
Aspects of students' backgrounds associated with civic knowledge	17
Students' perceptions and behaviors	17
Students' attitudes toward responses to threats to society	18
Influences on some outcomes of civic and citizenship education	19
Looking ahead	19
Chapter 1: Introduction to the international study of civic and citizenship education	21
Background	21
Research questions	23
Participating countries, population, and sample design	24
The ICCS assessment framework	26
The ICCS contextual framework	27
National contexts	29
Data collection and ICCS instruments	33
Links to CIVED and reporting changes since 1999	34
Report context and scope	35
Chapter 2: The contexts for civic and citizenship education	37
Collecting data on contexts for civic and citizenship education	38
Basic characteristics of ICCS countries	38
Summary of findings	56
Chapter 3: Students' civic knowledge	59
Assessing civic knowledge	59
Example ICCS test items	63
Comparison of civic knowledge across countries	74
Variations across countries with respect to associations between civic knowledge, Human Development Index, and student age	74
Variations within countries with respect to associations between civic knowledge and student age	76
Multiple comparisons of civic knowledge	77
Achievement across countries with respect to proficiency levels	77
Gender differences in civic knowledge	80
Changes in civic content knowledge	80
Civic knowledge among students in the ICCS upper grade	82
Summary of findings	85

Chapter 4: Students' value beliefs and attitudes	87
Perceptions of democracy and citizenship	88
Perceptions of equal rights in society	95
Perceptions of country and institutions	101
Students' engagement with religion	107
Summary of findings	113
Chapter 5: Students' civic engagement	115
Students' self-beliefs	116
Student communication on political and social issues	122
Participation in civic activities outside of school	129
Civic participation at school	134
Expected political participation	137
Summary of findings	146
Chapter 6: The roles of schools and communities	149
The local community context	150
The local community context and students' civic knowledge	156
The school context	164
Students' participation in classroom activities and their perceptions of classroom climate	169
Implementation and aims of civic and citizenship education at school	177
Summary of findings	188
Chapter 7: Influences of family background on some outcomes of civic and citizenship education	191
Measuring and analyzing the influences of family background	192
Immigrant status, language use, and civic knowledge	193
Socioeconomic background and civic knowledge	196
Home orientation with respect to political and social issues	202
Combined influences of family background	209
Influences of family background on students' interest in political and social issues	211
Summary of findings	216
Chapter 8: Explaining variation in learning outcomes	219
Civic knowledge	219
Expected electoral and active political participation	232
Summary of findings	242
Chapter 9: Discussion and conclusion	247
Variations among and within countries in civic knowledge	248
Changes in civic knowledge since 1999	248
Interest and disposition to engage in public and political life	249
Students' attitudes toward responses to threats to society	250
Aspects of schools and education systems related to outcomes of civic and citizenship education	250
General approaches to civic and citizenship education	251
Aspects of student personal and social background associated with civics and citizenship outcomes	252



Comparing student outcomes across countries	253
Results from the multivariate analyses	256
Possible implications for policy and practice	257
Outlook for future directions of research	259
Appendices	261
Appendix A: Instrument design, samples, and participation rates	261
Appendix B: Percentiles and standard deviations for civic knowledge	265
Appendix C: Regression analysis for civic knowledge and age	267
Appendix D: The scaling of questionnaire items	269
Appendix E: Item-by-score maps for questionnaire scales	270
Appendix F: Multilevel modeling results	292
Appendix G: Organizations and individuals involved in ICCS	297
References	303



List of Tables and Figures

Tables

Table 1.1: Emphasis given to civic and citizenship education topics in the curriculum for students at country's ICCS target grade	26
Table 1.2: Mapping of variables to contextual framework (examples)	29
Table 2.1: Selected demographic and economic characteristics of ICCS countries	40
Table 2.2: Selected political characteristics of ICCS countries	41
Table 2.3: Selected education characteristics of ICCS countries	42
Table 2.4: Education policy for civic and citizenship education: priority, contexts and approaches, and current reforms in ICCS countries	44
Table 2.5: Approaches to civic and citizenship education in the curriculum for lower-secondary education in ICCS countries	47
Table 2.6: Emphasis given to civics and citizenship processes in the curriculum for students at the country's ICCS target grade	49
Table 2.7: Emphasis given to topics in the curriculum of civic and citizenship education for students at the country's ICCS target grade	51
Table 2.8: Approaches to teaching, teacher training, student assessment, and school evaluation for civic and citizenship education in ICCS countries	54
Table 3.1: List of proficiency levels with text outlining the type of knowledge and understanding at each level	62
Table 3.2: Example Item 1 with overall percent correct	64
Table 3.3: Example Item 2 with overall percent correct	66
Table 3.4: Example Item 3 with overall percent correct	67
Table 3.5: Example Item 4 with overall percent correct	68
Table 3.6: Example Item 5 with overall percent correct	70
Table 3.7: Example Item 6 with overall percent correct	71
Table 3.8: Example Item 7 with overall percent correct	72
Table 3.9: Location of example items on the civic knowledge scale	73
Table 3.10: Country averages for civic knowledge, years of schooling, average age, Human Development Index, and percentile graph	75
Table 3.11: Multiple comparisons of average country civic knowledge scale scores	78
Table 3.12: Percentages of students at each proficiency level across countries	79
Table 3.13: Gender differences in civic knowledge	81
Table 3.14: Changes in civic content knowledge between 1999 and 2000	83
Table 3.15: Country averages in civic knowledge, years of schooling, average age, and percentile graph (upper grade)	83
Table 3.16: Percentages of students at each proficiency level across countries (upper grade)	84
Table 3.17: Gender differences in civic knowledge (upper grade)	85
Table 4.1: National percentages of students agreeing with statements reflecting democratic values	89
Table 4.2: National percentages of students agreeing with statements regarding reactions to terrorist threats	92
Table 4.3: National averages for students' perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship	94
Table 4.4: National averages for students' perceptions of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship	96
Table 4.5: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal gender rights overall and by gender groups	98



Table 4.6: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic/racial groups	100
Table 4.7: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants	102
Table 4.8: National averages for students' attitudes toward their country by immigrant background	104
Table 4.9: National averages for students' trust in civic institutions	106
Table 4.10: National percentages of students' trust in different civic institutions and people in general	108
Table 4.11: National percentages of students' support for political parties	110
Table 4.12: National percentages of students belonging to a religion and percentages of students' attendance at religious services	111
Table 4.13: National averages for students' attitudes toward the influence of religion in society overall and by attendance at religious services	112
Table 5.1: National averages for students' interest in political and social issues overall and by gender	118
Table 5.2: National averages for students' internal political efficacy overall and by gender	119
Table 5.3: National averages for students' citizenship self-efficacy overall and by gender	121
Table 5.4: National averages for students' civic knowledge by tertile groupings of students' interest in political and social issues, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy	124
Table 5.5: Percentages, average civic knowledge, and average interest in political and social issues for students' reported participation in discussion of political and social issues with friends	126
Table 5.6: National percentages for students reporting using media (newspaper, television, and internet) to inform themselves about national and international news	128
Table 5.7: National averages for civic knowledge by students' use of media information (newspaper, television, and internet)	130
Table 5.8: National percentages for students' reported participation in different civic activities outside of school	132
Table 5.9: National averages for students' perceptions of the value of participation at school overall and by gender	136
Table 5.10: National percentages for students' reported participation in different civic activities at school	138
Table 5.11: National averages for expected participation in legal protest activities overall and by gender	141
Table 5.12: National averages for expected participation in illegal protest activities overall and by gender	142
Table 5.13: National averages for students' expected electoral participation as an adult	144
Table 5.14: National percentages for students' intentions to vote in national elections	145
Table 5.15: National averages for students' expected participation in political activities as an adult	147
Table 6.1: Teachers' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities	152
Table 6.2: Principals' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities (in national percentages of students)	154



Table 6.3: Students' expectations of volunteering time to help people in the local community overall and by gender	157
Table 6.4: Principals' reports on availability of resources in local community (in national percentages of students)	158
Table 6.5: National averages for students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of schools with low, medium, or high availability of resources in local community	161
Table 6.6: Principals' perceptions of social tension in the community (in national percentages of students)	162
Table 6.7: Students' civic knowledge by national tertiles of schools with low, medium, or high average principals' perceptions of social tension in the community	165
Table 6.8: National scale score averages for students' perceptions of their influence on decisions about school overall and by gender	167
Table 6.9: National averages for teachers' perceptions of student influence on decisions about school	168
Table 6.10: Students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of schools with low, medium, or high average teacher perceptions of student influence on decisions about school	170
Table 6.11: National averages for teachers' perceptions of classroom climate	172
Table 6.12: Students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of schools with low, medium, or high average teacher perceptions of classroom climate	173
Table 6.13: National averages for teachers' reports on student participation in class activities	175
Table 6.14: National scale score averages for students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussions overall and by gender	176
Table 6.15: School approaches to teaching civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of students)	178
Table 6.16: Teachers' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of teachers)	182
Table 6.17: Principals' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of principals)	184
Table 6.18: Teachers' confidence in teaching civic and citizenship education	186
Table 7.1: Percentages of students in categories of immigrant background and its effect on civic knowledge	195
Table 7.2: Percentages of students in categories of home language and its effect on civic knowledge	197
Table 7.3: Percentages of students in categories of parental occupational status and its effect on civic knowledge	198
Table 7.4: Percentages of students in categories of parental educational attainment and its effect on civic knowledge	200
Table 7.5: Percentages of students in categories of home literacy resources and its effect on civic knowledge	204
Table 7.6: Percentages of students in categories of parental interest in political and social issues and its effect on civic knowledge	206
Table 7.7: Percentages of students in categories of talking with parents about political and social issues and its effect on civic knowledge	208
Table 7.8: Regression model for students' civic knowledge predicted by family background variables	212



Table 7.9: Regression model for students' interest in political and social issues predicted by family background variables	214
Table 8.1: Overview of multilevel analysis results for civic knowledge	225
Table 8.2: Student-level results from multilevel analysis of civic knowledge	226
Table 8.3: School-level results from multilevel analysis of civic knowledge	230
Table 8.4: Total and explained variance in civic knowledge	231
Table 8.5: Average additional and total explained variance in civic knowledge	232
Table 8.6: Multiple regression model results for expected electoral participation	236
Table 8.7: Explained variance for expected electoral participation	239
Table 8.8: Multiple regression model results for expected active political participation	240
Table 8.9: Explained variance for expected active political participation	243
Table 9.1: Comparison of country average score results for cognitive and affective-behavioral ICCS scales	254
Table A.1: ICCS test booklet design	261
Table A.2: Coverage of ICCS 2009 target population	262
Table A.3: Participation rates and sample sizes for student survey	263
Table A.4: Participation rates and sample sizes for teacher survey	264
Table B.1: Percentiles of civic knowledge	265
Table B.2: Means and standard deviations of civic knowledge	266
Table C.1: Regression results for civic knowledge and student age (target grades)	267
Table C.2: Regression results for civic knowledge and student age (upper grade)	270
Table F.1: Multilevel results for Model 1	292
Table F.2: Multilevel results for Model 2	293
Table F.3: Multilevel results for Model 3	295



Figures

Figure 1.1: Countries participating in ICCS 2009	25
Figure 1.2: Contexts for the development of learning outcomes related to civics and citizenship	28
Figure E.1: Example of questionnaire item-by-score map	270
Figure 4.1: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship	271
Figure 4.2: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship	272
Figure 4.3: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward gender equality	273
Figure 4.4: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups	274
Figure 4.5: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants	275
Figure 4.6: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward their country	276
Figure 4.7: Item-by-score map for students' trust in civic institutions	277
Figure 4.8: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward the influence of religion on society	278
Figure 5.1: Item-by-score map for students' interest in political and social issues	279
Figure 5.2: Item-by-score map for students' internal political efficacy	280
Figure 5.3: Item-by-score map for students' citizenship self-efficacy	281
Figure 5.4: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of the value of participation at school	282
Figure 5.5: Item-by-score map for students' expected participation in legal protest activities	283
Figure 5.6: Item-by-score map for students' expected participation in illegal protest activities	284
Figure 5.7: Item-by-score map for students' expected electoral participation	285
Figure 5.8: Item-by-score map for students' expected active political participation	286
Figure 6.1: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of student influence at school	287
Figure 6.2: Item-by-score map for teachers' perceptions of student influence at school	288
Figure 6.3: Item-by-score map for teachers' perceptions of classroom climate	289
Figure 6.4: Item-by-score map for teachers' perceptions of student involvement in class activities	290
Figure 6.5: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussions	291



Executive Summary

About the study

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 roles involves helping them develop relevant knowledge and understanding and form positive attitudes toward being a citizen and participating in activities related to civic and citizenship education. These notions were elaborated in the ICCS framework, which was the first publication to emerge from ICCS (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008).

This report of results from ICCS documents differences among countries in relation to a wide range of different civic-related learning outcomes, actions, and dispositions. It also documents differences in the relationship between those outcomes and characteristics of countries, and in the relationship of these outcomes with student characteristics and school contexts. ICCS considered six research questions concerned with the following:

1. Variations in civic knowledge;
2. Changes in content knowledge since 1999;
3. Students' interest in engaging in public and political life and their disposition to do so;
4. Perceptions of threats to civil society;
5. Features of education systems, schools, and classrooms related to civic and citizenship education; and
6. Aspects of students' backgrounds related to the outcomes of civic and citizenship education.

ICCS gathered data from more than 140,000 Grade 8 (or equivalent) students in more than 5,300 schools from 38 countries. These student data were augmented by data from more than 62,000 teachers in those schools and by contextual data collected from school principals and the study's national research centers.

Provision of civic and citizenship education

Different approaches to delivering civics and citizenship education were evident in the ICCS countries. Twenty of the 38 participating countries included a specific subject concerned with civic and citizenship education in their respective curriculums. Many countries provided civic and citizenship education by integrating relevant content into other subjects and including content as a cross-curricular theme. Very few of the participating students were attending schools where principals reported no provision for civic and citizenship education.

Civic and citizenship education covers a wide range of topics. It encompasses 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. Most of the teachers and school principals who participated in ICCS 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," "developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution," "promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities," and "promoting students' critical and independent thinking." The development of active participation was not among the objectives that teachers or school principals in any of the participating countries most frequently cited as the most important.



Most students reported engaging at least “sometimes” in discussion of political and social issues and in classrooms with an open (receptive to discussion) environment. Although teachers were generally receptive to open student expression in classrooms, they offered their students only limited input into the choice of civic-related topics and activities. Most students also reported having participated in class or school elections and about two fifths also reported involvement in debates, decision-making, and student assemblies. School-based participation by students in civic-related activities in the local community focused primarily on sports events and cultural activities. Few teachers reported student involvement in human rights projects or activities to help the underprivileged.

Civic knowledge

Civic knowledge was defined broadly in ICCS as encompassing not only understanding but also “knowing facts.” In addition, the civic knowledge assessment in ICCS was concerned with knowing about and understanding elements and concepts of citizenship as well as those of traditional civics.

The ICCS assessment of civic knowledge was based on an 80-item test (79 of these items formed the scale) that covered content concerned with civic society and systems, civic principles, civic participation, and civic identities. Three-quarters of the test items involved reasoning and analysis associated with civics and citizenship, but some focused on knowledge about civics and citizenship.

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. ICCS revealed considerable variation across and within countries in the extent of civic knowledge. About half of the variation was recorded at the student level, about a quarter at the school level, and a further quarter across countries. The average civic knowledge scores ranged from 380 to 576—a range equivalent to almost two international student-level standard deviations. The difference between the bottom quartile and the top quartile (i.e., covering the middle half of the averages for countries) was about 60 scale points.

There was even greater variation in civic knowledge within the participating countries. For example, the distance between the lowest 5 percent and the highest 95 percent of civic knowledge scores was almost equal to 300 scale points. There were quite substantial differences across countries in the within-country variation as well as in the extent to which this variation was associated with differences among schools.

The civic knowledge scale reflects progression from being able to deal with concrete, familiar, and mechanistic elements of civics and citizenship through to understanding the wider policy climate and institutional processes that determine the shape of civic communities. Analysis of the student achievement data led to the establishment of three proficiency levels:

- *Proficiency Level 1:* characterized by engagement with the fundamental principles and broad concepts that underpin civic and citizenship and by a mechanistic working knowledge of the operation of civic, civil, and political institutions.
- *Proficiency Level 2:* 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:* characterized by the application of knowledge and understanding to evaluate or justify policies, practices, and behaviors based on students’ understanding of civics and citizenship.



On average, across participating countries, 16 percent of students were below Proficiency Level 1, 26 percent of students were classified as being at Proficiency Level 1, 31 percent were at Proficiency Level 2, and 28 percent were at Proficiency Level 3. In the four highest-performing countries, more than half of the students were at Proficiency Level 3. In the four lowest-performing countries, more than 70 percent of the students were at Proficiency Level 1 or below.

ICCS included some of the same items from CIVED, making it possible to compare the “civic content knowledge” (a subset of the overall civic knowledge assessment) scores in 1999 and 2009 for 15 of the countries that participated in both studies. The comparison indicated a decline in civic content knowledge in almost half of the 15 countries since 1999; only one country had a statistically significant increase in civic content knowledge among lower-secondary students over that time. These findings must be interpreted with caution, given the small number of link items, their restricted content coverage, and the change in test design between the two surveys.

Aspects of students' backgrounds associated with civic knowledge

A number of student characteristics were associated with civic knowledge. Girls had significantly higher civic knowledge scores than boys in most ICCS countries; the average difference was 22 scale points. Students from non-immigrant backgrounds recorded higher civic knowledge scores than students from immigrant backgrounds; the average difference was 37 scale points. However, when the influence of socioeconomic background was statistically controlled, the effects of immigrant background were smaller.

In all ICCS countries, students whose parents had higher-status occupations gained higher civic knowledge scores. Similar results were found for students whose parents had higher educational qualifications and whose homes had larger numbers of books. However, there were considerable differences across countries in the strength of the relationship between socioeconomic background and civic knowledge.

Students' civic knowledge was also influenced by home orientations toward political and social issues (parental interest in these issues and frequency of discussion with parents about them). These effects remained significant even after we had controlled for the socioeconomic background of students.

Students' perceptions and behaviors

ICCS measured student perceptions and behaviors relevant to civics and citizenship in four domains: value beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors. The survey allocated about the same amount of time to the measurement of perceptions and behaviors as was allocated to the assessment of civic knowledge.

ICCS provided a number of interesting findings about the way students think about civic society and how they engage in it. Most ICCS students endorsed democratic values. They agreed with a number of fundamental democratic rights as well as with the importance of a great number of the conventional and social-movement-related behaviors that are considered to support good citizenship. However, students varied in their views of media monopolies, their criticism of government and nepotism, and their endorsement of specified dimensions of good citizenship.



Trust in civic institutions varied across ICCS countries. Political parties were typically the institution least trusted. Also, in many countries, majorities of students did not express any preference for a particular political party. However, both trust and support for political parties varied noticeably. In some countries, students accorded political parties relatively high levels of trust or support whereas in others only small minorities of students expressed trust in them or stated a preference for any one of them. ICCS students also held generally positive attitudes toward their country of residence.

Similar to the findings from the CIVED survey, ICCS showed a strong endorsement, among the participating students, of gender equality, but variation in this endorsement was evident across countries. As previously indicated in the data from CIVED, the results from ICCS showed that female students were significantly more supportive of gender equality than male students in all ICCS countries. Most students also supported equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants. However, students in some ICCS countries were less supportive than their peers in other countries of equal rights for immigrants.

Students' interest in political and social issues was stronger with regard to domestic political and social issues than with respect to foreign issues and international politics. Gender differences in relation to interest in political and social issues were generally small and inconsistent across countries. Student interest in politics and social issues appeared to be relatively little affected by immigrant or socioeconomic background but was associated with students' reports of their parents' interest in these matters. While there is much more to be understood about how interactions in homes shape students' interests, the ICCS data suggest that this association appears to be independent of socioeconomic background.

Active civic participation in the community was relatively uncommon among the surveyed students. Civic participation at school tended to be much more frequent and was associated with higher civic knowledge and interest scores. Large majorities of students said they intended to vote in national elections once they reached adulthood, but only minorities expected to become politically active as adults.

Most of the ICCS students reported that they kept themselves regularly informed about national and international news from different sources, particularly television. However, on average, only a quarter of students stated that they discussed political and social issues with friends on a weekly basis. Active civic participation in the wider community was relatively uncommon among the students; civic participation at school was considerably more common.

Majorities of students expected to become involved in legal protest activities, but few of them considered that they would engage in illegal activities such as blocking traffic or occupying buildings. Most students said they intended to vote as adults in national elections, but few students expected to join political parties in the future. Students' expectation that they would vote in national elections was positively associated with both civic knowledge and interest in political and social issues.

Students' attitudes toward responses to threats to society

ICCS investigated students' views of recent developments in many democratic societies with regard to the balance between securing society and protecting the civil liberties of its citizens. Although, given the age group surveyed, the ICCS research team could not fully address all aspects related to this question, it did include questions regarding students' acceptance of measures with the potential to infringe civil liberties in a democratic society. In most of the ICCS countries, students supported measures that increased the power of security agencies to (for example) control communications and hold suspects in jail for relatively long periods of time. Even higher percentages of students endorsed restricting media coverage during times of perceived crisis.



Influences on some outcomes of civic and citizenship education

ICCS investigated the influence of a range of factors at different levels on some important outcomes of civic and citizenship education. The results confirmed the influence of a number of student-level antecedent factors on civic knowledge, including gender and socioeconomic background. Student communication behaviors (discussion, media use) also emerged as positive predictors of civic knowledge. Among the influences reflecting the school-learning context, the perceptions that students held of openness during classroom discussions of political and social issues and the extent of their experience with voting had effects over and above the influence of home-background factors.

Of the school-level factors investigated, only the socioeconomic context had positive effects on civic knowledge in most countries. Furthermore, once we had controlled for the socioeconomic composition of the school, we found no other strong associations between civic knowledge and school-level variables. However, average perceptions of openness in classroom discussions still featured as a positive predictor in a number of countries. School principals' perceptions of students' sense of belonging showed some independent effects on civic knowledge in a smaller number of countries. Further research on the interplay between socioeconomic and process-related school variables and how they influence the development of civic knowledge is needed.

Multiple regression analyses were used to analyze factors associated with students' expectations of electoral and active political participation in later adult life. The results indicated that student-background variables had only a limited influence but that there were strong associations between student dispositions and behavioral intentions.

Although expected electoral behavior was positively associated with civic knowledge, this was not the case for expected active political behavior. In addition, even though civic engagement at school positively predicted students' intentions to participate in elections, it had no apparent influence on students' expectations to engage in more active political behavior, such as working in political organizations or on political campaigns. However, past or current participation in the wider community was a positive predictor of expected active participation. These findings suggest that school experiences positively influence basic political engagement but not more active involvement in forms of conventional civic-related participation.

Trusting civic institutions and preferring one or more political parties over other parties tended to be positively associated with students' reported intentions to participate in electoral and more active forms of political participation in the future. The same associations were evident for interest in political and social issues, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy: each of these factors tended to have independent effects on both forms of expected participation. Being motivated, having a general sense of being able to cope with politics, and confidence in becoming active as a citizen all contributed to anticipated future engagement in politics.

Looking ahead

We expect that this report will be followed by a large number of secondary research studies. Subsequent analyses could investigate in greater detail not only the relationships between students' civic knowledge and students' attitudes to aspects of civics and citizenship but also the relationships between these outcomes and approaches to civic and citizenship education and characteristics of students and their societies. Interactions between the country contexts and within-country relationships between context and outcomes will be of particular interest.

ICCS has provided a new baseline for future research on civic and citizenship education. Its approach of collecting data at a number of levels and from different perspectives will enable secondary analysts to exploit the richness of the international database. The design of ICCS also offers opportunities for future international surveys. These could collect data on linked cognitive and affective-behavioral outcomes and compare the results with those from ICCS.



CHAPTER 1:

Introduction to the international study of civic and citizenship education

The International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) investigated the ways in which countries prepare their young people to undertake their roles as citizens. It studied student knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship as well as student attitudes, perceptions, and activities related to civics and citizenship. It also examined differences among countries in relation to these outcomes of civic and citizenship education, and it explored how differences among countries relate to student characteristics, school and community contexts, and national characteristics.

The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) also investigated civic education in 1999. Since then, new challenges have emerged in relation to educating young people for their roles as citizens in the 21st century. These challenges have stimulated renewed reflection on the meanings of citizenship and the roles of and approaches to civic and citizenship education. In many countries, there is a growing interest in using evidence to improve policy and practice in civic and citizenship education.

There is considerable diversity in the content and conduct of civic and citizenship education within and across countries. However, the knowledge, understanding, skills, and dispositions that prepare young people to comprehend the world, hold productive employment, and be informed active citizens are the aspects that education systems, schools, and teachers typically value and attempt to foster. The ICCS research team systematically investigated differences among the participating countries in these outcomes and in how these countries provided civic and citizenship education. The team also explored differences within and across countries with respect to the relationship between the outcomes of civic and citizenship education and student characteristics and school contexts.

ICCS researchers gathered data from more than 140,000 Grade 8 (or equivalent) students in more than 5,300 schools from 38 countries. These student data were augmented by data from more than 62,000 teachers in those schools and by contextual data collected from school principals and national research centers.

Background

ICCS builds on the previous IEA studies of civic education and is a response to the challenge of educating young people in changed contexts of democracy and civic participation in the 21st century. The first IEA study of civic education was conducted as part of the Six Subject Study, with data collected in 1971 (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975; Walker, 1996). The second study, the IEA Civic Education Study (CIVED), was carried out in 1999 (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001; Torney-Purta, Schwille, & Amadeo, 1999); an additional survey, of upper-secondary students, was undertaken in 2000 (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002). CIVED was designed to strengthen the empirical foundations of civic education by providing information about the civic knowledge, attitudes, and actions of 14-year-olds and upper-secondary school students.

CIVED had a twin focus—school-based learning and opportunities for civic participation outside the school. It concentrated on three domains: (i) democracy and citizenship, (ii) national identity and international relations, and (iii) social cohesion and diversity. Its findings influenced civic and citizenship education policies and practices around the world, and also research in this area (Birzea et al., 2004; Kerr, Ireland, Lopes, Craig, & Clever, 2004; Mellor & Prior, 2004; Menezes, Ferreira, Carneiro, & Cruz, 2004; Torney-Purta, 2009).



During the 10 years since CIVED, the world has seen considerable change in civics, especially in terms of governance and international relations. CIVED was informed by political change that occurred across a number of countries in the late 1980s and 1990s, change that has since become more manifest and has brought altered contexts and new challenges for countries.

These include:

- *Changes in the external threats to civil societies:* increases in terrorist attacks and debates about the response civil societies should take have resulted in greater importance being attached to civic and citizenship education (Banks, 2008; Ben-Porath, 2006).
- *Migration of peoples within and across continents and countries:* this development is challenging notions of identity and increasing the focus on the role of civic and citizenship education in facilitating social and community cohesion in society (Ajegbo, Kiwan, & Sharma, 2007; Osler & Starkey, 2005; Parker, 2004).
- *People, in many countries, according greater value to democracy as a system of government:* at the same time, however, social and economic inequalities are threatening the functioning of democratic governments (Gorard & Sundaram, 2008; Reimers, 2007).
- *An increase in the importance of non-governmental groups serving as vehicles through which active citizenship can be exercised:* new forms of social participation serve a variety of different purposes, ranging from religious matters to protection of human rights and protection of the environment (Torney-Purta, Wilkenfeld, & Barber, 2008; Wade, 2007; Zadjia, 2009).
- *Ongoing modernization and globalization of societies:* this has been accompanied by more universal access to new media, increasing consumer consumption, and transformation of societal structures (individualism) (Osler & Vincent, 2002; Roth & Burbules, 2007; Zadjia, 2009).

The growth of interest in civic and citizenship education has brought challenges to traditional views of citizenship. These challenges, in turn, have led to a revisiting of concepts and practices associated with rights, responsibilities, access, and belonging. Debates cover concepts of national identity and belonging, how national identity can be identified, and what might be done to confirm national identity (see, for example, Banks, 2008; White & Openshaw, 2005).

ICCS adopted the term *civic and citizenship education* to emphasize a broadening of the concept, processes, and practices that have occurred in this area of educational provision since the CIVED study of 1999. Many countries now use the term civic and citizenship education rather than the narrower term of *civic education*, or they have superseded the latter with the broader term of *citizenship education*. Civic education focuses on knowledge and understanding of formal institutions and processes of civic life (such as voting in elections). Citizenship education focuses on knowledge and understanding and on opportunities for participation and engagement in both civic and civil society.¹ It is concerned with the wider range of ways that citizens use to interact with and shape their communities (including schools) and societies.

Many countries are concerned about the low participation of their citizens in civic life and the apparent lack of interest and involvement among young people in public and political life (Curtice & Seyd, 2003). However, young people may still endorse political values such as tolerance, equity, and solidarity. There is also some evidence that young people are increasingly taking part in alternative forms of participation involving community-based action with peers of similar age and in internet-based campaigns concerning such issues as the environment and ethical consumerism (Sherrod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010).



¹ *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 which does 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.

Research conducted in recent years has provided insights into the following: the gaps between the intended and the implemented curriculum (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005); the conceptualization of citizenship in schools with respect to curriculum, school culture, and the wider community (Evans, 2009; Kennedy, 2009); the emphasis on active and experiential teaching and learning (Ross, 2009); and the factors that support effective citizenship education (Craig, Kerr, Wade, & Taylor, 2005; Keating, Kerr, Lopes, Featherstone, & Benton, 2009).

The evidence base on civic and citizenship education is growing, as is increased collaboration and sharing of expertise within and across countries and regions. In general, since the late 1980s, the complexity of the challenges facing democracy and citizenship have considerably changed the environment for civic and citizenship education (Barr, 2005; Youniss & Levine, 2009).

Research questions

The research questions underpinning ICCS concern civic and citizenship knowledge, dispositions to engage, and attitudes related to civic and citizenship education. The ICCS *Assessment Framework* (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008) describes the development of these questions. The framework also gives more details relating to the questions, and outlines the variables necessary for analyses associated with the questions.

RQ 1 What variations exist among countries and within countries in student civic and citizenship knowledge?

This research question concerns the distribution of outcomes across participating countries (at the country level) and within these countries. Analyses that address this question focus on the distribution of civic knowledge based on test data and involve single- and multi-level perspectives.

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

This research question is concerned with analyzing trends from CIVED to ICCS and is limited to data from countries participating in both assessments and with comparable population definitions in the two studies. Analyses focus on changes in civic content knowledge (for which there was a common measure across the two studies) as well as some indicators of civic engagement and attitudes.

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

This research question addresses the issue of engagement, with indicators of civic participation compared within and among countries and related to explanatory variables at student, school, and system levels. Student characteristics and process-related variables referring to schools and classrooms as well as the home environment are used to explain variation in outcome variables.

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

ICCS investigated student comprehension of the relationship between securing societies and safeguarding civil liberties, and on student attitudes toward citizenship rights.

RQ 5 What aspects of schools and education systems are related to knowledge about, and attitudes to, civics and citizenship (see Sections 2 and 5), including the following:

a. general approaches to civic and citizenship education, curriculum, and/or program content structure and delivery?

ICCS collected data at the national level on curriculum and programs as well as at the school level through school and teacher questionnaires. Contextual information about civic and citizenship learning at the country level as well as more detailed information from schools and classrooms were used as part of the analysis.



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

Student perceptions of and teacher reports on instructional practices regarding teaching and learning processes were collected from schools, teachers, and students.

- c. aspects of school organization, including opportunities to contribute to conflict resolution, participate in governance processes, and be involved in decision-making?

Student perceptions of school governance and reports from school principals and teachers provide information about the opportunities students have to participate within school.

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

Information about student background, and their home environment, gathered through a student questionnaire, was used to explain variation in civic and citizenship outcomes.

Participating countries, population, and sample design

Thirty-eight countries² participated in ICCS. Among these were five from Asia, one from Australasia, 26 from Europe, and six from Latin America. Figure 1.1 provides an alphabetical list of these countries and their geographic location on the world map. 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.

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.

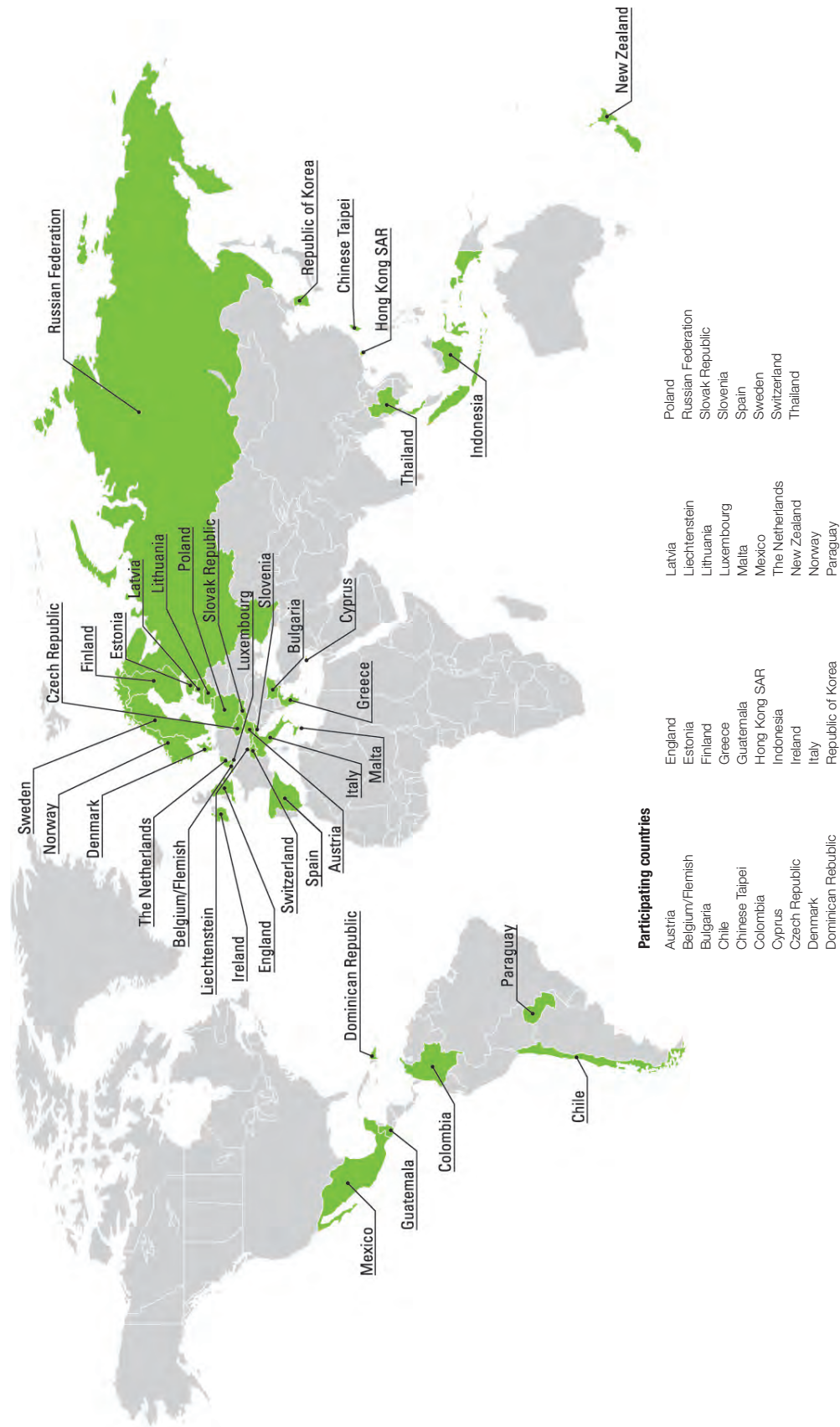
The samples were designed as two-stage cluster samples. During the first stage of sampling, PPS (probability proportional to size as measured by the number of students enrolled in a school) procedures were used to sample schools within each country. The numbers required in the sample to achieve the necessary 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 number from between 3,000 and 4,500 students. Appendix A documents the achieved samples for each country.



² A few of the ICCS participants were distinct education systems within countries. We use the term “country” in this report to refer to both the countries and the systems within countries that participated in the study.

Figure 1.1: Countries participating in ICCS 2009



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 ICCS assessment framework

The assessment framework provided a conceptual underpinning for the international instrumentation for ICCS and a point of reference for the development of regional instruments (Schulz et al., 2008). The assessment framework consisted of two parts:

- *The civics and citizenship framework*: this outlined the outcome measures addressed through the cognitive test and the student perceptions questionnaire;
- *The contextual framework*: this mapped the context factors expected to influence outcomes and explain their variation.

The ICCS assessment framework was organized around three dimensions, as shown in Table 1.1.

- A *content dimension* specifying the subject matter to be assessed within civics and citizenship (with regard to both affective-behavioral and cognitive aspects);
- An *affective-behavioral dimension* describing the types of student perceptions and activities measured;
- A *cognitive dimension* describing the thinking processes to be assessed.

Table 1.1: Emphasis given to civic and citizenship education topics in the curriculum for students at country's ICCS target grade

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

Note: [^] The table does not include any optional student questionnaire items.



The four content domains in the ICCS assessment framework were civic society and systems, civic principles, civic participation, and civic identities. Each of these was made up of a set of sub-domains that incorporated elements referred to as “aspects” and “key concepts”.

- *Civic society and systems: three sub-domains*—(i) citizens (roles, rights, responsibilities, and opportunities), (ii) state institutions (those central to civic governance and legislation), and (iii) civil institutions (the institutions that mediate citizens’ contact with state institutions and allow citizens to pursue many of their roles in their societies).
- *Civic principles: three sub-domains*—(i) equity (all people having the right to fair and just treatment), (ii) freedom (of belief, of speech, from fear, and from want), and (iii) social cohesion (sense of belonging, connectedness, and common vision amongst individuals and communities within a society).
- *Civic participation: three sub-domains*—(i) decision-making (organizational governance and voting), (ii) influencing (debating, demonstrating, developing proposals, and selective purchasing), and (iii) community participation (volunteering, participating in organizations, keeping informed).
- *Civic identities: two sub-domains*—(i) civic self-image (individuals’ experience of place in each of their civic communities), and (ii) civic connectedness (sense of connection to different civic communities and the civic roles individuals play within each community).

The assessment framework identified the different types of student perceptions and behaviors relevant to civics and citizenship. Four affective-behavioral domains were identified: value beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors.

- *Value beliefs*: these relate to fundamental beliefs about democracy and citizenship; they are more constant over time, more deeply rooted, and broader than attitudes.
- *Attitudes*: these include self-cognitions related to civics and citizenship, attitudes toward the rights and responsibilities of groups in society, and attitudes toward institutions.
- *Behavioral intentions*: these refer to expectations of future civic action, and they include constructs such as preparedness to participate in forms of civic protest, anticipated future political participation as adults, and anticipated future participation in citizenship activities.
- *Behaviors*: these refer to present or past participation in civic-related activities at school or in the wider community.

The two cognitive processes in the ICCS framework were:

- *Knowing*: this refers to the learned civic and citizenship information that students use when engaging in the more complex cognitive tasks that help them to make sense of their civic worlds.
- *Reasoning and analyzing*: this refers to the ways in which students use civic and citizenship information to reach conclusions by integrating perspectives that apply to more than a single concept and are applicable in a range of contexts.

Table 1.1 on the opposite page shows the coverage of these domains in the international student survey instruments (test and questionnaire).

The ICCS contextual framework

A study of the outcomes of civic and citizenship education needs to take account of the context in which civic learning takes place. Young people develop their understandings about their roles as citizens through a number of activities and experiences that take place in the home, school, classrooms, and wider community.



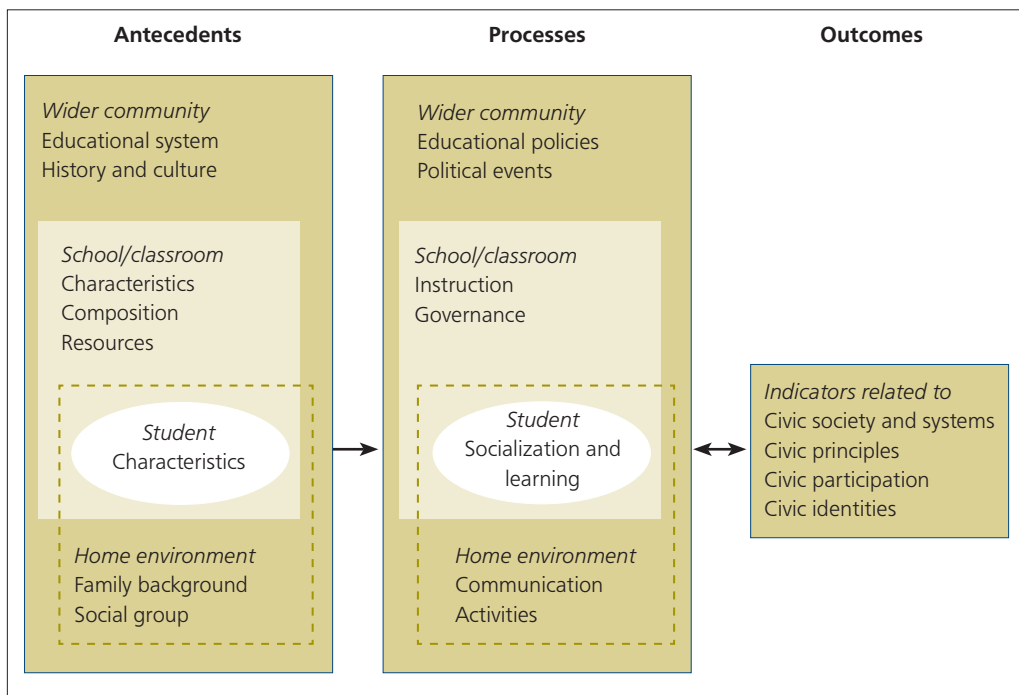
Students' knowledge, competencies, dispositions, and self-beliefs are influenced by their wider community (at local, regional, national, and supra-national levels), their schools and classrooms (the instruction they receive, the school culture they experience, and their general school environment), their home environments (their direct home background and their social out-of-school environment), and their individual characteristics (these shape the way students respond to learning about civics and citizenship).

Contextual influences on civic and citizenship education act as either antecedents or processes. Antecedents refer to the historical background that affects how civics and citizenship learning takes place (e.g., through historical factors and policies that shape how learning is provided). Processes contemporaneously shape civic and citizenship education (e.g., the extent of civic understanding and engagement among students can influence the way schools teach this area of educational provision).

Figure 1.2 illustrates the contextual factors that influence the learning outcomes of civic and citizenship education. The (double-headed) arrow between *processes* and *outcomes* signals a reciprocal relationship. Feedback occurs between civic-related learning outcomes and processes. Students with higher levels of civic knowledge and engagement are the students most likely to participate in activities (at school, at home, and within the community) that promote these outcomes. The (single-headed) arrow between *antecedents* and *processes* describes the relationship between factors that are uni-directional.

Table 1.2 maps the variables (or groups of variables) that the ICCS researchers collected through their use of the various ICCS instruments. Variables related to the context of nation/community were collected primarily through the national context survey. Variables related to the context of schools and classrooms were collected through the school and teacher questionnaires. The student background questionnaire provided information on the antecedents of the individual student and the home environment as well as about some process-related variables (e.g., learning activities). The student test and the student perceptions questionnaire were used to collect data on outcomes. The student background questionnaire also included

Figure 1.2: Contexts for the development of learning outcomes related to civics and citizenship



questions about student participation in civic-related activities, the answers to which were used as indicators of active citizenship.

The context of the wider community can be viewed as multi-layered: the local community, comprising the students' schools and home environments, is embedded within the broader regional, national, and (possibly) supra-national contexts. Within the scope of ICCS, the level of the local community and the level of the national context were the most relevant levels.

National contexts

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

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

Data from the national context survey provided country-level background information to assist in the interpretation of students' knowledge and engagement. These data also provided the basis for country profiles, to be published in an associated encyclopedia. The data covered the following:

- The structure of the education system (Baker & LeTendre, 2005);
- The policies relating to civic and citizenship education (Torney-Purta et al., 1999);
- Approaches to civic and citizenship education (Birzea et al., 2004);
- Civic and citizenship curricula (Cox, Jaramillo, & Reimers, 2005);
- Teacher education in civics and citizenship (Losito & Mintrop, 2001); and
- Assessment and quality assurance in civic and citizenship education (Birzea et al., 2004).

Table 1.2: Mapping of variables to contextual framework (examples)

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

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



School and community contexts

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

The ICCS school questionnaire was used to gather data on the contexts and characteristics of the local community. Variables pertaining to the community level included urbanization (antecedent), resources for citizenship learning in the local area (antecedent), and civic-related activities directed at promoting civic engagement within the local community (process). The ICCS school questionnaire also sought information about the existence of social tensions in the community and how those issues affected school life.

The teacher questionnaire collected data on teacher/student participation in civic-related activities in the local community and teachers' personal participation in groups or organizations in the local community. It also collected data about teachers' and students' participation in civic-related activities in the local community and the degree of commitment by the school and its community to constructing relationships between the two.

School and classroom contexts

School contexts and characteristics influence the development of young people's knowledge about civics and citizenship, and their dispositions and competencies in relation to their roles as citizens. A major influence is the school's general ethos, culture, and climate, within which the policies relating to both the formal and the informal civics and citizenship curriculum reside.

Aspects of school and classroom contexts that contribute to student civic and citizenship understandings include classroom organization and management, classroom and cross-curricular activities and projects, and the resources, materials, and technologies employed in teaching and assessment processes. The relationships among students and between teachers and students are further important aspects of the school context. These relationships are influenced by the school's decision-making processes and the opportunities that school stakeholders have to participate in formal and informal governance processes.

The school questionnaire sought information on important antecedent variables at the school level, such as principals' characteristics and school characteristics and resources. It also asked about process-related variables concerning school management, school climate, teacher, parent, and student participation at school, and the implementation of civic and citizenship education at school. It covered aspects of school management and organization (Eurydice 2007), and autonomy to establish courses and activities (both curricular and extra-curricular) linked to civic and citizenship education as well as broader autonomy (Reezigt & Creemers, 2005). And it collected information on teacher, parent, and student involvement in governance (Losito & D'Apice, 2003; Ranson, Farrell, Peim, & Smith, 2005) and on school climate. School climate can be interpreted as the "impressions, beliefs, and expectations held by members of the school community about their school as a learning environment, their associated behavior, and the symbols and institutions that represent the patterned expressions of the behavior" (Homana, Barber, & Torney-Purta, 2006, p. 3). The school questionnaire also sought information on how civic and citizenship education is implemented in schools.

The teacher questionnaire gathered information about teacher characteristics, teachers' participation in school governance, teachers' views of student influence on school-based



decisions, teachers' confidence in teaching methods, teachers' practices in the classroom, and teachers' perceptions of school climate and of classroom climate and discipline. An optional section included questions for teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education. These teachers were asked for their views on civic and citizenship education at school and on practices used to teach this subject area at school.

School climate focuses on the school as a democratic learning environment and the contribution of teachers in establishing a democratic ethos inside the school. Classroom climate is a general concept focused mainly on co-operation in teaching and learning activities, fairness of grading, and social support. Research literature suggests that democratic classroom climate may help students understand the advantages of democratic values and practices and may have a positive effect on their active assimilation (see, for example, Perliger, Canetti-Nisim, & Pedahzur, 2006). The CIVED results highlighted the importance of classroom climate in civic and citizenship education. This variable was found to be significantly positively associated with student performance, student willingness to engage in civic-related activities, and student expectation of participating as an informed voter and member of a community (Torney-Purta & Barber, 2004).

The student questionnaire sought information about the classroom climate for civic and citizenship education, the views that students have of their influence on decision-making at school, and students' perceptions of school climate. Torney-Purta et al. (2001) found that students' perceptions of the openness of school climate during discussions of political and social issues predicted the extent of students' civic knowledge and students' expectations to vote when they reached adulthood, while Homana et al. (2006) reported evidence of a positive association between a positive school climate and student engagement in civic-related learning experiences. The student questionnaire also asked students about their perceptions of their influence on decision-making at school; there is evidence that student perceptions of direct influence on school or classroom matters are negatively associated with civic knowledge (Almgren, 2006).

Home environment

The home and family contexts and characteristics that can influence the development of young people's knowledge, competencies, and beliefs in civics are many. They include peer-group interactions, educational resources in the home, culture, religion, values, and language use. They also include the relationship status of the young person within the family, parental education, income and employment levels, access to different kinds of media, the quality of the connections between school and home, and the range of civic-related opportunities that are available to young people outside of school.

There is general consensus in the research literature that family background has a positive influence on the political development of adolescents if that background provides these young people with a stimulating environment and enhances their educational attainment and future prospects. These factors, in turn, foster political involvement as an individual resource.

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



Measures of different aspects of social capital (trust, norms, and social interaction) include attitudinal and background variables. Some reflect social capital related to the home environment; in particular, interactions with parents, peers, and media. Other aspects are manifest in interpersonal trust and voluntary participation in civic-related organizations.

Aspects of the home environment that are antecedents of student learning and development and that were measured in ICCS through the student background questionnaire included (i) parental socioeconomic status, (ii) cultural and ethnic background, (iii) parental interest in political and social issues, and (iv) family composition. The ICCS student background questionnaire also collected data on process-related variables that reflected social interactions outside of school (e.g., discussing political and social issues with parents and peers and accessing information through media).

Socioeconomic status (SES) is widely regarded as an important explanatory factor that influences learning outcomes in many different and complex ways (Saha, 1997). There is a general consensus that socioeconomic status is represented by income, education, and occupation (Gottfried, 1985; Hauser, 1994) and that using all three variables is better than using only one (White, 1982). International studies typically have to address issues related to cross-national comparability of these measures (Buchmann, 2002). ICCS measured SES through parental occupational status (Ganzeboom, de Graaf, & Treiman, 1992), parental educational attainment, and home literacy resources.

International studies confirm the importance of language and immigrant status on reading achievement (Stanat & Christensen, 2006) and on mathematics achievement (Mullis et al., 2000). Students from immigrant families, especially those families that have arrived recently in their new country, tend to lack proficiency in the language of instruction and to be unfamiliar with the cultural norms of the dominant culture (Lehmann, 1996). ICCS used information about country of birth (mother, father, and student) and language used at home (language of test versus other languages) to measure students' cultural and ethnic family backgrounds.

There is evidence that young people whose parents engage them in discussions about politics and civic issues tend to have higher levels of civic knowledge and engagement (Lauglo & Øia, 2006; Richardson, 2003). ICCS asked students to what extent their parents were interested in political and social issues and the frequency with which they discussed political and social issues with their parents. Analysis of CIVED data showed that frequency of political discussions is a positive predictor of both feelings of efficacy and expected participation (Richardson, 2003; Schulz, 2005).

Student contexts

Individual students' development of understandings, competencies, and dispositions can be influenced by a number of characteristics, some of which link to family background. Antecedents at this level, collected through the student questionnaire, included the student characteristics of age, gender, and expected educational qualifications. The student questionnaire also collected process-related factors, such as leisure-time activities and active civic participation at school and in the community.

During adolescence, civic knowledge and (at least some forms of) engagement increase with age (Amadeo et al., 2002). However, there is also evidence that students' level of trust in the responsiveness of institutions and students' willingness to engage in conventional forms of active political participation decrease toward the end of secondary school (Schulz, 2005). In addition, analyses of students' civic knowledge and engagement data show differences, albeit mixed, between males and females in the extent and nature of that knowledge and engagement (Amadeo et al., 2002; Torney-Purta et al., 2001).



Data collection and ICCS instruments

The main survey data collection took place in the 38 participating countries between October 2008 and June 2009. The survey was carried out in countries with a Southern Hemisphere school calendar between October and December 2008, and in those with a Northern Hemisphere school calendar between February and May 2009.

In countries with a Southern Hemisphere school calendar, the survey was conducted in early 2009, at the beginning of the new school year, when students were already in Grade 9. In a few countries, the teacher survey data collection was extended in order to achieve better participation rates.

Several instruments were administered as part of ICCS. The following instruments were administered to students.

- *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. 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.
- *A 40-minute international student questionnaire*: this was used to obtain student perceptions about civics and citizenship as well as information about each student's background.
- *A set of regional instruments*: these took between 15 and 30 minutes to complete and focused on particular issues associated with civics and citizenship in three regions—Asia, Europe, and Latin America.

The regional instruments or modules were an innovative feature of ICCS. Their purpose was to allow assessment of region-specific aspects of civic and citizenship education. Participating countries in the regions of Asia, Europe, and Latin America could elect to participate in the relevant regional module. Nearly all of these countries decided to do so. Five countries participated in the Asian module, 24 in the European module, and six in the Latin American module.

The regional instruments were administered after completion of the international student test and questionnaire:

- *The Asian regional instrument* was a 15-minute questionnaire.
- *The European regional instrument* consisted of a 12-minute cognitive test and a 17-minute questionnaire (29 minutes total).
- *The Latin American regional instrument* consisted of a 15-minute cognitive test and a 15-minute region-specific questionnaire (30 minutes total).

In addition to the international and regional instruments, ICCS offered several international options in the questionnaires and asked the national centers to consider them. These options comprised items concerning students' ethnicity, household composition, and religion, and a number of specific questions for teachers of civic and citizenship education. Nineteen national centers chose to include the item on ethnicity, 37 national centers opted to include the item on household composition, and 28 chose to include the items on religion in the student questionnaire. Three national centers opted for asking only some of the items on students' religion. Thirty-seven national centers chose to administer the set of specific questions for teachers of civic and citizenship education.



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

- *A 30-minute teacher questionnaire*: this 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 as their own teaching assignments and backgrounds.
- *A 30-minute school questionnaire*: here, principals provided information about school characteristics, school culture and climate, and the provision of civic and citizenship education in the school.

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 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 six countries as well as extensive consultation with the national project coordinators and expert consultants.
- The second phase comprised the implementation of an international field trial in all participating countries and the analysis of the data collected from smaller samples of schools, students, and teachers.
- 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 for both test and questionnaire items.³

Links to CIVED and reporting changes since 1999

Twenty-one of the 38 countries participating in ICCS took part in the IEA CIVED study in 1999. However, the national centers of some of these countries did not express interest in measuring change over time, and some countries assessed different grades during the two surveys. Four of these countries (Cyprus, Denmark, Hong Kong SAR, and the Russian Federation) did not collect comparable data, either because of differences in the target population or changes to the test instrument.

This situation left 17 countries with comparable national samples and test items, thus allowing comparisons to be made between CIVED achievement and ICCS achievement. In two of these countries (England and Sweden), readers need to take into account, when interpreting the results, differences between CIVED and ICCS in relation to the grades or ages of the populations assessed.

CIVED cognitive link items were included as a cluster in the ICCS assessment. This addition made it possible to derive comparable scale scores for the CIVED sub-scale "content knowledge" (Schulz & Sibberns, 2004; Torney-Purta et al., 2001).⁴



³ Examples of the different methodological approaches that were employed to assess measurement equivalence of questionnaire scales are given in Schulz (2009).

⁴ Scale scores for "content knowledge" were derived by using the same item parameters and applying the same transformation to obtain comparable data.

Report context and scope

This publication extends the report of initial findings from ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010). It is complemented by regional reports for Asia, Europe, and Latin America, a technical report, and an ICCS international database and user guide. A compilation of accounts of policy and practice in civics and citizenship education in each of the participating countries is also scheduled.

Eight further chapters follow this introductory chapter. Chapter 2 describes the national contexts for civic and citizenship education in ICCS countries. It addresses common patterns as well as interesting policies and practices in specific countries and groups of countries.

Chapter 3 reports on the levels of civic and citizenship knowledge across countries and changes in civic content knowledge since 1999. It describes how the ICCS cognitive test was used to measure civic and citizenship knowledge, and it documents how countries compared on the resultant scale. Chapter 3 also reports on gender differences, especially with respect to trends between 1999 and 2008/2009 and the extent of variance between schools and classrooms.

In Chapter 4, we explore students' civic-related value beliefs and attitudes and analyze the extent to which these constructs varied across countries. The student questionnaire was used to collect information on these constructs, which encompassed value beliefs and attitudes, democratic value beliefs, citizenship concepts, views on gender rights, the rights of ethnic/racial groups and immigrants, trust in institutions, and attitudes toward country, as well as engagement with religion. In Chapter 4, standardized scale indices are used to report the strength of key beliefs and attitudes across countries, differences between males and females, and correlations with civic knowledge.

Chapter 5 focuses on issues relating to students' current civic engagement, motivation, self-beliefs, and present and expected future civic participation. Scale indices provide the basis for reporting gender differences, relationships with civic knowledge, and variations across countries.

Chapter 6 describes issues of school and community contexts related to civic and citizenship education. This chapter includes data from the school, teacher, and student questionnaires. It also describes the variation in school and community contexts and its relationship to students' civic knowledge and understanding.

In Chapter 7, we report on the association between aspects of student background and some outcomes of civic and citizenship education, such as civic knowledge and interest in social and political issues. We also report on relationships between these outcomes and cultural and immigrant background, socioeconomic background, and home orientations toward social and political issues.

Chapter 8 presents the outcomes of a multivariate and multilevel model used to explain variations in civic knowledge and engagement, and provides insight into the factors associated with civics and citizenship. The chapter also focuses, for each country, on replicated two-level models designed to explore factors influencing civic knowledge and engagement in that country.

In Chapter 9, we summarize and discuss the results of ICCS. We also provide a summary of the main findings that emerged from ICCS in relation to the research questions and discuss the possible implications of these for policy and practice.



CHAPTER 2:

The contexts for civic and citizenship education

As emphasized in the *ICCS Assessment Framework* (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008), a study of civic-related learning outcomes and indicators of civic engagement needs to be set in the context of the different 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 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 related to the home background and the out-of-school social environment of the student 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 explore the means by which students in the 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 in this chapter about these general characteristics come from published sources, while the more detailed information about the nature of civic and citizenship education in the education systems of the ICCS countries is drawn from the ICCS national contexts survey. Each national ICCS center drew 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 official documents on civic and citizenship education in their countries.

We begin this chapter by detailing the background and purpose of the national contexts survey. We then, in the second section of the chapter, present the summary information relating to the population, economy, and political and education systems of each of the 38 countries. In the final (third) section of the chapter, we describe the key variables, as evident in the national contexts survey data, associated with national approaches to civics and citizenship education.



Collecting data on contexts for civic and citizenship education

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 opening chapter of CIVED's international report (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001) provided basic data on the demographic, economic, political, and educational characteristics of the participating countries.

The research team responsible for ICCS decided that collecting information about the context of the wider community 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 several studies that also focused on the country context (Birzea et al., 2004; Cox, Jaramillo, & Reimers, 2005; Eurydice, 2005; Lee, Grossman, Kennedy, & Fairbrother, 2004). The ICCS researchers therefore focused their main effort on developing and implementing an online national contexts survey to be completed by the ICCS national research coordinators (NRCs) with assistance from people throughout each country identified 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 civic and citizenship education, school curriculum approaches to civic 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 that 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 ICCS countries

Collecting selected basic information about the demographic and economic characteristics of 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 areas such as civic and citizenship education, in particular. Second, this information aids understanding of the data collected, at all levels, from students, teachers, and schools as well as of data collected from the national contexts survey.

Table 2.1 presents selected information about the demographic and economic characteristics of ICCS countries. As can be seen, the countries vary considerably in population size, with both large countries, such as Indonesia (population over 200 million), and small countries, such as Liechtenstein (population under 50,000), participating in the study. Similar diversity is evident with respect to the country scores and rankings for ICCS countries on the Human Development Index (HDI). Twenty-three countries have a very high HDI, 10 have a high HDI, and 5 have a medium HDI. The top-ranked country is Norway; the bottom-ranked is Guatemala. The Asian countries participating in ICCS were categorized as very high or medium on the HDI, the European countries as very high or high, and the Latin American countries as high or medium.



Table 2.1 also shows considerable variation across the ICCS countries with respect to economic characteristics, as measured by the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita. This index established Denmark, Ireland, Luxembourg, and Norway as having relatively high GDP per capita (in U.S. dollars), and the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Paraguay, and Thailand as having relatively low 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 political characteristics of the ICCS countries. These features include legal voting age, whether voting is compulsory, and voter turnout at the last legislative election. Also provided is information about the number of political parties in Parliament and the percentage of seats held by women in Parliament. Again, variation is evident across the 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 Chinese Taipei, where it is 20, Indonesia and Korea, where it is 17, and 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 only 10: Belgium (Flemish), Chile, Cyprus, Dominican Republic, Greece, Luxembourg, Malta, Mexico, Paraguay, and Thailand. However, the extent to which these countries enforce compulsory voting varies across them. Table 2.2 shows voter turnout ranging from over 93 percent in Belgium (Flemish) and Malta to 40 percent in Colombia, the number of political parties in Parliament ranging from 2 in Malta to 20 in Colombia, and the percentage of seats held by women in Parliament ranging from 8 percent in Colombia to 47 percent in Sweden.

Table 2.3 sets out selected education characteristics of the participating countries. The table highlights varying levels of adult literacy, ranging from 73 percent of adults in Guatemala to 100 percent in Finland, Norway, 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), and details the number of internet hosts in each country. (Note that information on internet hosts tends to change rapidly.)

National approaches to civic and citizenship education

As 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) emphasis on processes and topics in the national curricula, 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 participating countries, as reported by the national research centers.

Education policies related to civic and citizenship education

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 how that country approaches that subject in practice. CIVED, for example, showed civic education as a “low-status” subject in the 1990s. This status was reflected in the policy agendas of the participating countries and made particularly apparent when policies in this area of education were compared to policies relating to subjects such as science, mathematics, and languages. Table 2.4 reveals the priority that each of the countries participating in ICCS 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 its current reforms in this area of education.



Table 2.1: Selected demographic and economic characteristics of 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
Chile	16,746	0.878	(44)	High	9,878
Chinese Taipei	23,025	0.943 ^c	(25)	Very high	29,800 ^d
Colombia	44,205	0.807	(77)	High	4,724
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
Dominican Republic	9,824	0.777	(90)	Medium	3,772
England	51,446 ^e	0.947 ^f	(21)	Very high	45,442 ^f
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
Guatemala	13,550	0.704	(122)	Medium	2,536
Hong Kong SAR	7,090	0.944	(24)	Very high	29,912
Indonesia	242,968	0.734	(111)	Medium	1,918
Ireland	4,623	0.965	(5)	Very high	59,324
Italy	58,091	0.951	(18)	Very high	35,396
Korea, Republic of	48,636	0.937	(26)	Very high	20,014
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
Mexico	112,469	0.854	(53)	High	9,715
Netherlands	16,783	0.964	(6)	Very high	46,750
New Zealand	229	0.950	(20)	Very high	32,086
Norway	4,676	0.971	(1)	Very high	82,480
Paraguay	6,376	0.761	(101)	Medium	1,997
Poland	38,464	0.880	(41)	High	11,072
Russian Federation	139,390	0.817	(71)	High	9,079
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
Thailand	62,348	0.783	(87)	Medium	3,844

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 DGBAS of Taiwan.(2009). *Human Development Index of Taiwan in 2007*. National Statistics, 192. Retrieved August 24, 2010, from <http://www.stat.gov.tw/public/Data/910616273671.pdf>.

^d Data estimated for 2009. Source: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2004rank.html>.

^e Data relate to 2008. Source: http://www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme_compendia/AA2010/aa2010final.pdf (Table 5.5).

^f Data refer to the whole of the United Kingdom.

Sources:

U.S. Census Bureau, Population Division: <http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idb/> [12/8/10]

Human Development Report 2009—total population (millions): <http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/135.html> [9/6/10]

CIA World Factbook—country comparison—population size: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2119rank.html> [09/06/10]

Human Development Report 2009—Human Development Index: <http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/87.html> [9/6/10]

Human Development Report 2009—GDP per capita (US\$): <http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/152.html> [9/6/10]



Table 2.2: Selected political characteristics of ICCS countries

Country	Legal Age of Voting	Compulsory Voting (Y/N)	Voter Turnout at Last 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 ^b	8 ^b	41 ^b
Bulgaria	18	No	55.8	6	21
Chile	18	Yes	87.7	4 ^a	14 ^a
Chinese Taipei	20	No	58.5	4 ^c	30 ^d
Colombia	18	No	40.5	20 ^{a,e}	8 ^a
Cyprus	18	Yes	89.0	6	14
Czech Republic	18	No	64.5	5 ^a	22 ^a
Denmark	18	No	86.6	8	37
Dominican Republic	18	Yes	56.5	3 ^a	21 ^a
England	18	No	61.4 ^f	11 ^{a,f}	22 ^{a,f}
Estonia	18	No	61.9	6	24
Finland	18	No	65.0	8	42
Greece	18	Yes	74.1	5	17
Guatemala	18	No	60.5	11	12
Hong Kong SAR	18	No	45.2 ^g	12 ^h	18 ⁱ
Indonesia	17	No	84.1	9	18
Ireland	18	No	67.0	6 ^a	13 ^a
Italy	18	No	80.5	9 ^a	21 ^a
Korea, Republic of	17	No	46.0	6	14
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
Mexico	18	Yes	58.9	7 ^a	28 ^a
Netherlands	18	No	80.4	10 ^a	41 ^a
New Zealand	18	No	79.5	7	34
Norway	18	No	77.4	7	40
Paraguay	18	Yes	65.5	8 ^a	13 ^a
Poland	18	No	53.9	5 ^a	20 ^a
Russian Federation	18	No	63.7	4 ^a	14 ^a
Slovak Republic	18	No	54.7	6	15
Slovenia	18 ^j	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
Thailand	18	Yes	78.5	7 ^a	12 ^a

Notes:

Data for legal age of voting and whether compulsory are correct as of June 2010 and are taken from *CIA World Factbook*.

Data for voter turnout relate to elections held between 2004–2009 and are taken from the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA).

Data relating to the number of political parties in Parliament are correct from the date of the last parliamentary election in country and are taken from IPU PARLINE database on national parliaments. Alliances of a number of small parties may be counted as just one party.

^a Bicameral structured parliament. Data refer to lower house.

^b Data refer to the Flemish regional parliament. Source: <http://polling2009.belgium.be/>.

^c Source: <http://www.taiwan.gov.tw/ct.asp?xItem=27167&ctNode=1921&mp=1001>.

^d Yang, W.-Y. (2008). *Critical mass in parliament*. Bongchhi Women's ePaper, 259. Retrieved from <http://forum.yam.org.tw/bongchhi/old/tv/tv258.htm> [27/7/10].

^e As at 8 September 2010, the Election Commission had not published the final results of the election in March 2010; data refer to previous election period.

^f Data refer to the whole of the United Kingdom.

^g Source: http://www.elections.gov.hk/legco2008/eng/turnout/tt_gc_GC.html.

^h Number of parties in Parliament includes political parties as well as other political groups. Source: http://www.ndi.org/files/2408_hk_report_engpdf_10082008.pdf.

ⁱ Source: http://www.legco.gov.hk/general/english/sec/reports/a_0809.pdf.

^j 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>

International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA)—parliamentary—voter turnout: <http://www.idea.int/uid/fieldview.cfm?field=221>

IPU PARLINE database on national parliaments—number of political parties in parliament: <http://www.ipu.org/parline-e/parlinesearch.as>.

IPU PARLINE database on national parliaments—seats in parliament (% held by women): <http://www.ipu.org/parline-e/parlinesearch.asp>



Table 2.3: Selected education characteristics of 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
Chile	96.5	3.2	877,817
Chinese Taipei	96.1 ^a	4.4 ^c	5,704,000
Colombia	92.7	4.7	2,217,000
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
Dominican Republic	89.1	3.6	280,457
England	99.0 ^{a,d}	5.6 ^d	9,322,000 ^d
Estonia	99.8	5.1	706,449
Finland	100.0 ^a	6.4	4,205,000
Greece	97.1	4.4	2,342,000
Guatemala	73.2	2.6	132,049
Hong Kong SAR	93.5 ^a	3.9	813,980
Indonesia	92.0	3.6	865,309
Ireland	99.0 ^a	4.7	1,303,000
Italy	98.9	4.5	22,152,000
Korea, Republic of	97.9 ^a	4.6	301,270
Latvia	99.8	5.1	257,414
Liechtenstein	100.0 ^{a,e}	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
Mexico	92.8	5.5	12,716,000
Netherlands	99.0 ^a	5.3	12,388,000
New Zealand	99.0 ^a	6.2	2,007,000
Norway	100.0 ^a	7.2	3,198,000
Paraguay	94.6	4.0	71,487
Poland	99.3	5.5	8,906,000
Russian Federation	99.5	3.8	7,663,000
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
Thailand	94.1	4.2	1,231,000

Notes:

Data for "adult literacy rate" are 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 the *CIA World Factbook*.

Data for internet hosts relate to 2009 and were taken from the *CIA World Factbook*.

^a Data taken from *CIA World Factbook*, relating to 2000–2004.

^b Data refers to the whole of Belgium.

^c DGBAS of Taiwan. (2010). Governments' ratios of public expenditure on education to GDP. *Statistical Manual*, 2010(2).

Retrieved from <http://www.dgbas.gov.tw/public/data/dgbas03/bs1/handbook/bs2/p2-24.xls>.

^d Data refers to the whole of the United Kingdom.

^e Data refers 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>

CIA World Factbook—field listing—literacy: Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2103.html?countryName=&countryCode=xx®ionCode=s?countryCode=xx#xx>

CIA World Factbook—field listing—education expenditures: [https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2206.html?countryName=&countryCode=®ionCode=+](https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2206.html?countryName=&countryCode=®ionCode=)

CIA World Factbook—country comparison—Internet hosts: Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2184rank.html>



The ICCS national centers in 15 countries regarded civic and citizenship education as having a high policy priority, 20 as having only a medium policy priority, and two (New Zealand and Switzerland) as having 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 or official definitions include different contexts of civic and citizenship education, as outlined in Table 2.4, 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" and offering a "participatory school culture."

The majority of ICCS countries have in place broad, diversified policy approaches that position civic and citizenship education not solely in relation to the curriculum but also in relation to the contexts of the school and wider community. As is evident in Table 2.4, most of the 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. According to the national contexts survey data, the majority of ICCS countries have set their civic and citizenship education policies within three overlapping contexts—curriculum, school, and the wider community.

The general curriculum context defines how civic and citizenship education 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 34 of the ICCS countries set the curriculum subject context for civics and citizenship as either a specific subject or they integrate this material into other subjects. This same data set revealed that the context for this area of education is cross-curricular in 29 countries. In 28 countries, the context includes assemblies and special events. In 29, it includes extracurricular activities, and in 30, it includes 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 31 countries includes student participation, in 33 countries the definition incorporates school ethos, values, and culture, and in 28 it includes parents and community. In 25 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 31 countries stated that the policy for this area includes the former approach; those in 27 countries said it includes the latter.

In 15 countries, the policy definition of civic and citizenship education was recorded as including all the contexts and approaches listed. Eight of those countries (Colombia, England, Guatemala, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mexico, and Spain) reported giving a high priority to this area in their education policies.





Table 2.4: Education policy for civic and citizenship education: priority, contexts and approaches, and current reforms in ICCS countries

Country	Civic and citizenship education priority in education policy	Inclusion of Civics and Citizenship Contexts in Policy Definition											School curriculum or approaches for target grade revised at time of data collection (y/n)			
		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				
Austria	Medium	●	●	○	○	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No
Belgium (Flemish)	Medium	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes
Bulgaria	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No
Chile	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Chinese Taipei	Medium	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Colombia	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	No
Cyprus	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Czech Republic	Medium	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes
Denmark	Medium	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No
Dominican Republic	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
England	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	No
Estonia	Medium	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No
Finland	Medium	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes
Greece	High	●	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes
Guatemala	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Hong Kong SAR	Medium	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Indonesia	High	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No
Ireland	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Italy	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Korea Republic of	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Latvia	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Liechtenstein	Medium	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No
Lithuania	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Luxembourg	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes

Table 2.4: Education policy for civic and citizenship education: priority, contexts and approaches, and current reforms in ICCS countries (contd.)

Country	Civic and citizenship education priority in education policy	Inclusion of Civics and Citizenship Contexts in Policy Definition											School curriculum or approaches for target grade revised at time of data collection (y/n)			
		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				
Malta	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Mexico	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Netherlands	High	●	○	○	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	No
New Zealand	Low	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	Yes
Norway	Medium	●	○	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	Yes
Paraguay	Medium	●	○	○	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	No
Poland	Medium	●	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	No
Russian Federation	Medium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Slovak Republic	No priority	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes
Slovenia	High	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	Yes
Spain	High	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes
Sweden	Medium	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No
Switzerland	Low	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes
Thailand	High	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes

Inclusion of contexts

● Yes ○ No



Table 2.4 also shows the extent to which the 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. Twenty-six of the 38 participating 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 comparative studies reveal that countries generally consider that it is important to include civic and citizenship education in their 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, Cox et al., 2005; Eurydice, 2005).

Table 2.5 shows that, in the majority of countries participating in ICCS, lower-secondary school 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 ICCS countries, the majority of them take one or more (often simultaneously) of three main approaches to this provision:

- 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.

Eighteen of the 38 countries reported providing civic and citizenship education as a specific and compulsory subject or course for all study programs and school types. In two countries (Colombia and Greece), this subject was offered for only some study programs. In most of the 18 countries, civic and citizenship education can also be integrated into other subjects and included as part of a cross-curricular approach.

Thirty-two of the participating countries said that they provide civic and citizenship education by integrating it into several subjects. Twenty-seven countries reported providing civic and citizenship education through a cross-curricular approach for all study programs. In two countries, this provision was evident in only some study programs. Most of the participating countries that provide civic and citizenship education by integrating it into other subjects also provide this area of educational provision through a cross-curricular approach.

In a large number of countries, the national ICCS centers reported provision of civic and citizenship education through assemblies and special events (28 countries), extra-curricular activities (28 countries), or the classroom experience and ethos (29 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; Torney-Purta et al., 1999).



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

Table 2.5: Approaches to civic and citizenship education in the curriculum for lower-secondary education in ICCS countries

Country	Approaches to Civic and Citizenship 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			●	●	●	●	●
Chile			●	●	●	●	●
Chinese Taipei	●			●	●	●	●
Colombia ¹	*	*	●	●	*	*	●
Cyprus			●	●	●	●	●
Czech Republic	●		●	●			
Denmark ²			●	●			●
Dominican Republic	●		●	●	●	●	●
England	●		●	●	●	●	●
Estonia	●		●	●			
Finland			●	●		●	●
Greece ^{1,3}	*		●		●		●
Guatemala			●	●	●	●	●
Hong Kong SAR				●	●	●	
Indonesia	●						
Ireland	●		●	●	●	●	●
Italy			●	●	●	●	●
Korea Republic of	●		●	●	●	●	●
Latvia			●	●	●	●	●
Liechtenstein			●		●	●	●
Lithuania	●		●	●	●	●	●
Luxembourg	●		●	●	●	●	●
Malta			●	*	●	●	●
Mexico	●		●	●	●	●	●
Netherlands			●			●	
New Zealand ⁴			●	●	●	●	●
Norway			●		●		●
Paraguay	●		●			●	
Poland	●				●	●	
Russian Federation	●			●	●	●	●
Slovak Republic	●			*	*	*	*
Slovenia	●		●		●		●
Spain	●		●	●	●	●	●
Sweden			●	●			
Switzerland ⁵	●		●	●			●
Thailand			●		●	●	●

● For all study programs and school types

* For some study programs

Notes:

¹ The data relate to the ICCS target grade because there are differences in approach between grades within the lower-secondary phase.

² There is no formal national curriculum but a series of ministry guidelines that form a “common curriculum” that includes civic and citizenship education.

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 come up in a number of subjects.

⁴ Civic and citizenship education is a major part of the social studies curriculum.

⁵ There are considerable differences in approaches 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.

Table 2.6 shows the emphasis the ICCS participating countries give to civic processes in their curricula for civic and citizenship education at the target grade (Grade 8). Here we can see that all 38 ICCS countries view civic and citizenship education as encompassing a variety of processes. They typically view this area of education as a means of developing 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 38 countries place some or a major emphasis on processes underpinning knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship. Most also give some or major emphasis to the process of developing positive attitudes among students through the following means:

- Participation and engagement in civic and civil society (37 countries);
- Communicating through discussion and debate (36 countries);
- Developing a sense of national identity and allegiance (35 countries); and
- Participating in projects and written work (32 countries).

Fewer countries emphasize:

- Creating opportunities for student involvement in decision-making in school (31 countries);
- Creating opportunities for student involvement through community-based activities (29 countries);
- Analyzing and reflecting on participation and engagement opportunities (28 countries);
- Observing, analyzing, and reflecting on change processes in the school (22 countries); and
- Observing, analyzing, and observing change processes in the community (29 countries).

Previous research shows a broadening of the range and scope of topics addressed in civic and citizenship education (Evans, 2009; Kennedy, 2009; Pasek, Feldman, Romer, & Jamieson, 2008). 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 focusing 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 the rapid spread of globalization (Eurydice, 2005).

Table 2.7 details the civic and citizenship topics that the participating countries cover in their national curricula at the target grade. Taken as a group, the 38 countries cover a broad range of topics in their national curricula but give varying degrees of emphasis to them. Many of the countries place a major emphasis on human rights, government systems, and voting and elections. 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/international organizations, and regional institutions and organizations (such as the European Union).

The topics that the ICCS countries most frequently nominated as having a major emphasis in their respective national curricula for civic and citizenship education were human rights (25 countries), understanding different cultures and ethnic groups (23 countries), the environment (23 countries), parliamentary and governmental systems (22 countries), and voting and elections (19 countries).



Table 2.6: Emphasis given to civics and citizenship processes in the curriculum for students at the 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 ...
	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 and civil society	
Austria	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	○	○	*	*	*	
Belgium (Flemish)	*	●	●	●	*	●	*	*	*	○	○	*	
Bulgaria	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	●	●	
Chile	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	●	●	●	
Chinese Taipei	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Colombia	*	●	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	●	
Cyprus	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Czech Republic	●	●	*	○	*	*	*	*	*	○	○	○	
Denmark	●	●	●	●	*	*	○	*	*	*	*	*	
Dominican Republic	●	●	●	*	*	*	○	○	○	○	●	●	
England	●	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	●	*	●	
Estonia	●	●	●	*	○	○	○	○	○	○	●	●	
Finland	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	●	
Greece ¹	●	●	●	●	*	●	*	○	*	○	○	●	
Guatemala	●	*	*	*	*	○	○	○	○	○	○	*	
Hong Kong SAR	*	*	*	*	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	*	
Indonesia	●	●	●	●	*	○	●	*	*	*	●	●	
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	●	
Italy	●	●	●	*	*	*	●	*	*	*	●	●	
Korea Republic of	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	●	●	●	
Latvia	*	*	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	●	*	
Liechtenstein ¹	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	●	●	
Lithuania	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	○	○	○	*	●	
Luxembourg	*	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	●	
Malta	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Mexico	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Netherlands	*	●	●	*	*	○	○	○	○	○	*	●	
New Zealand	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	



Table 2.6: Emphasis given to civics and citizenship processes in the curriculum for students at the country's ICCS target grade (contd.)

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 ...
	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 and civil society
Norway	●	●	●	●	*	*	○	○	*	*	*	●
Paraguay	●	*	*	○	○	*	*	○	○	*	●	*
Poland	●	●	*	*	○	*	*	*	*	*	●	*
Russian Federation	●	●	●	*	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*
Slovak Republic	●	●	*	*	*	○	○	○	○	○	*	*
Slovenia	*	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	○	*	*
Spain	●	●	●	●	*	●	*	*	*	●	○	●
Sweden	●	●	●	*	○	●	*	○	○	*	*	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	*	○	○	○	○	*	*	*	●
Thailand	●	●	*	●	●	*	●	*	●	*	●	●

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.

Table 2.7: Emphasis given to topics in the curriculum of civic and citizenship education for students at the country's ICSS 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 organizations	Regional institutions and organizations	The environment	
Austria	*	*	●	●	*	●	*	*	●	*	*	●	
Belgium (Flemish)	*	○	●	*	●	*	○	●	*	*	○	●	
Bulgaria	●	*	●	●	*	●	*	*	*	*	●	●	
Chile	●	*	●	*	●	●	●	*	●	●	*	*	
Chinese Taipei	*	●	*	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	●	
Colombia	●	*	●	*	*	○	○	●	*	*	○	●	
Cyprus	●	*	*	*	●	*	○	*	*	*	*	*	
Czech Republic	*	*	*	●	*	○	○	○	*	*	*	*	
Denmark	*	*	●	●	*	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Dominican Republic	●	*	*	●	●	*	○	*	*	*	○	*	
England	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Estonia	●	●	●	●	*	●	●	*	*	*	*	○	
Finland	●	*	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	●	●	
Greece 1	●	*	*	*	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Guatemala	○	*	●	○	*	*	○	○	○	○	○	*	
Hong Kong SAR	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
Indonesia	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	●	
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	●	●	●	●	●	
Italy	●	○	●	*	*	*	●	*	*	*	●	●	
Korea Rep. of	●	●	●	●	●	●	*	●	●	●	*	●	
Latvia	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Liechtenstein 1	●	*	●	*	*	●	○	●	*	*	*	●	
Lithuania	●	*	*	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Luxembourg	●	*	●	*	*	*	●	●	*	*	*	●	
Malta	*	●	*	●	*	●	●	*	●	●	●	●	
Mexico	●	*	●	●	●	○	*	●	*	*	*	●	
Netherlands	●	*	●	*	*	○	●	●	○	*	*	*	
New Zealand	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Norway	●	●	*	●	*	*	○	*	*	*	○	●	
Paraguay	*	●	*	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	●	●	
Poland	*	*	*	●	●	*	*	*	*	*	●	●	
Russian Federation	○	○	*	○	○	●	*	*	*	○	○	●	



Table 2.7: Emphasis given to topics in the curriculum of civic and citizenship education for students at the country's ICCS target grade (contd.)

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 organizations	Regional institutions and organizations	The environment
Slovak Republic	●	●	●	●	●	*	○	*	*	●	●	*
Slovenia	●	○	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	●
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	*	*	●	*	●	●	●
Sweden	●	*	●	*	*	*	*	*	●	●	○	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	*	○	●	●	*
Thailand	*	●	●	●	●	●	*	●	*	*	*	●

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 topics can be addressed through other subjects.

Source: ICCS 2009 national contexts survey, reference year is 2008/09.

Topics less frequently nominated as a major emphasis across national curricula were legal systems and courts (14 countries), communications studies (13 countries), the economy and economics (12 countries), regional institutions and organizations (11 countries), and resolving conflict (11 countries). Only six countries nominated participation in voluntary groups as 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-making agendas is considerable discussion about whether the quality standards established for civic and citizenship education compare with those set down for other subjects and areas. This consideration is particularly pertinent with regard to student assessment and school evaluation.

The Eurydice survey (Eurydice, 2005) showed that the range of curriculum 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 ICCS national contexts data, civic and citizenship education is mainly taught in the ICCS countries as topics integrated into various other subjects (refer Table 2.5).

The CIVED teacher survey indicated that, across the participating countries, those responsible for teaching civics and citizenship generally had to cope with a lack of resources and training in this area. The Eurydice and Council of Europe 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 training for teachers at both pre-service and in-service levels as limited, sporadic, informal, and inconsistent. The forms of training that were evident encompassed brief sessions for all teachers in initial teacher education and dedicated programs for in-service teachers specializing in civics and citizenship education. Non-specialist in-service teachers could attend such courses on an optional basis.

Table 2.8 presents a summary of the ICCS data on all of these teacher-related matters as well as 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 participating 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 in the ICCS teacher survey data. 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 this area of learning. We noted that teachers of related subjects were teaching civics and citizenship as integrated topics in 35 countries, teachers across all subjects were teaching this content in 14 countries, and civic and citizenship education specialists were teaching this area of education in 13 countries.

As is evident in Table 2.8, more countries were providing in-service training for at least one group of teachers (32 countries) than were providing training through initial teacher education (27 countries).





Table 2.8: Approaches to teaching, teacher training, student assessment, and school evaluation for civic and citizenship education in ICCS countries

Country	Teachers of Civic and Citizenship Education at ICCS Target Grade			Coverage of Civic and Citizenship Education for <Target Grades> Teachers ...						Assessment of students in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)	Evaluation of schools in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)			
	All teachers	Integrated subjects	Specialists in civic and citizenship education	in in-service education										
				All teachers	Integrated subjects	Civic and citizenship education specialists	All teachers	Integrated subjects	Civic and citizenship education specialists			School leaders	Status of training	
Austria	●	●	○	●	>	>	>	>	>	>	>	■	No	No
Belgium (Flemish)	●	●	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	No	Yes
Bulgaria	○	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	Yes
Chile	●	●	○	>	●	>	>	○	○	○	○	◆	Yes	Yes
Chinese Taipei	○	○	●	○	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Colombia	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	Yes
Cyprus	>	●	>	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	>	■	No	No
Czech Republic	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	◆	No	^
Denmark ¹	●	●	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	No	No
Dominican Republic	○	●	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	Yes
England	●	●	●	○	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Estonia	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	No
Finland	●	●	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	◆	Yes	No
Greece ²	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	◆	Yes	Yes
Guatemala	●	●	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	No	No
Hong Kong SAR	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	No	Yes
Indonesia	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Ireland	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	Yes
Italy	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	No
Korea Republic of	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	Yes
Latvia	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Liechtenstein	○	●	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	◆	Yes	No
Lithuania	>	●	●	>	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes
Luxembourg	○	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	No
Malta	>	●	>	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	Yes	Yes
Mexico	●	●	●	○	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	■	Yes	Yes

Table 2.8: Approaches to teaching, teacher training, student assessment, and school evaluation for civic and citizenship education in ICCS countries

Country	Teachers of Civic and Citizenship Education at ICCS Target Grade				Coverage of Civic and Citizenship Education for <Target Grades> Teachers ...									
	All teachers	Integrated subjects	Specialists in civic and citizenship education	in in-service education										
				All teachers	Integrated subjects	Civic and citizenship education specialists	All teachers	Integrated subjects	Civic and citizenship education specialists	School leaders	Status of training			
Assessment of students in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)		Assessment of schools in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)		Assessment of students in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)		Assessment of schools in relation to civic and citizenship education (y/n)								
Netherlands	○	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	No	Yes
New Zealand ³	○	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes	No
Norway	○	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes	No
Paraguay	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes	No
Poland	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes	Yes
Russian Federation	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes	Yes
Slovak Republic	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	●	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes	No
Spain	○	●	○	○	●	<	<	<	<	<	<	<	Yes	No
Sweden	●	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes	Yes
Switzerland ⁴	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes	No
Thailand	○	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Yes	Yes

Civic and citizenship education teachers and training in existence: ● yes ○ no

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

Notes:

- ^ No data provided or not applicable.
- 1 There is no formal national curriculum but a series of ministry guidelines that form a "common curriculum" that includes civic and citizenship education.
- 2 Civic and citizenship education is not taught in the ICCS target grade and there is no intended integration. However, civics and citizenship topics can come up in a number of subjects.
- 3 Civic and citizenship education is a major part of the social studies curriculum.
- 4 There are considerable differences in approaches 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.



Eleven countries were offering no training for civic and citizenship education in their initial teacher education provision, six countries were not offering this training in their in-service professional development programs, 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 ICCS countries deliver civics and citizenship content in their lower-secondary school curricula. Twenty-three countries provide pre-service training in this area for teachers teaching civic and citizenship education topics integrated into other subjects, 15 countries provide this training for all teachers, and 10 provide it for specialist teachers. In 29 countries, teachers can receive in-service training if they teach civics and citizenship topics as material integrated into other subjects. In 22 countries, they receive this training if they are generalist teachers, and in 14 countries, they are offered this training if they are specialist teachers. Twenty-two countries reported offering school leaders in-service training in civic and citizenship education.

Only four countries (Indonesia, Latvia, Paraguay, and the Russian Federation) mandate teacher training in civic and citizenship education. The national centers of 29 participating countries reported that teachers could access this training on an optional basis.

Previous research, such as that by Jerome (2008) and Kerr, Keating, & 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 evident in Table 2.8, the majority of the ICCS participating countries provide some form of student assessment in relation to civic and citizenship education; only eight countries make no such provision. Twenty-two countries evaluate schools' provision of civic and citizenship education; 15 do not. (The remaining one country did not provide data on this matter.) Nineteen of the participating 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 civic and citizenship education is provided, particularly at the ICCS target grade (typically Grade 8). These variations, which encompass population size, economic resources, voting behavior, political and education systems, and economic resources, are an important part of any study of young people's civics-related learning outcomes and indicators of their civic engagement.

The ICCS national contexts survey data confirmed that civic and citizenship education is prioritized in the education policy of many of the participating 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 that allow 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 this time.

Overall, the findings show no agreed approach across countries to civic and citizenship education, but rather a mixed tripartite 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 an emphasis on providing opportunities for young people to participate in learning by doing, both in and beyond school.

Across the countries, civic and citizenship education is represented in the respective national curricula by 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.

The majority of the 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 civic and citizenship education. This provision may indicate a broader policy definition of civic and citizenship education—one that favors an approach encompassing school and community contexts.

There was also evidence in the majority of national reports of quality assurance in this learning area. Just over half of the participating countries reported assessing students in relation to civic and citizenship education. A similar number said they evaluate schools with respect to this area of education.



Students' civic knowledge

Civic knowledge refers to the application of the civic and citizenship cognitive processes to the civic and citizenship content described in the *ICCS Assessment Framework* (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). As shown already in Table 2.4 in Chapter 2, developing knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship is a major emphasis of civic and citizenship education programs across ICCS countries. ICCS researchers see civic knowledge as a broad term that denotes understanding and reasoning. It applies to all four content domains in the assessment framework and is regarded as fundamental to effective civic participation.

In this chapter, we detail the measurement of civic knowledge in ICCS and discuss student achievement across the ICCS countries. We begin the chapter by describing the civic knowledge assessment instrument and the described proficiency scale derived from the ICCS test and data. We follow this with a description and discussion of the international student test results relating to ICCS 2009. We also look at the differences, for a subset of relevant countries, between these results and students' performance on the last IEA study of civic education (i.e., CIVED) in 1999. We conclude the chapter with a brief discussion of the achievement of students in the additional grade sample (Grade 9) for the four countries that tested in both grade levels.

The contents of this chapter relate to ICCS Research Questions 1 and 2, which focus on the extent of variation existing among and within countries with respect to student knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship. We also consider the changes in civic knowledge that have occurred since CIVED and address some aspects of Research Question 6, which asked for information on students' background characteristics and achievement.

Assessing civic knowledge

ICCS is the third IEA international study to include measurement of civic knowledge. The IEA Civic Education Study of 1971 included a 47-item test for 14-year-olds in nine countries (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975). The IEA CIVED survey, conducted in 1999, included a 38-item test for 14-year-old students in 28 countries (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001) and a 42-item test for 17- to 18-year-olds in 16 countries (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002).

National assessments of civic knowledge include the U.S. National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which regularly tests students at Grades 4, 8, and 12 in civic-related content (Lutkus, Weiss, Campbell, Mazzeo, & Lazer, 1999; Niemi & Junn, 1998; Torney-Purta, 2000), and the Australian National Assessment Program on Civics and Citizenship, which regularly assesses Grades 6 and 10 students against key performance measures for this learning area (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training, and Youth Affairs, 2006, 2008).

The ICCS civic knowledge test comprised 80 items, of which 79 were used in the analysis.¹ These 79 items are the focus of this report. They typically presented as units in which some brief contextual stimulus (an image or some text) was followed by items relating to the common context. On average, there were 1.4 items per unit. Seventy-three items were multiple-choice and six items were constructed-response. The latter required students to provide responses of between one and four sentences in length. The ICCS test of civic knowledge included a link to the 1999 CIVED survey through the inclusion of 17 secure items from the CIVED item pool. The inclusion of these allowed us to measure changes in performance for countries that participated in both ICCS and CIVED.



¹ One item showed insufficient measurement properties to warrant inclusion in the final set of items for analysis.

As we noted in the introduction to this report, the ICCS assessment framework included four content and two cognitive domains. The assessment instrument was designed to cover content from all domains and to reflect the different applications of that content. The proportions of items across the four content domains were:

- Civic society and systems, 40 percent;
- Civic principles, 30 percent;
- Civic participation, 20 percent; and
- Civic identities, 10 percent.

The proportions across the two cognitive domains were:

- Knowing, 25 percent; and
- Reasoning and analyzing, 75 percent.

The test items were grouped into seven clusters. Six of these contained 10 or 11 items, including one constructed-response item per cluster. The seventh cluster comprised the aforementioned secure items from CIVED. These were included in order to provide a link between CIVED and ICCS.

Each student completed one test booklet consisting of three clusters. In total, there were seven different test booklets, and each cluster appeared in three different booklets—once in each of the first, second, and third positions. This balanced rotation of items meant that the assessment instrument included a larger amount of assessment content than could be completed by any individual student. This approach was necessary to ensure broad coverage of the contents of the ICCS assessment framework.

The ICCS research team used the Rasch model (Rasch, 1960) to derive the cognitive scale from the 79 test items. The final reporting scale was set to a metric that had a mean of 500 (the *ICCS average score*) and a standard deviation of 100 for the equally weighted national samples. Details on scaling procedures for test items will appear in the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

The ICCS described achievement scale

The development of the ICCS described proficiency scale of achievement was based on the contents and scaled difficulties of the assessment items. Initially, the ICCS research team wrote descriptors for each item in the assessment instrument. These detailed the content and cognitive processes assessed by the item. The team then ordered the item descriptors according to item difficulty to produce an item map. Analysis of the item map and student achievement data established proficiency levels that had a width of 84 scale points and level boundaries at 395, 479, and 563 scale points. Student scores under 395 scale points indicate civic and citizenship knowledge proficiency below the level targeted by the assessment instrument.

The proficiency-level descriptions are syntheses of the item descriptors within each level. They describe a hierarchy of civic knowledge in terms of increasing sophistication of content knowledge and cognitive process. Because the scale was derived empirically rather than from a specific model of cognition, increasing levels on the scale represent increasingly complex content and cognitive processes as demonstrated through performance. The scale does not, however, simply extend from simple content at the bottom to reasoning and analyzing at the top. The cognitive processes of knowing and of reasoning and analyzing can be seen across all levels of the scale, depending on the issues to which they apply.

The scale includes a synthesis of the common elements of civic and citizenship content at each level and the typical ways in which students use that content. Each level of the scale references the degree to which students appreciate the interconnectedness of civic systems, as well as the



sense students have of the impact of civic participation on their communities. 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 our civic communities.

The scale is hierarchical in the sense that civic knowledge becomes more sophisticated as student achievement progresses up the scale. However, it is also developmental because of the assumption that any given student is probably able to demonstrate achievement of the scale content below his or her measured level of achievement. Although the scale does not describe a necessary sequence of learning, it does postulate that learning growth typically follows the sequence the scale describes.

Each proficiency level is illustrated by examples of the types of learning content and cognitive processes that students employ when responding to items from that level.

Table 3.1 shows the ICCS civic knowledge described scale. The table includes descriptions of the scale's contents and the nature of the progression between the proficiency levels.

1. Level 1 of the scale is characterized by students' engagement with the fundamental principles and broad concepts that underpin civics and citizenship. Students operating at this level are familiar with the "big ideas" of civics and citizenship; they are generally able to accurately determine what is fair or unfair in familiar contexts and to demonstrate some knowledge of the most basic operations of civic and civil institutions. Students working at Level 1 also typically demonstrate awareness of citizens' capacity to influence their own local context. The key factors that differentiate Level 1 achievement from that of higher levels relate to the degree of specificity of students' knowledge and the amount of mechanistic rather than relational thinking that students express in regard to the operations of civic and civil institutions.
2. Students working at Level 2 typically demonstrate some specific knowledge and understanding of the most pervasive civic and citizenship institutions, systems, and concepts. These students generally understand the interconnectedness of civic and civil institutions, and the processes and systems through which they operate (rather than only being able to identify their most obvious characteristics). Level 2 students are also able to demonstrate understanding of the connection between principles or key ideas and how these operate in policy or practice in everyday, familiar contexts. They can relate some formal civic processes to their everyday experience and are aware that the potential sphere of influence (and, by inference, responsibility) of active citizens lies beyond their own local context. One key factor differentiating Level 2 from Level 3 is the degree to which students use knowledge and understanding to evaluate and justify policies and practices.
3. Students working at Level 3 demonstrate a holistic rather than a segmented knowledge and understanding of civic and citizenship concepts. They make evaluative judgments about the merits of policies and behaviors from given perspectives, justify positions or propositions, and hypothesize outcomes based on their understanding of civic and citizenship systems and practices. Students working at Level 3 demonstrate understanding of active citizenship practice as a means to an end rather than as an "automatic response" expected in a given context. These students are thus able to evaluate active citizenship behaviors in light of their desired outcomes.



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

<p>Level 3: 563 score points and above</p> <p>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.</p> <p><i>Students working at Level 3, for example:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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.
<p>Level 2: 479 to 562 score points</p> <p>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.</p> <p><i>Students working at Level 2, for example:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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.
<p>Level 1: 395 to 478 score points</p> <p>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 recognise 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.</p> <p><i>Students working at Level 1, for example:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 • Justify voluntary voting in the context of freedom of political expression • Recognise 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.

Example ICCS test items

To provide a clearer understanding of the nature of the scale items, we offer seven example items. These not only indicate the types and range of questions that students were required to answer in the ICCS international test but illustrate the responses corresponding to the proficiency levels of the ICCS civic knowledge scale. The data for each example item in the analysis (including calculation of the ICCS average) are drawn only from those countries that met the sample participation, test administration, and coding requirements for that item.

Example Item 1 (Table 3.2) is a constructed-response item. The ICCS civic knowledge test instrument included six constructed-response items coded by expert coders in each country who were trained to international standards.² The coding guide allowed for the allocation of 0 (no credit), 1 (partial credit), or 2 (full credit) for each constructed-response item.

Table 3.2 shows the percentage of students that achieved each level of response credit.³ The full credit response (two points) is located in Proficiency Level 3, and the partial credit (one point) response category is located in Proficiency Level 2 on the ICCS civic knowledge scale.

Example Item 1, relating to the social cohesion sub-domain of the second content domain (civic principles) and to the justification process in the second cognitive domain (reasoning and analyzing) of the ICCS assessment framework, required students to propose two different benefits of public debate for society. Note that the students were given a working definition of public debate because the focus of the item was on understanding the concept of public debate rather than on simply defining the term itself.

One of the advantages of the constructed-response item format in some of the ICCS items was that it provided students with opportunity to demonstrate knowledge and understandings relating to multifaceted civic concepts. Example Item 1 has five different categories of response to the item worthy of credit. Students who were able to generate responses indicative of any two different categories were awarded full credit (two score points) on this item, positioning them at Proficiency Level 3 on the ICCS civic knowledge scale.

In Example Item 1, the provision of more than one creditable response indicates a developing capacity to formulate arguments based on more than one single idea or perspective. The item itself does not require students to formulate a complex reasoned argument, but it does require them to demonstrate the capacity to identify some of the building blocks that can lead to complex argument. Engagement with the concept of the benefit of public debate to society requires students to consider a context broader than that of their local and highly familiar communities and to make connections between the actions of citizens and the possible effects of those actions.

Across participating countries, 17 percent of students, on average, were able to achieve full credit on this item; the achievement percentages in this level ranged from 4 to 39 percent.

The Example 1 students who provided one benefit to society of public debate gained partial credit (worth one score point). Because the benefit that a student provided in response to this item could relate to any of the five different categories listed in the coding guide, it was regarded as indicative of students' awareness of a concept from a single perspective, and so represented a Level 2 standard of proficiency on this item. Across all countries, 56 percent of students, on average, were able to achieve at least partial credit (i.e., either partial or full credit) on this item. The range of percentages across all countries was 32 to 81 percent.

2 Two different scores independently scored about 100 booklets per country in order to assess the reliability of scoring. The only data included in the analysis were those from constructed items with a scoring reliability of at least 75 percent.

3 The percentages of correct responses for this item included in the report on initial findings from ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010, p. 35) were slightly different because omitted responses were not included in the calculation.



Table 3.2: Example Item 1 with overall percent correct

Example Item 1	Country	Percent at Least 1 Point	Percent 2 Points Only
<p>Public debate is when people openly exchange their opinions. Public debate happens in letters to newspapers, TV shows, radio talkback, internet forums, and public meetings. Public debate can be about local, state, national, or international issues.</p> <p>How can public debate benefit society? Give two different ways.</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p style="text-align: center;">CODING GUIDE</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Code 2</p> <p style="text-align: center;">ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 3</p> <p>Refers to benefits from two different categories of the five categories listed below.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • better knowledge or understanding of the substance of an issue or situation • provides solutions to problems OR a forum from which solutions can come • increase in social harmony, acceptance of difference, or reduction of frustration • increases people's confidence or motivation to participate in their society • represents/enacts the principle of freedom of expression for people <p style="text-align: center;">Code 1</p> <p style="text-align: center;">ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 2</p> <p>Refers only to reasons from one of the five listed categories (including responses in which different reasons from the same category are provided).</p>	Austria	43 (2.1)	15 (1.5)
	Belgium (Flemish) †	55 (2.3)	17 (1.3)
	Bulgaria	51 (2.4)	17 (1.4)
	Chile	55 (1.8)	16 (1.0)
	Chinese Taipei	69 (0.9)	25 (1.0)
	Colombia	46 (1.3)	13 (1.0)
	Cyprus	43 (1.7)	7 (0.9)
	Czech Republic †	58 (1.2)	15 (0.9)
	Denmark †	77 (1.5)	35 (1.5)
	England ‡	52 (1.7)	13 (1.1)
	Finland	56 (1.4)	13 (1.0)
	Greece	40 (2.0)	11 (1.1)
	Guatemala ¹	53 (1.7)	12 (0.9)
	Ireland	71 (1.8)	25 (1.3)
	Italy	63 (1.9)	20 (1.3)
	Korea, Republic of ¹	81 (1.0)	39 (1.2)
	Liechtenstein	32 (3.8)	4 (1.7)
	Lithuania	59 (1.5)	15 (1.1)
	Malta	45 (2.8)	15 (1.6)
	Mexico	58 (1.2)	21 (0.9)
	New Zealand †	62 (2.2)	22 (1.4)
	Norway †	61 (1.7)	16 (1.1)
	Paraguay ¹	34 (2.1)	5 (0.8)
	Poland	71 (1.8)	27 (1.4)
	Russian Federation	65 (1.8)	21 (1.3)
	Slovak Republic ²	69 (1.9)	28 (1.6)
	Slovenia	54 (1.4)	14 (1.0)
	Spain	56 (1.8)	12 (1.1)
Sweden	63 (1.5)	19 (1.1)	
Switzerland †	47 (1.6)	8 (1.0)	
Thailand †	54 (1.5)	10 (0.8)	
ICCS average	56 (0.3)	17 (0.2)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements			
Hong Kong SAR	66 (2.5)	13 (1.9)	
Netherlands	32 (2.6)	4 (0.7)	

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Example Items 2 and 3 (Tables 3.3 and 3.4), both multiple-choice items, comprise a unit relating to a common context established by the stimulus material. The two tables show how a unit was presented in the test to students. In Table 3.3, Example Item 3 is in the shaded portion of the table. In Table 3.4, Example Item 2 is in the shaded part of the table. The stimulus text for Example Items 2 and 3 provided students with a context and an example of ethical consumerism.

The two tables show the percentage of students that answered each item correctly. The correct response to each item is indicated with an asterisk (*) at the end of the multiple-choice response option. All multiple-choice items in ICCS were coded as either no credit (zero points) for an incorrect response or full credit (one point) for the correct response. The percentages in each table refer to the item in the non-shaded part of the table.

Example Item 2 (Table 3.3) relates to the ethical consumerism sub-domain of content domain 3 (civic participation) and to the civic motivation process in cognitive domain 2 (reasoning and analyzing) of the ICCS assessment framework. The item required students to interpret the fundamental motivation for civic action as it relates to a familiar example of “unfair” treatment of individuals in the international context.

Students who correctly answered the item met a Level 1 standard of proficiency on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. On average, across all countries, 71 percent of students achieved full credit on this item. The range of percentages across the countries was 38 to 92 percent.⁴

Example Item 3 (Table 3.4) relates to the action or advocacy sub-domain of content domain 3 (civic participation) and to the evaluation process in cognitive domain 2 (reasoning and analyzing) of the ICCS assessment framework. The item required students to evaluate the relative effectiveness of alternative ways of encouraging others to take action in support of a cause. The focus in this item is thus on evaluating different methods of persuasion rather than on determining the motivation for civic protest that was the focus in Example Item 2.

Of the 79 ICCS items, students found this item the easiest one to answer correctly. On average, across all countries, 86 percent of students gained full credit on this item; the achievement range extended from 60 to 97 percent. Students who correctly answered this item were deemed to have achieved *below* Proficiency Level 1 on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. Two reasons may explain why students found this item easy. First, the principle that providing others with information will help persuade them to one’s own point of view is a familiar one. Second, the alternative methods of persuasion offered in the item are readily seen as impractical.

Table 3.5 shows Example Item 4, a CIVED item relating to the equity sub-domain of content domain 2 (civic principles) and to the process of describing in cognitive domain 1 (knowing) of the ICCS assessment framework. Students who correctly answered this item met a Level 1 standard of proficiency on the ICCS civic knowledge scale.

Example Item 4 required students to recognize the fundamental purpose of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The achievement data for this item suggest that this purpose was familiar to most ICCS students. Across all participating countries, 68 percent of students achieved full credit on this item; percentages ranged from 38 to 92 percent. As shown in Chapter 2 (see Table 2.7), many countries emphasize human rights education in their civic and citizenship education programs, which helps explain the extent of students’ familiarity with the purpose of the declaration.



⁴ The percentages of correct responses for this item included in the report on initial findings from ICCS (Schulz et al., 2010, p. 37) were slightly different because omitted responses were not included in the calculation.

Table 3.3: Example Item 2 with overall percent correct

Example Item 2	Country	Percent Correct Response
<p><Male Name> buys new school shoes. <Male Name> then learns that his new shoes were made by a company that employs young children to make the shoes in a factory and pays them very little money for their work. <Male Name> says he will not wear his new shoes again.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 1</p> <p>Why would <Male Name> refuse to wear his new shoes?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He thinks that shoes made by children will not last very long.</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He does not want to show support for the company that made them.*</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He does not want to support the children that made them.</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He is angry that he paid more for the shoes than they are actually worth.</p> <p><Male Name> wants other people to refuse to buy the shoes. How can he best try to do this?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> buy all of the shoes himself so no one else can buy them</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> return the shoes to the shop and ask for his money back</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> block the entrance to the shop so people cannot enter it</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> inform other people about how the shoes are made*</p>	Austria	78 (1.4)
	Belgium (Flemish) †	80 (1.3)
	Bulgaria	70 (1.8)
	Chile	71 (1.5)
	Chinese Taipei	67 (1.1)
	Colombia	68 (1.4)
	Cyprus	51 (1.5)
	Czech Republic †	67 (1.2)
	Denmark †	90 (0.8)
	Dominican Republic	42 (1.4)
	England ‡	81 (1.3)
	Estonia	70 (1.7)
	Finland	92 (0.8)
	Greece	72 (1.4)
	Guatemala ¹	51 (2.0)
	Indonesia	38 (1.5)
	Ireland	84 (1.3)
	Italy	84 (1.0)
	Korea, Republic of ¹	77 (1.1)
	Latvia	73 (1.4)
	Liechtenstein	83 (2.6)
	Lithuania	73 (1.3)
	Luxembourg	73 (1.3)
	Malta	71 (1.8)
	Mexico	58 (1.2)
	New Zealand †	81 (1.4)
	Norway †	82 (1.5)
	Paraguay ¹	51 (1.8)
Poland	76 (1.5)	
Russian Federation	74 (1.1)	
Slovak Republic ²	61 (2.0)	
Slovenia	74 (1.6)	
Spain	81 (1.6)	
Sweden	85 (1.0)	
Switzerland †	84 (1.4)	
Thailand †	56 (1.5)	
ICCS average	71 (0.2)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements		
Hong Kong SAR	72 (1.6)	
Netherlands	71 (3.1)	

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 3.4: Example Item 3 with overall percent correct

Example Item 3	Country	Percent Correct Response	
<p><Male Name> buys new school shoes. <Male Name> then learns that his new shoes were made by a company that employs young children to make the shoes in a factory and pays them very little money for their work. <Male Name> says he will not wear his new shoes again.</p> <p>Why would <Male Name> refuse to wear his new shoes?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He thinks that shoes made by children will not last very long.</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He does not want to show support for the company that made them.*</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He does not want to support the children that made them.</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> He is angry that he paid more for the shoes than they are actually worth.</p> <p><Male Name> wants other people to refuse to buy the shoes.</p> <p>Below ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 1</p> <p>How can he best try to do this?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> buy all of the shoes himself so no one else can buy them</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> return the shoes to the shop and ask for his money back</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> block the entrance to the shop so people cannot enter it</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> inform other people about how shoes are made*</p>	Austria	87	(1.2)
	Belgium (Flemish) †	94	(0.9)
	Bulgaria	79	(1.7)
	Chile	84	(1.0)
	Chinese Taipei	89	(0.7)
	Colombia	75	(1.1)
	Cyprus	73	(1.3)
	Czech Republic †	93	(0.5)
	Denmark †	94	(0.7)
	Dominican Republic	60	(1.7)
	England ‡	92	(1.0)
	Estonia	90	(1.3)
	Finland	97	(0.5)
	Greece	82	(1.4)
	Guatemala ¹	79	(1.3)
	Indonesia	79	(1.4)
	Ireland	93	(0.9)
	Italy	93	(0.7)
	Korea, Republic of ¹	96	(0.4)
	Latvia	86	(1.4)
	Liechtenstein	90	(2.4)
	Lithuania	93	(0.7)
	Luxembourg	85	(1.1)
	Malta	81	(1.5)
	Mexico	75	(1.2)
	New Zealand †	89	(1.1)
	Norway †	89	(1.1)
	Paraguay ¹	72	(1.6)
	Poland	92	(0.8)
	Russian Federation	88	(1.0)
	Slovak Republic ²	94	(0.9)
	Slovenia	90	(0.9)
	Spain	87	(1.1)
Sweden	93	(0.7)	
Switzerland †	93	(0.9)	
Thailand †	82	(1.1)	
ICCS average	86	(0.2)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements			
Hong Kong SAR	89	(1.0)	
Netherlands	88	(2.3)	

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 3.5: Example Item 4 with overall percent correct

Example Item 4	Country	Percent Correct Response
<p style="text-align: center;">ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 1</p> <p>Which of the following is the main purpose of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to promote the political rights of well-educated people</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to decrease political conflicts between countries</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to guarantee the same basic rights to everyone*</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to make it possible for new countries to be established</p>	Austria	73 (1.6)
	Belgium (Flemish) †	66 (2.2)
	Bulgaria	65 (1.6)
	Chile	59 (1.5)
	Chinese Taipei	87 (0.9)
	Colombia	55 (1.2)
	Cyprus	63 (1.4)
	Czech Republic †	77 (0.9)
	Denmark †	75 (1.1)
	Dominican Republic	38 (1.3)
	England ‡	71 (1.3)
	Estonia	69 (1.7)
	Finland	82 (1.0)
	Greece	64 (2.0)
	Guatemala ¹	54 (1.7)
	Indonesia	55 (1.6)
	Ireland	79 (1.6)
	Italy	80 (1.2)
	Korea, Republic of ¹	92 (0.6)
	Latvia	58 (1.8)
	Liechtenstein	76 (3.3)
	Lithuania	73 (1.2)
	Luxembourg	68 (1.3)
	Malta	59 (1.9)
	Mexico	61 (1.2)
	New Zealand †	69 (1.5)
	Norway †	63 (1.5)
	Paraguay ¹	58 (2.0)
	Poland	84 (1.2)
	Russian Federation	72 (1.7)
	Slovak Republic ²	77 (1.4)
	Slovenia	78 (1.2)
Spain	74 (1.6)	
Sweden	64 (1.4)	
Switzerland †	78 (1.7)	
Thailand †	41 (1.3)	
ICCS average	68 (0.3)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements		
Hong Kong SAR	77 (1.9)	
Netherlands	50 (2.6)	

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Example Item 5, which is depicted in Table 3.6 and is another CIVED item, relates to the trade unions aspect of the civil institutions sub-domain of content domain 1 (civic society and systems) and to the process of describing in cognitive domain 1 (knowing) of the ICCS assessment framework. Example Item 5 requires students to recognize the main purpose of labor/trade unions, an institution typically outside Grade 8 students' immediate sphere of awareness. Students who correctly answered this item were deemed to have reached Proficiency Level 2 on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. On average, across all countries, 56 percent of students achieved full credit on this item; the percentage range was 26 to 78 percent.

Table 3.7 shows Example Item 6, an item relating to the media aspect of the civil institutions sub-domain of content domain 1 (civic society and systems) and to the integration process in cognitive domain 2 (reasoning and analyzing) of the ICCS assessment framework. The item requires students to integrate the concepts underpinning laws regulating media ownership with the proposition that societies are advantaged when their media can express a range of views. Correct responses to Example Item 6 indicated a Level 3 standard of proficiency on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. On average, across all countries, 41 percent of students achieved full credit on this item. The percentages ranged from 28 percent to 70 percent.

Example Item 7, shown in Table 3.8, is a CIVED item that relates to the companies/corporations aspect of the civil institutions sub-domain of content domain 1 (civic society and systems) and to the process of describing in cognitive domain 1 (knowing) of the ICCS assessment framework. Because the notion of a multinational company is associated, in part, with international economic forces, students who correctly answered Example Item 7 were deemed to have reached Proficiency Level 3 on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. On average, across all countries, 41 percent of students were able to achieve full credit on this item. The percentages ranged from 22 percent to 68 percent.

Table 3.9 shows the location of each of the example items on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. The scale was developed using a response probability of 0.62. In practical terms, this means a student with an ability equal to that of the difficulty of a given item will have a 62 percent chance of answering the given item correctly. In Table 3.9, for example, a student with a measured ability of 521 scale points would have a 62 percent chance of achieving partial credit on Example Item 1 (proposing one benefit of public debate) and a less than 62 percent chance of achieving full credit on that item (proposing two benefits of public debate). The same student would have a greater than 62 percent chance of correctly answering Example Items 2, 3, 4, and 5 and a less than 62 percent chance of correctly answering Example Items 6 and 7.

If we establish the response-probability and bounded-level widths (in the present case, 84 scale points), we can calculate the expected success of a given student on a theoretical set of items spanning the difficulty range of a given bounded level. Thus, from the data in Table 3.9, we can expect that a student with a score of 395 scale points will have correctly answered at least 50 percent of the items spanning Level 1. A student with more than 395 scale points will still be in Level 1, but it is likely that he or she will have correctly answered over 50 percent of the Level 1 items. Thus, if we know where, within a level, a student's proficiency score sits, we can be confident that he or she will have correctly answered most of the questions for that level, regardless of the location of that score within it.

Table 3.9 also illustrates the relative difficulty of items and the content and cognitive processes they represent. Items assessing students' reasoning and analytical abilities are not necessarily easier or more difficult than those that assess knowing. Question difficulty is a product of how familiar a student is with the concepts inherent in that question and how proximate those concepts are to the student's world. Difficulty also depends on the type of cognitive processing (including that required to discount multiple-choice items) that the student needs to do to answer the question. As is evident from Table 3.9, relatively simple processing of complex content requires proficiency similar to that needed for complex processing of familiar content.



Table 3.6: Example Item 5 with overall percent correct

Example Item 5	Country	Percent Correct Response
<p style="text-align: center;">ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 2</p> <p>What is the main purpose of <labour/trade unions>? Their main purpose is to ...</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> improve the quality of products produced</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> increase the amount that factories produce</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> improve conditions and pay for workers*</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> establish a fairer tax system</p>	Austria	49 (1.3)
	Belgium (Flemish) †	63 (1.8)
	Bulgaria	58 (1.5)
	Chile	59 (1.4)
	Chinese Taipei	56 (1.2)
	Colombia	62 (1.1)
	Cyprus	54 (1.3)
	Czech Republic †	51 (1.3)
	Denmark †	71 (1.3)
	Dominican Republic	44 (2.0)
	England ‡	52 (1.9)
	Estonia	54 (1.9)
	Finland	72 (1.1)
	Greece	68 (1.2)
	Guatemala ¹	47 (1.8)
	Indonesia	26 (1.1)
	Ireland	54 (1.6)
	Italy	78 (1.1)
	Korea, Republic of ¹	77 (1.0)
	Latvia	50 (1.9)
	Liechtenstein	35 (3.9)
	Lithuania	48 (1.3)
	Luxembourg	44 (1.2)
	Malta	64 (1.7)
	Mexico	63 (1.2)
	New Zealand †	49 (1.3)
	Norway †	51 (1.8)
	Paraguay ¹	52 (1.3)
	Poland	76 (1.5)
	Russian Federation	49 (1.8)
	Slovak Republic ²	45 (1.9)
	Slovenia	67 (1.4)
Spain	66 (1.6)	
Sweden	56 (1.6)	
Switzerland †	49 (1.9)	
Thailand †	60 (1.3)	
ICCS average	56 (0.3)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements		
Hong Kong SAR	53 (2.1)	
Netherlands	54 (2.1)	

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 3.7: Example Item 6 with overall percent correct

Example Item 6	Country	Percent Correct Response	
<p>In many countries, media such as newspapers, radio stations and television stations are privately owned by media companies. In some countries, there are laws which limit the number of media companies that any one person or business group can own.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 3</p> <p>Why do countries have these laws?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to increase the profits of media companies</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to enable the government to control information presented by the media</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to make sure there are enough journalists to report about the government</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> to make it likely that a range of views is presented by the media*</p>	Austria	39	(1.3)
	Belgium (Flemish) †	42	(1.6)
	Bulgaria	40	(1.7)
	Chile	41	(1.3)
	Chinese Taipei	35	(1.2)
	Colombia	47	(1.4)
	Cyprus	43	(1.3)
	Czech Republic †	29	(1.1)
	Denmark †	52	(1.2)
	Dominican Republic	28	(1.1)
	England ‡	40	(1.4)
	Estonia	35	(1.6)
	Finland	70	(1.3)
	Greece	41	(1.6)
	Guatemala ¹	50	(1.3)
	Indonesia	28	(1.1)
	Ireland	40	(1.3)
	Italy	41	(1.6)
	Korea, Republic of ¹	50	(1.1)
	Latvia	40	(1.6)
	Liechtenstein	41	(4.0)
	Lithuania	43	(1.4)
	Luxembourg	32	(1.0)
	Malta	31	(1.7)
	Mexico	46	(0.9)
	New Zealand †	40	(1.5)
	Norway †	47	(1.7)
	Paraguay ¹	44	(2.0)
	Poland	43	(1.4)
	Russian Federation	40	(1.5)
	Slovak Republic ²	33	(1.6)
	Slovenia	41	(1.3)
	Spain	37	(1.6)
	Sweden	44	(1.6)
Switzerland †	33	(2.1)	
Thailand †	41	(1.1)	
ICCS average	41	(0.3)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements			
Hong Kong SAR	40	(1.5)	
Netherlands	32	(1.9)	

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 3.8: Example Item 7 with overall percent correct

Example Item 7	Country	Percent Correct Response
<p style="text-align: center;">ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 3</p> <p>Most multinational businesses are owned and managed by ...</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> companies from developed countries*</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> companies from developing countries</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> the United Nations</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> the World Bank</p>	Austria	35 (1.4)
	Belgium (Flemish) †	22 (1.4)
	Bulgaria	37 (1.6)
	Chile	48 (1.4)
	Chinese Taipei	51 (1.2)
	Colombia	41 (1.4)
	Cyprus	37 (1.5)
	Czech Republic †	25 (1.0)
	Denmark †	68 (1.6)
	Dominican Republic	35 (1.4)
	England ‡	43 (1.4)
	Estonia	27 (1.6)
	Finland	47 (1.4)
	Greece	37 (1.7)
	Guatemala ¹	43 (1.6)
	Indonesia	32 (1.2)
	Ireland	57 (1.6)
	Italy	50 (1.8)
	Korea, Republic of ¹	54 (1.1)
	Latvia	34 (1.5)
	Liechtenstein	43 (4.4)
	Lithuania	54 (1.5)
	Luxembourg	27 (1.0)
	Malta	53 (1.9)
	Mexico	45 (1.1)
	New Zealand †	46 (1.6)
	Norway †	24 (1.3)
	Paraguay ¹	32 (1.3)
	Poland	36 (1.7)
	Russian Federation	37 (1.8)
	Slovak Republic ²	42 (1.7)
Slovenia	51 (1.7)	
Spain	43 (1.6)	
Sweden	45 (1.7)	
Switzerland †	40 (2.0)	
Thailand †	29 (1.2)	
ICCS average	41 (0.3)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements		
Hong Kong SAR	50 (2.1)	
Netherlands	35 (3.1)	

Notes:

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

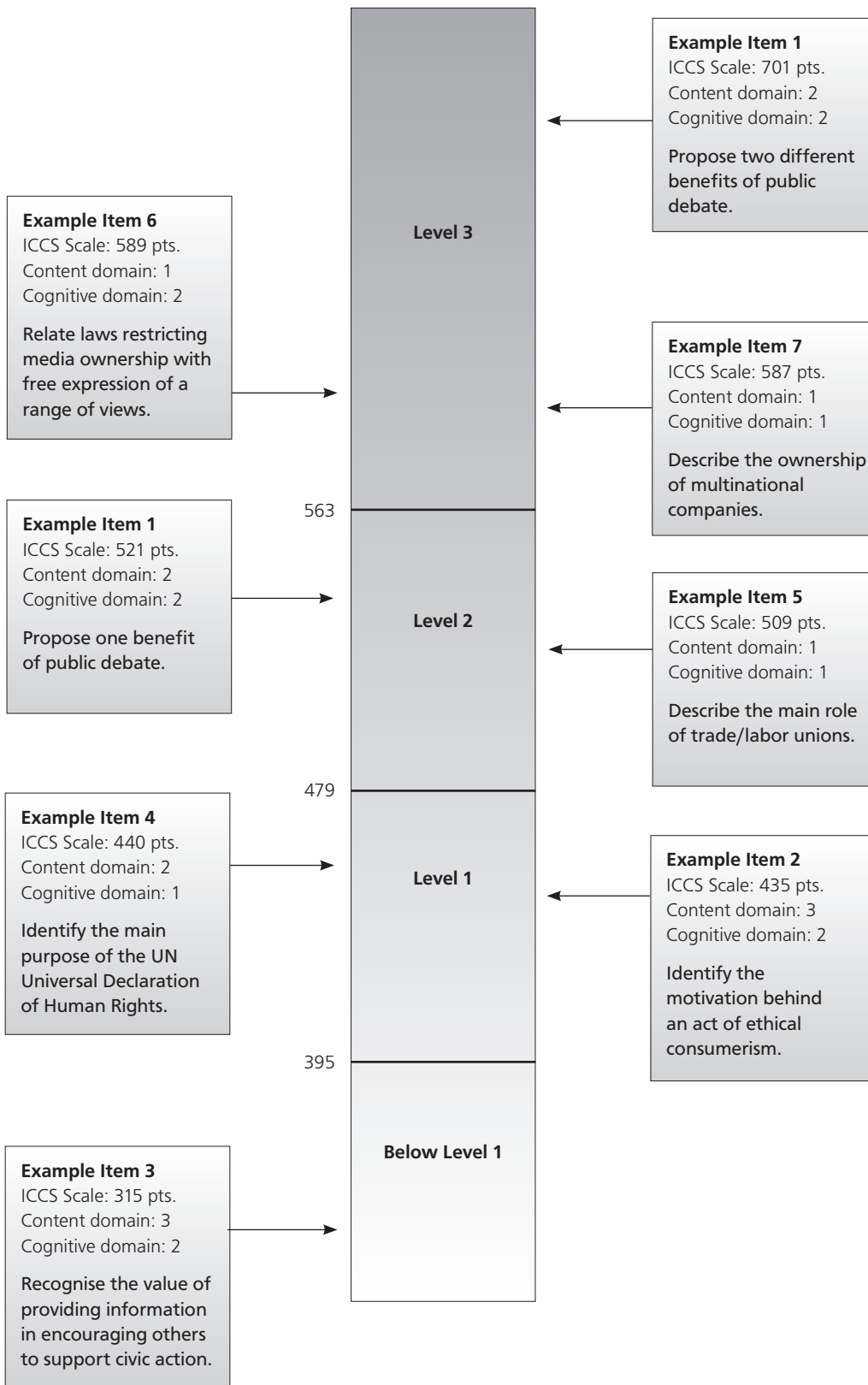
† Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

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

¹ Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 3.9: Location of example items on the civic knowledge scale



Comparison of civic knowledge across countries

Table 3.10 shows the distribution of student achievement on the civic knowledge test for all countries. The average country scores on the civic knowledge scale ranged from 380 to 576 scale points, thereby forming a range that spanned a standard of proficiency below Level 1 to a standard of proficiency at Level 3. The span was equivalent to almost two standard deviations.

Different countries had different distributions of scores. This pattern can be seen graphically in Table 3.10, where the length of the bars shows the distribution of student scores for each country. The spread appeared to be unrelated to the average scale score for that country. The variation in student civic knowledge scores within countries was greater than that between countries;⁵ in most countries, the distance between the lowest 5 percent and the highest 95 percent of civic knowledge scores was around 300 scale points.

The average scale scores of four countries—Austria, Lithuania, the Russian Federation, and Spain—were not statistically significantly different from the ICCS average of 500 scale points. Fourteen countries had national averages that were significantly below the ICCS average, and 18 countries had national averages that were significantly higher than the international average. The difference between the bottom quartile and the top quartile (i.e., the area covering the middle half of the averages for countries) was 60 scale points—more than half a standard deviation.

The slight difference between the average scores of adjacent countries in Table 3.10, typically less than 10 scale points (one tenth of a standard deviation), denotes a relatively consistent achievement gradient across the set of ICCS countries. Larger differences are evident for only five pairs of countries (Denmark and the Republic of Korea, Chinese Taipei and Sweden, Austria and Malta, Thailand and Guatemala, and Paraguay and the Dominican Republic). The four countries with the highest average scores—Finland, Denmark, the Republic of Korea, and Chinese Taipei—form a small group near the top of the scale. These countries are separated by a range of 17 scale points, which is followed by a gap of 22 scale points to the next country, Sweden. At the lower end of the scale, the average performance of students in the Dominican Republic is 43 scale points below that of the students in Paraguay.

Variations across countries with respect to associations between civic knowledge, Human Development Index, and student age

Table 3.10 also includes the Human Development Index (HDI) value for each country. 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). The extent of educational and economic development in the ICCS countries indicated by the HDI values in Table 3.10 provides a point of reference when considering the variations in civic knowledge scores.

The HDI ranges from 0 to 1 and has four categories: *very high* (HDI greater than 0.9), *high* (HDI between 0.8 and 0.9), *medium* (HDI between 0.5 and 0.8), and *low* (HDI less than 0.5). The HDI is also used as one of the means of classifying a country as *developed* (very high HDI) or *developing* (all other HDI categories).

A strong association can be seen across the countries listed in Table 3.10 between HDI and average civic knowledge scale scores ($r = 0.75$). Of the 18 countries with average civic knowledge scale scores statistically significantly above the ICCS average, 15 have very high HDI and three have high HDI.



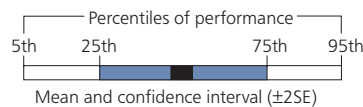
⁵ A hierarchical linear modeling assuming three levels (students, schools, and countries) based on 34 countries with sufficiently large school sample sizes indicated that 54 percent of the overall variance in civic knowledge scores was within schools, 23 percent between schools, and 23 percent between countries.

Table 3.10: Country averages for civic knowledge, years of schooling, average age, Human Development Index, and percentile graph

Country	Civic Knowledge										Average scale score	HDI
	Years of schooling	Average age	200	300	400	500	600	700	800			
Finland	8	14.7									576 (2.4) ▲	0.96
Denmark †	8	14.9									576 (3.6) ▲	0.96
Korea, Republic of ¹	8	14.7									565 (1.9) ▲	0.94
Chinese Taipei	8	14.2									559 (2.4) ▲	0.94
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 ²	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
New Zealand †	9	14.0									517 (5.0) ▲	0.95
Slovenia	8	13.7									516 (2.7) ▲	0.93
Norway †	8	13.7									515 (3.4) ▲	0.97
Belgium (Flemish) †	8	13.9									514 (4.7) ▲	0.95
Czech Republic †	8	14.4									510 (2.4) ▲	0.90
Russian Federation	8	14.7									506 (3.8)	0.82
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
Chile	8	14.2									483 (3.5) ▼	0.88
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
Colombia	8	14.4									462 (2.9) ▼	0.81
Cyprus	8	13.9									453 (2.4) ▼	0.91
Mexico	8	14.1									452 (2.8) ▼	0.85
Thailand †	8	14.4									452 (3.7) ▼	0.78
Guatemala ¹	8	15.5									435 (3.8) ▼	0.70
Indonesia	8	14.3									433 (3.4) ▼	0.73
Paraguay ¹	9	14.9									424 (3.4) ▼	0.76
Dominican Republic	8	14.8									380 (2.4) ▼	0.78

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	8	14.3									554 (5.7)	0.94
Netherlands	8	14.3									494 (7.6)	0.96



▲ Achievement significantly higher than the ICCS average
▼ Achievement significantly lower than the 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Of the 14 countries with average civic knowledge scale scores statistically significantly below the ICCS average, four have very high HDI, five have high HDI, and five (the five countries with lowest average civic knowledge scale scores) have medium HDI. No countries with low HDI participated in ICCS.

We can also see in Table 3.10 some variation in the average age of students in the target grade (Grade 8) across countries. The average age ranged from 13.7 to 15.5 years, although only a few countries were at the extreme ends of this range. The relationship between student age and civic knowledge scale scores varies within countries and across countries. Patterns in association between average student age across countries and average civic knowledge scale scores are superficially less clear than the patterns for HDI, partly because average student age across countries relates to local conditions, such as the age at which children begin school, and to student retention and progression rates, factors that may, in turn, be associated with HDI.

We conducted a regression analysis to assist interpretation of the relationship between average student age, HDI, and average civic knowledge scale scores across countries and to account for the potential interaction between HDI and student age as predictors of civic knowledge scale scores. The outcome variable in the analysis was the average ICCS civic knowledge scale score for each country; the average student age and the HDI for each country were predictors.

Both HDI and student age were significantly positively associated with average civic knowledge scale scores. Across countries, one year of average student age was associated with an increase of 35 civic knowledge scale points and 0.1 HDI was associated with an increase of 54 civic knowledge scale points.

Despite this general pattern of positive association, the interaction between age and HDI makes interpreting it difficult. Of the ICCS countries, those with lower HDI tend to have older students in the target grade (refer Table 3.10). The correlation between age and HDI across countries is -0.43, an association that can also be seen when we compare the average ages of students in countries classified as developed (HDI > 0.9) and of students in countries classified as developing (HDI < 0.9). These ages are 14.25 and 14.66, respectively.

Variations within countries with respect to associations between civic knowledge and student age

The regression analysis presented in Table C.1 of Appendix C used the ICCS scale score as the outcome variable and student age as a predictor. In 31 countries, a statistically significant negative association emerged between age and civic knowledge scale scores. No statistically significant association was evident for Norway and the Russian Federation. In Chinese Taipei, England, and the Republic of Korea, the association was statistically significant and positive.

The high proportion of countries with negative associations between age and achievement is a typical outcome of studies that draw grade-based samples of students. In some countries, students regarded as having higher academic potential begin school at a younger age and move more quickly through the years of schooling than other students (and therefore make up a higher proportion of younger students in a given grade level).

Variations in retention and progression policies across countries also tend to influence within-country associations between age and achievement, as is apparent in Table 3.10. Here we can see the differences in ICCS scale scores across those countries with students in the same grade but whose age range spanned one year. This difference was quite large in Austria, where the scores of older students were typically 42 scale points lower than those of students one year younger in the same grade. In comparison, older students in England typically achieved scores 18 scale points higher than students one year younger in the same grade. Across the combined international sample, age was not, however, a statistically significant predictor of ICCS scale scores within the target grade.



Multiple comparisons of civic knowledge

The information in Table 3.11 allows us 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 is 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 is statistically significantly lower than the scale score in the comparison country. Cells without a symbol indicate that no statistically significant difference emerged between the ICCS civic knowledge scale scores of the two countries.

Table 3.11 also helps us clarify the differences between countries that have relatively small differences in average civic knowledge scale scores. For example, if we look at the scale scores for Finland and Denmark, the two countries with the highest average scale scores, we can see that the difference between the scores is not significant. However, the average scale scores of these two countries is statistically significantly higher than the average scale scores of the next two countries, the Republic of Korea and Chinese Taipei.

The cells on the diagonal from top left to bottom right of Table 3.11 are blank because these cells represent comparisons between each country and itself. However, the width of the empty cells around the diagonal illustrates the size of clusters of countries with no statistically significant difference between average civic knowledge scale scores. Near the top left of Table 3.11, for example, there are no statistically significant differences between the scale scores of any two of Sweden, Poland, Ireland, Switzerland, Liechtenstein, Italy, and the Slovak Republic. We can see similar clusters of countries when we look down the diagonal. Also evident, however, is a pattern wherein the scale score differences across countries with average scores at the lower end of the scale are typically greater than are the scores for countries nearer the middle to upper reaches of the scale. Sweden, for example, shows no statistically significant differences between its average civic knowledge scale score and the average scale scores of six other countries. Belgium (Flemish), likewise, shows no such differences with respect to 10 other countries. However, a number of countries with low civic knowledge scores, such as Cyprus, Indonesia, Mexico, and Thailand, each show statistically significant differences with all but the two countries ranked near them on the scale.

Achievement across countries with respect to proficiency levels

The countries in Table 3.12 run in descending order according to the percentage of students with scores that positioned them at Proficiency Level 3 on the scale. Not surprisingly, the order of countries in Table 3.12 is very similar to that in Table 3.11, where the countries appear in descending order of average score. (The slight differences are a result of different distributions of students across the levels within the countries that have similar average student civic knowledge scores.)

The data in Table 3.12 show that, across all countries, 84 percent of students achieved scores that placed them within ICCS civic knowledge Proficiency Levels 1, 2, and 3, and that, overall, the distribution of student scores across countries was largely within Levels 2 and 3. In 13 countries, Level 3 had the highest percentage of students; in another 13 countries, most students were at Level 2. In 22 countries, more than 60 percent of all students had scores at Levels 2 and 3. In two countries, the highest percentage of students was below Level 1; in eight more countries, the highest percentage of students was at Level 1. In seven countries, more than 60 percent of students were at Level 1 or below.



Table 3.12: Percentages of students at each proficiency level across countries

Country	Below Level 1	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	
	(less than 395 score points)	(from 395 to 479 score points)	(from 479 to 563 score points)	(563 score points and more)	
Finland	2 (0.3)	10 (0.7)	30 (1.2)	58 (1.3)	
Denmark †	4 (0.5)	13 (0.8)	27 (1.1)	56 (1.6)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	3 (0.3)	12 (0.6)	32 (0.9)	54 (1.1)	
Chinese Taipei	5 (0.4)	15 (0.8)	29 (1.0)	50 (1.3)	
Liechtenstein	8 (1.4)	18 (1.9)	30 (2.4)	45 (2.0)	
Ireland	10 (1.1)	20 (1.4)	29 (1.2)	41 (1.8)	
Poland	9 (1.0)	19 (1.1)	31 (1.0)	41 (2.0)	
Sweden	8 (0.8)	21 (0.9)	32 (1.1)	40 (1.4)	
Italy	7 (0.7)	20 (1.0)	35 (1.0)	38 (1.5)	
Slovak Republic ²	7 (0.9)	22 (1.4)	34 (1.4)	37 (2.2)	
Switzerland †	6 (0.8)	21 (1.5)	37 (1.3)	37 (1.8)	
Estonia	8 (1.1)	22 (1.3)	34 (1.4)	36 (2.1)	
New Zealand †	14 (1.2)	22 (1.5)	28 (1.4)	35 (2.1)	
England ‡	13 (1.2)	22 (0.9)	31 (1.2)	34 (1.6)	
Norway †	11 (0.9)	24 (1.1)	33 (1.1)	32 (1.3)	
Slovenia	9 (0.9)	25 (1.1)	36 (1.2)	30 (1.2)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	8 (1.2)	24 (1.7)	39 (1.6)	29 (2.1)	
Austria	15 (1.4)	25 (1.2)	32 (1.2)	29 (1.4)	
Czech Republic †	10 (0.7)	27 (1.0)	36 (1.1)	28 (1.1)	
Spain	11 (1.3)	26 (1.3)	37 (1.5)	26 (1.8)	
Russian Federation	10 (0.9)	29 (1.5)	36 (1.2)	26 (1.8)	
Lithuania	9 (0.8)	28 (1.2)	39 (1.2)	24 (1.3)	
Malta	17 (1.6)	26 (1.8)	33 (1.9)	24 (2.3)	
Greece	22 (1.7)	28 (1.3)	29 (1.1)	21 (1.4)	
Bulgaria	27 (1.8)	26 (1.5)	27 (1.6)	20 (1.9)	
Chile	16 (1.3)	33 (1.2)	32 (1.3)	19 (1.1)	
Luxembourg	22 (1.2)	30 (1.0)	29 (0.8)	19 (0.6)	
Latvia	15 (1.6)	33 (1.3)	35 (1.7)	16 (1.4)	
Cyprus	28 (1.0)	32 (1.0)	27 (1.0)	13 (0.9)	
Colombia	21 (1.3)	36 (1.0)	32 (1.1)	11 (0.8)	
Mexico	26 (1.3)	36 (1.1)	27 (1.0)	10 (0.8)	
Thailand †	25 (1.6)	38 (1.4)	29 (1.6)	8 (1.1)	
Paraguay ¹	38 (1.9)	35 (1.6)	20 (1.2)	7 (0.7)	
Guatemala ¹	30 (1.7)	42 (1.6)	22 (1.4)	5 (1.2)	
Indonesia	30 (1.9)	44 (1.5)	22 (1.3)	3 (0.7)	
Dominican Republic	61 (1.6)	31 (1.3)	7 (0.6)	1 (0.2)	
ICCS average	16 (0.2)	26 (0.2)	31 (0.2)	28 (0.2)	

Below Level 1 Level 1
 Level 2 Level 3

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	7 (1.2)	14 (1.4)	30 (1.5)	50 (2.6)	
Netherlands	15 (2.7)	28 (2.4)	33 (2.3)	24 (3.0)	

Notes:

Countries ranked in descending order by percentages in Level 3.

() 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 3.12 also shows the large differences in the distribution of ICCS civic knowledge scores across countries. If we look at both Tables 3.10 and 3.12, we can see that the four countries with the highest average ICCS civic knowledge scale scores in Table 3.10 were those countries in Table 3.12 that had more than 50 percent of student scores in Level 3, and 80 percent or more in Levels 2 and 3. In contrast, in the four countries with the lowest average ICCS civic knowledge scores, more than 70 percent of student scores fell within Level 1 or below

Gender differences in civic knowledge

The first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971 showed that males obtained significantly higher scores than females on the study's civic knowledge test and that the differences were larger among older students (Torney et al., 1975). The CIVED survey in 1999 found only minor gender differences among lower-secondary students (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). However, among upper-secondary students, males tended to have higher scores than females on the economic literacy scale (Amadeo et al., 2002).

Table 3.13 shows the average scores of female and male students in each country. The average ICCS civic knowledge scores of female students were higher than those of male students both overall and in nearly all countries. The international average score for female students was 511 scale points and for male students was 489 scale points, which resulted in a statistically significant difference of 22 score points. The average scores of female students were statistically significantly higher than those of male students in 31 countries. In Belgium (Flemish), Columbia, Guatemala, Liechtenstein, and Switzerland, differences in the average achievement of female and male students were not significant.

The magnitude of the differences in achievement between female and male students ranged from 2 to 48 scale points. There was no evidence of systematic relationships between the magnitude of differences in achievement by geographical location or average scale score.

Changes in civic content knowledge

All countries participating in ICCS completed the CIVED link items. The scores on these items contributed to the total ICCS scale scores. Eighteen of the countries that participated in CIVED also participated in ICCS, and 17 of these countries used the same item translations in ICCS as in CIVED in order to permit a comparison of performance across time.

Two countries, England and Sweden, tested students at different times of the school year in CIVED and ICCS: England tested its target grade students (Grade 9) at the beginning of the following school year (about half a year later), whereas Sweden undertook its student survey at the beginning of the school year for its target grade (8). Therefore, in England, the students surveyed in CIVED were about half a year older than those surveyed in ICCS, and in Sweden the students who participated in CIVED were about half a year younger than those who participated in ICCS. We report the results of these two countries in a separate section of Table 3.14; we do not include them in the overall statistics because of the unknown extent of these differences in the age of the CIVED students and the ICCS students.

The number of countries for which we could conduct valid comparisons of performance between CIVED and ICCS therefore numbered 15. Also, we based our comparison of performance over time on the performance of students on 15 out of the 17 link items included as an intact cluster in the ICCS test. Because of the broadening of the assessment framework since CIVED (see Schulz et al., 2008) and because the available link material consisted almost entirely of items measuring the CIVED sub-domain of civic content knowledge, the only comparisons we could make were for this sub-scale.



Table 3.13: Gender differences in civic knowledge

Country	Mean Scale Score Females	Mean Scale Score Males	Difference (males–females)	Gender Difference				
				(-100)	(-50)	0	50	100
Guatemala ¹	435 (4.2)	434 (4.3)	-2 (3.7)			□		
Colombia	463 (3.1)	461 (4.0)	-3 (4.1)			□		
Belgium (Flemish) †	517 (5.3)	511 (5.6)	-6 (5.8)			□		
Switzerland †	535 (3.0)	528 (5.5)	-7 (4.6)			□		
Denmark †	581 (3.4)	573 (4.5)	-8 (3.5)			■		
Luxembourg	479 (2.8)	469 (3.4)	-10 (4.5)			■		
Liechtenstein	539 (6.4)	526 (6.2)	-12 (10.4)			□		
Chile	490 (4.3)	476 (4.2)	-14 (4.8)			■		
Austria	513 (4.6)	496 (4.5)	-16 (4.7)			■		
Slovak Republic ²	537 (5.4)	520 (4.4)	-18 (4.2)			■		
Czech Republic †	520 (3.0)	502 (2.4)	-18 (2.8)			■		
Italy	540 (3.4)	522 (3.9)	-18 (3.3)			■		
Indonesia	442 (3.9)	423 (3.5)	-19 (3.0)			■		
Spain	514 (4.2)	496 (4.8)	-19 (3.6)			■		
England ‡	529 (6.1)	509 (6.1)	-20 (8.5)	Females Score Higher		■		Males Score Higher
Russian Federation	517 (4.3)	496 (3.8)	-21 (3.4)			■		
Sweden	549 (3.4)	527 (4.2)	-21 (4.5)			■		
Ireland	545 (4.8)	523 (6.0)	-22 (6.2)			■		
Korea, Republic of ¹	577 (2.4)	555 (2.3)	-22 (3.0)			■		
Norway †	527 (3.7)	504 (4.5)	-23 (4.4)			■		
Mexico	463 (3.2)	439 (3.1)	-24 (2.9)			■		
Dominican Republic	392 (2.8)	367 (2.7)	-25 (2.7)			■		
Bulgaria	479 (5.2)	454 (6.1)	-26 (5.3)			■		
Chinese Taipei	573 (2.7)	546 (2.7)	-26 (2.5)			■		
Finland	590 (2.9)	562 (3.5)	-28 (4.3)			■		
Paraguay ¹	438 (4.1)	408 (3.9)	-29 (4.6)			■		
Slovenia	531 (2.6)	501 (3.9)	-30 (4.0)			■		
Latvia	497 (3.7)	466 (5.0)	-30 (3.7)			■		
New Zealand †	532 (5.9)	501 (6.4)	-31 (7.5)			■		
Greece	492 (4.8)	460 (5.1)	-32 (4.5)			■		
Poland	553 (4.5)	520 (5.5)	-33 (4.3)			■		
Estonia	542 (4.8)	509 (4.9)	-33 (3.9)			■		
Malta	507 (7.7)	473 (3.6)	-34 (8.2)			■		
Lithuania	523 (2.9)	488 (3.4)	-35 (3.0)			■		
Cyprus	475 (2.7)	435 (3.2)	-40 (3.7)			■		
Thailand †	474 (3.9)	426 (4.5)	-48 (4.5)			■		
ICCS average	511 (0.7)	489 (0.7)	-22 (0.8)			■		

Countries not meeting sample requirements

Hong Kong SAR	564 (6.5)	543 (8.3)	-21 (9.8)			■		
Netherlands	497 (6.6)	490 (10.4)	-7 (7.9)			□		

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

■ Gender difference statistically significant at 0.05 level
□ Gender difference not statistically significant

Because the CIVED items predated the ICCS assessment framework by 10 years, the ICCS framework had no bearing on their development. However, the items can be mapped to the content and cognitive processes described in the ICCS framework. The civic content knowledge sub-scale consists mostly of items that map to content domain 1 (civic society and systems) and cognitive domain 1 (knowing) of the ICCS assessment framework.

Another point to consider when comparing student scores between CIVED and ICCS is the change in test design between the two surveys. Whereas in CIVED, students received one booklet in which each item appeared in only one position, ICCS used a balanced booklet design in which each link item appeared in a different position in each of three booklets. This variation had implications for the estimation of relative item difficulties. Details on the review of link item characteristics and the statistical processes used to compare civic content knowledge scores between CIVED and ICCS will be provided in the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

We used the same item parameters as in the CIVED survey to scale the ICCS test data. We then transformed these data to the same metric as that used in CIVED to report the civic content knowledge scale results. (That scale had an average of 100 and a standard deviation of 20 scale points for the equally weighted 28 countries participating in the 1999 survey.) Another point to note is that we acknowledged the uncertainty associated with having only a limited number of items on which to equate the two tests by including within the standard error for the differences an error component for the linking error (see Monseur & Berezner, 2007, in this regard).

In 1999, the average score on the civic content knowledge scale across the 15 countries was 100 scale points; the average score for the same countries in ICCS 2009 was 96 scale points. This difference translates into a (statistically significant) overall decrease in average performance on the civic content knowledge scale items of four points, or one fifth of a standard deviation.

The average civic content knowledge scale score was statistically significantly higher in ICCS than in CIVED, by three scale points, for only one country, Slovenia. In seven countries, no statistically significant difference emerged between the 1999 and 2009 scores. The average civic content knowledge scores of seven countries decreased statistically significantly between CIVED and ICCS. The largest decrease in performance—11 points—occurred in Bulgaria.

The average age of students across all 15 countries included in the comparison was 14.6 years for both CIVED and ICCS; the data in Table 3.14 show only small differences with respect to student age between the CIVED and ICCS data collections.

Civic knowledge among students in the ICCS upper grade

Four countries chose to administer the ICCS instruments to an additional (upper) grade of the secondary school. This grade, typically Grade 9, corresponds to the ninth year of schooling. Table 3.15 shows the distributions of student achievement on the civic knowledge test at this level of secondary schooling. The table also includes, for comparative purposes, the corresponding data for the target grade in each country.

In each of the four countries, the average scale scores for the upper grade were statistically significantly higher than the scores in the target grades. The magnitude of the difference in scale scores between Grade 9 and Grade 8 was 23 in Norway, 24 in Slovenia, 37 in Sweden, and 39 in Greece.

This outcome was not surprising, given that Grade 9 students were, on average, one year older than the students in the ICCS target grade (Grade 8) in each country. The outcomes of the regression analysis presented in Table C.2 (Appendix C) show that the within-country relationship in each country between age and ICCS civic knowledge scale scores was similar in the four additional grades to that for the ICCS target grade. In Greece, Slovenia, and Sweden, age was negatively and statistically significantly associated with achievement within the



Table 3.14: Changes in civic content knowledge between 1999 and 2000

Country	Years of Schooling	Mean Scale Score 2009	Average Age 2009	Mean Scale Score 1999	Average Age 1999	Differences between 1999 and 2009	Differences 1999/2009				
							-20	-10	0	10	20
Slovenia	9	104 (0.6)	14.7	102 (0.5)	14.8	3 (1.0)			■		
Finland	8	109 (0.7)	14.7	108 (0.7)	14.8	1 (1.1)			□		
Estonia	8	95 (0.9)	15.0	94 (0.5)	14.7	1 (1.2)			□		
Chile	8	89 (0.7)	14.2	89 (0.6)	14.3	0 (1.1)			□		
Lithuania	8	94 (0.6)	14.7	94 (0.7)	14.8	0 (1.1)			□		
Italy	8	100 (0.7)	13.8	101 (0.7)	13.9	-1 (1.2)			□		Score in 2009 higher
Latvia	8	91 (0.6)	14.8	92 (0.9)	14.5	-1 (1.2)			□		Score in 1999 higher
Switzerland (German)†	8	94 (1.0)	14.8	95 (0.9)	15.0	-2 (1.5)			□		
Colombia	8	85 (0.6)	14.4	89 (0.8)	14.6	-4 (1.1)			■		
Norway †~	9	97 (0.8)	14.7	103 (0.5)	14.8	-5 (1.1)			■		
Greece	9	102 (0.8)	14.7	109 (0.7)	14.7	-7 (1.3)			■		
Poland	8	103 (1.0)	14.9	112 (1.3)	15.0	-9 (1.8)			■		
Slovak Republic ¹	8	97 (1.1)	14.4	107 (0.6)	14.3	-10 (1.4)			■		
Czech Republic †	8	93 (0.5)	14.4	103 (0.8)	14.4	-10 (1.1)			■		
Bulgaria	8	88 (0.9)	14.7	99 (1.1)	14.9	-11 (1.5)			■		
Average		96 (0.0)	14.6	100 (0.0)	14.6	-4 (0.1)			■		

Countries with different survey periods in 1999

England ² ‡	9	90 (0.7)	14.0	96 (0.6)	14.7	-6 (1.1)			■		
Sweden ³	8	98 (0.8)	14.8	97 (0.8)	14.3	0 (1.2)			□		

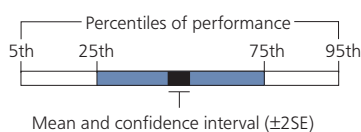
Notes:

- () Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.
- † Met ICCS guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
- ‡ Nearly satisfied ICCS guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
- ~ In 1999, overall participation rate after replacement less than 75 percent.
- ¹ National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.
- ² In 1999, country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ³ In 1999, country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the school year.

- Difference statistically significant at 0.05 level
- Difference not statistically significant

Table 3.15: Country averages in civic knowledge, years of schooling, average age, and percentile graph (upper grade)

Country	Years of schooling	Average age	Civic Knowledge					Average scale score		
			200	300	400	500	600		700	800
Sweden	9	15.8								574 (3.6)
Sweden	8	14.8								537 (3.1)
Slovenia	9	14.7								540 (2.6)
Slovenia	8	13.7								516 (2.7)
Norway †	9	14.7								538 (4.0)
Norway †	8	13.7								515 (3.4)
Greece	9	14.7								515 (3.9)
Greece	8	13.7								476 (4.4)



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.

addition grade; in Norway, there was no statistically significant association between age and achievement within the grade. The pattern across these four countries was thus the same as for the target grade.

In order to aid comparisons, we have included the corresponding data for the target grade in each country in Table 3.16. These data highlight the higher achievement of the students in the higher grade. In each country, the proportion of students achieving at Proficiency Level 3 was between 11 and 15 percentage points higher than for the proportion of students in the target grade performing at this level. In Sweden, Norway, and Slovenia, the differences in the percentage of students between the two grades were relatively consistent.

In each of these countries, the percentage of students in Level 3 was higher in the additional grade than in the target grade. The percentage was lower (albeit slightly) in the lower levels (below 1 and 2) of the additional grade than of the target grade. In Greece, the pattern was similar, except that the proportion of students below Level 1 in the additional grade was 11 percentage points lower than the proportion of students in the ICCS target grade performing at this level. This difference was greater than the differences in the other three countries.

Table 3.17 shows the average scores of the male and female students in the countries that tested students at the upper grade of the secondary school. In all four countries, the female students attained higher civic knowledge scores than the male students. The magnitude of the differences between the average scores of females and males for the additional grade in each country was very similar to those for the target grade. This finding suggests that grade level had no bearing on the difference in these achievement scores.

Table 3.16: Percentages of students at each proficiency level across countries (upper grade)

Country	Years of schooling	Below Level 1	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	
		(fewer than 395 score points)	(from 395 to 479 score points)	(from 479 to 563 score points)	(563 score points or more)	
Sweden	9	5 (0.2)	13 (0.3)	26 (0.5)	55 (0.4)	
Sweden	8	8 (0.8)	21 (0.9)	32 (1.1)	40 (1.4)	
Norway †	9	10 (0.4)	18 (1.0)	29 (0.9)	43 (0.5)	
Norway †	8	11 (0.9)	24 (1.1)	33 (1.1)	32 (1.3)	
Slovenia	9	6 (0.2)	19 (0.8)	34 (0.8)	41 (0.4)	
Slovenia	8	9 (0.9)	25 (1.1)	36 (1.2)	30 (1.2)	
Greece	9	11 (0.3)	23 (0.8)	33 (0.8)	33 (0.7)	
Greece	8	22 (1.7)	28 (1.3)	29 (1.1)	21 (1.4)	

Notes:

Countries ranked in descending order by percentages in Level 3 for additional grade.

() 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.



Table 3.17: Gender differences in civic knowledge (upper grade)

Country	Years of Schooling	Mean Scale Score Females	Mean Scale Score Males	Difference Absolute Value (males-females)	Gender Difference				
					-100	-50	0	50	100
Sweden	9	588 (3.6)	563 (4.8)	-24 (4.6)			■		
Sweden	8	549 (3.4)	527 (4.2)	-21 (4.5)	Females Score Higher		■		Males Score Higher
Norway †	9	552 (4.5)	527 (4.6)	-25 (4.4)			■		
Norway †	8	527 (3.7)	504 (4.5)	-23 (4.4)			■		
Slovenia	9	555 (2.9)	526 (3.4)	-29 (3.6)			■		
Slovenia	8	531 (2.6)	501 (3.9)	-30 (4.0)			■		
Greece	9	530 (4.3)	499 (4.7)	-31 (4.5)			■		
Greece	8	492 (4.8)	460 (5.1)	-32 (4.5)			■		

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.

■ Gender difference statistically significant at 0.05 level

Summary of findings

The ICCS test of civic knowledge covered the content and cognitive domains elaborated in the ICCS framework and provided the basis for descriptions of three described levels of proficiency. Our comparisons of average civic knowledge scores showed considerable variation across and within participating countries. In the four highest-performing countries, more than half of the students were at Proficiency Level 3, whereas in the four lowest-performing countries, more than 70 percent of student scores were at Proficiency Level 1 or below.

Across countries, the Human Development Index (HDI) showed a strong association with civic knowledge scores. Although age, too, was positively associated with achievement across countries, the exact nature of the relationship is confounded by the negative association between student age, country HDI, and within-country differences.

When we compared the civic knowledge scores of females and males, we found that females had higher scores than males in all participating countries. In the majority of these countries, the difference was statistically significant.

Another finding of note is the significant decrease in civic content knowledge scores between 1999 and 2009 in a number of countries that had comparable data from both civic education surveys. Only one country had a statistically significant increase in civic content knowledge among lower-secondary students over that decade.

In each of the four countries that assessed the students in an additional (upper) grade of secondary school, the average score for these students was higher than that for the students in the target grade. Differences between these adjacent grades ranged from 24 to 37 scale points. The observable patterns of achievement by gender and within-country age were, however, very similar in the two grade levels in each of the four countries. In three of the four additional-grade countries, the difference in the distribution of students across the proficiency levels was similar. In Greece, the difference in the proportion of students below Level 1 proficiency was 11 percentage points in favor of the older students. This difference was larger than the corresponding difference in the three other additional-grade countries.



CHAPTER 4:

Students' value beliefs and attitudes

The ICCS assessment framework defined four affective-behavioral domains—value beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). The international student questionnaire, which consisted mainly of Likert-type items, allowed assessment of a broad range of constructs from these domains. The metric of all ICCS questionnaire scales was set to a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted national samples. (Appendix D provides a description of the scaling of questionnaire items.)

Our main focus in this chapter is on aspects of Research Question 3: “What is the extent of interest and disposition to engage in public and political life among adolescents and which factors within or across countries are related to it?” We also consider aspects related to Research Question 4: “What are adolescents’ perceptions of the impact of threats to civil society and of responses to these threats on the future development of that society?”

We thus describe and discuss students’ perceptions of democracy and citizenship, students’ perceptions of equal rights in society, and students’ perceptions of their country and its institutions. We also review the data collected from the sub-group of countries that wanted to address this matter in the questionnaire section on students’ engagement with religion.

More specifically, we consider, in relation to these matters, the following sets of sub-questions.

- *Student perceptions of democracy and citizenship:*
 - To what extent do students support basic democratic values?
 - To what extent do students endorse reactions to security threats in society (e.g., terrorism) that curtail civic liberties of citizens?
 - How do students perceive the importance of different types of behaviors that may reflect good citizenship?
- *Student perceptions of equal rights in society:*
 - To what extent do students support gender equality?
 - How much do students agree with equal rights and opportunities for all ethnic or racial groups in society?
 - To what extent do students endorse equal rights and opportunities for immigrants?
- *Student perceptions of their country:*
 - To what extent do students generally express trust in civic institutions?
 - How do levels of trust compare for specific institutions and groups in society?
 - Do students have preferences for specific political parties and how much do they support them?
 - What are the attitudes students have toward the country they live in?
- *Students’ engagement with religion:*
 - How many students belong to a religion and to what extent do they actively participate in religious activities?
 - To what extent do students agree with the influence of religion on society?



Perceptions of democracy and citizenship

When studying support for basic democratic values, it is important that we acknowledge the existence of different conceptualizations of democracy. These can be roughly divided into direct or participatory and liberal or representative forms of democracy (Held, 1996). The “minimal elements” of democracy are sometimes viewed as constitutionally guaranteed rights, free elections, and rule of law (Fuchs, 1999). Studies show that, in general, majorities of citizens tend to endorse these generalized values whether they live in democratic or more authoritarian countries (Fuchs & Roller, 2006).

In the first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971, students were asked to rate the democratic system of government. Their answers revealed that they primarily endorsed items reflecting the notion that democracy allows people to write and say what they think and to make important decisions about their lives (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975).

The IEA CIVED survey of 1999 asked students to rate several characteristics of society as either “good” or “bad” for democracy. Across countries, and contrary to expectations, no clear overall patterns emerged relative to the students’ ratings. However, students’ ratings of several items representing a factor relating to the “rule of law” model of democracy were consistent across countries (see Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001). In their secondary analysis of CIVED data, Husfeldt and Nikolova (2003) found evidence that upper-secondary students hold more differentiated conceptualizations of democracy than do 14-year-old students.

Instead of asking about positive or negative consequences for democracy, the ICCS student questionnaire included a set of items, adapted from a subset of those included in CIVED, that sought to ascertain the extent of student endorsement of basic democratic values. Students indicated their level of agreement (“strongly agree,” “agree,” “disagree,” “strongly disagree”) with the following statements:

- Everyone should always have the right to express their opinions freely;
- Political leaders should not be allowed to give government jobs to their family members;
- No company or government should be allowed to own all newspapers in a country;
- All people should have their social and political rights respected;
- People should always be free to criticize the government publicly;
- All citizens should have the right to elect their leaders freely;
- People should be able to protest if they believe a law is unfair;
- Political protest should never be violent.

Table 4.1 shows the extent to which students in each of the participating countries agreed or strongly agreed with each item with respect to their country.¹ The results, presented as percentages, show that nearly all students in the target grade endorsed most of these items. In summary, 98 percent of students agreed that everyone should have a right to express their opinions freely, 95 percent agreed that all people should have their political rights respected, 94 percent agreed that all citizens should elect their leaders freely, 92 percent agreed that people should be able to protest if they believe a law is unfair, and 89 percent agreed that political protest should never be violent. As is apparent from Table 4.1, little variation across countries is evident for each of these items, and the percentage of agreement is always above 80 percent.



¹ When presenting national averages and percentages from questionnaire data in this report, we annotate results that differed significantly (at $p < 0.05$) from the ICCS average. We also use a different symbol to annotate results that are considerably (i.e., three questionnaire scale points or 10 percentage points) above or below the ICCS average. The choice of these thresholds corresponds to approximately one third of a standard deviation for these variables.

Table 4.1 : National percentages of students agreeing with statements reflecting democratic values

Country	Statements Reflecting Democratic Values									
	Everyone should always have the right to express their opinions freely	Political leaders should not be allowed to give government jobs to their family members	No company or government should be allowed to own all newspapers in a country	All people should have their social and political rights respected	People should always be free to criticize the government publicly	All citizens should have the right to elect their leaders freely	People should be able to protest if they believe a law is unfair	Political protest should never be violent		
Austria	98 (0.4) ▽	75 (0.9) △	70 (0.9) ▽	91 (0.8) ▽	78 (1.0)	93 (0.5) ▽	90 (0.6) ▽	85 (0.7) ▽		
Belgium (Flemish) †	97 (0.4) ▽	61 (1.0) ▽	69 (1.0) ▽	94 (0.7)	83 (0.7) △	89 (0.7) ▽	88 (0.8) ▽	85 (0.8) ▽		
Bulgaria	98 (0.3)	74 (1.0) △	78 (1.1) △	94 (0.6)	86 (0.8) △	91 (0.6) ▽	93 (0.7)	89 (0.7)		
Chile	99 (0.2) △	71 (0.8) △	75 (0.9) △	97 (0.3) △	86 (0.6) △	98 (0.2) △	92 (0.5) △	92 (0.5) △		
Chinese Taipei	99 (0.1) △	93 (0.4) ▲	65 (0.8) ▽	98 (0.2) △	73 (1.0) ▽	96 (0.3) △	82 (0.7) ▽	94 (0.4) △		
Colombia	99 (0.1) △	46 (0.8) ▼	57 (0.9) ▼	97 (0.3) △	68 (0.9) ▼	97 (0.2) △	89 (0.5) ▽	90 (0.5) ▽		
Cyprus	96 (0.4) ▽	75 (0.7) △	70 (0.8) ▽	89 (0.6) ▽	78 (0.8)	93 (0.5) ▽	91 (0.5)	83 (0.7) ▽		
Czech Republic †	98 (0.2)	65 (0.7) ▽	76 (0.7) △	95 (0.4)	82 (0.6) △	98 (0.3) △	95 (0.4) △	87 (0.6) ▽		
Denmark †	98 (0.2) △	70 (0.9) △	83 (0.7) △	97 (0.3) △	80 (0.7) △	97 (0.3) △	94 (0.4) △	92 (0.5) △		
Dominican Republic	97 (0.5)	55 (1.2) ▼	55 (1.1) ▼	91 (0.9) ▽	59 (1.0) ▼	95 (0.4) △	88 (0.7) ▽	82 (0.8) ▽		
England ‡	98 (0.3)	67 (0.9)	80 (0.8) △	95 (0.4)	80 (0.8)	94 (0.4)	90 (0.5) ▽	88 (0.8)		
Estonia	99 (0.2) △	77 (0.8) △	80 (0.9) △	96 (0.5) △	74 (1.1) ▽	92 (0.7) ▽	90 (0.7) ▽	93 (0.6) △		
Finland	99 (0.2) △	86 (0.6) ▲	88 (0.6) ▲	95 (0.5)	85 (0.7) △	92 (0.5) ▽	94 (0.5) △	90 (0.6) △		
Greece	98 (0.3)	76 (1.1) △	80 (1.0) △	92 (0.7) ▽	82 (0.8) △	91 (0.7) ▽	87 (0.8) ▽	86 (0.8) ▽		
Guatemala ¹	99 (0.2) △	53 (1.0) ▼	58 (1.1) ▼	98 (0.2) △	66 (0.9) ▼	98 (0.2) △	94 (0.5) △	90 (0.7)		
Indonesia	92 (0.6) ▽	49 (0.9) ▼	40 (1.0) ▼	97 (0.3) △	88 (0.8) ▲	95 (0.4)	93 (0.6) △	89 (0.7)		
Ireland	98 (0.3)	76 (1.0) △	85 (0.8) ▲	96 (0.4) △	82 (0.8) △	96 (0.4) △	94 (0.5) △	86 (0.8) ▽		
Italy	99 (0.2) △	66 (1.0) ▽	67 (1.2) ▽	97 (0.3) △	81 (0.9) △	96 (0.4) △	93 (0.5) △	92 (0.6) △		
Korea, Republic of ¹	98 (0.2)	56 (0.8) ▼	82 (0.7) △	97 (0.3) △	88 (0.5) △	98 (0.2) △	97 (0.2) △	94 (0.3) △		
Latvia	98 (0.4)	77 (0.9) △	80 (1.0) △	94 (0.7)	83 (1.1) △	89 (0.8) ▽	94 (0.7) △	83 (1.0) ▽		
Liechtenstein	99 (0.5) △	78 (2.4) △	67 (2.3) ▽	94 (1.3)	82 (2.1) △	95 (1.1)	90 (1.6)	88 (1.7)		
Lithuania	98 (0.3)	73 (0.8) △	84 (0.8) ▲	97 (0.5) △	78 (0.8)	96 (0.4) △	97 (0.4) △	89 (0.6)		
Luxembourg	98 (0.3)	73 (0.7) △	67 (0.7) ▽	92 (0.4) ▽	82 (0.7) △	93 (0.4) ▽	93 (0.5)	87 (0.7) ▽		
Malta	98 (0.5)	63 (1.1) ▽	75 (1.1) △	93 (0.7) ▽	73 (1.1) ▽	89 (0.8) ▽	87 (0.8) ▽	92 (0.7) △		
Mexico	97 (0.3) ▽	61 (0.9) ▽	62 (0.9) ▼	93 (0.5) ▽	70 (0.7) ▽	97 (0.2) △	90 (0.5) ▽	88 (0.6)		
New Zealand †	97 (0.4)	66 (0.9) ▽	79 (0.8) △	94 (0.6)	73 (0.9) ▽	93 (0.7)	89 (0.7) ▽	88 (0.8)		
Norway †	98 (0.3) △	53 (1.2) ▼	76 (0.9) △	96 (0.5)	78 (1.1)	95 (0.5)	95 (0.5) △	85 (0.8) ▽		



Table 4.1: National percentages of students agreeing with statements reflecting democratic values (contd.)

Country	Statements Reflecting Democratic Values									
	Everyone should always have the right to express their opinions freely	Political leaders should not be allowed to give government jobs to their family members	No company or government should be allowed to own all newspapers in a country	All people should have their social and political rights respected	People should always be free to criticize the government publicly	All citizens should have the right to elect their leaders freely	People should be able to protest if they believe a law is unfair	Political protest should never be violent		
Paraguay ¹	98 (0.3)	57 (1.4) ▼	60 (1.3) ▼	96 (0.5) △	79 (0.9)	96 (0.5) △	91 (0.6)	89 (0.8)		
Poland	98 (0.2) △	81 (0.8) ▲	81 (0.8) △	95 (0.5)	86 (0.7) △	97 (0.3) △	95 (0.4) △	90 (0.6)		
Russian Federation	99 (0.3) △	72 (0.8) △	82 (0.7) △	98 (0.3) △	69 (0.8) ▼	92 (0.4) ▼	94 (0.4) △	93 (0.5) △		
Slovak Republic ²	99 (0.2) △	64 (1.2) ▼	78 (1.0) △	96 (0.4)	80 (0.9) △	97 (0.5) △	93 (0.6)	93 (0.6) △		
Slovenia	99 (0.3) △	62 (1.1) ▼	77 (0.7) △	94 (0.6)	65 (1.1) ▼	94 (0.6)	91 (0.7)	89 (0.7)		
Spain	98 (0.2)	68 (0.9)	78 (0.8) △	95 (0.6)	79 (0.8)	97 (0.4) △	96 (0.4) △	93 (0.5) △		
Sweden	97 (0.4) ▼	78 (0.9) △	79 (0.8) △	95 (0.5)	79 (0.9)	95 (0.5)	96 (0.5) △	87 (0.7) ▼		
Switzerland †	99 (0.3) △	75 (0.9) △	70 (1.2) ▼	95 (0.6)	80 (1.1)	95 (0.4) △	93 (0.6) △	89 (0.6)		
Thailand †	97 (0.3) ▼	68 (0.9)	71 (0.8) ▼	94 (0.4) ▼	75 (0.7) ▼	93 (0.6) ▼	86 (0.6) ▼	91 (0.6) △		
ICCS average	98 (0.1)	68 (0.2)	73 (0.2)	95 (0.1)	78 (0.2)	94 (0.1)	92 (0.1)	89 (0.1)		
Countries not meeting sampling requirements										
Hong Kong SAR	98 (0.4)	78 (0.8)	69 (1.1)	94 (0.6)	83 (1.0)	95 (0.5)	71 (1.1)	91 (0.7)		
Netherlands	96 (0.5)	66 (2.0)	73 (1.2)	92 (1.1)	83 (1.7)	87 (1.1)	86 (1.3)	84 (1.1)		

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

▼ Significantly below ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

While, in most countries, majorities of students agreed that government leaders should not be allowed to give jobs to family members (ICCS average: 68 percent), the percentages of agreement with this item were considerably lower in the following countries than in all other countries: Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Korea, Norway, and Paraguay.

There was also no consensus as to whether one company or government should be allowed to own all the newspapers in a country. On average, 73 percent agreed with this statement, but agreement was much lower in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Mexico, and Paraguay. When the students were asked whether people should always be free to criticize the government publicly, 78 percent of them, on average, agreed. However, the percentages of students agreeing with this statement were considerably lower than elsewhere in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, and Slovenia.

In the aftermath of the terrorist attacks on the World Trade Center on September 11, 2001, there has been much debate and discussion about what democratic societies can do to ensure security yet maintain democratic norms. Terrorist threats can undermine democratic legitimacy if anti-terrorism laws lead to infringements of civil rights (Matthew & Shambaugh, 2005) and if the public becomes more intolerant of “difference” (Merolla & Zechmeister, 2009).

The fourth ICCS research question (see Schulz et al., 2008) asked students to give their views on the impact of recent threats to civil society and of responses to these threats on the future development of their societies. The following set of items from the ICCS student questionnaire asked students what action should be taken with respect to groups that threaten national security:

- The police should have the right to hold people suspected of threatening national security in jail without trial;
- Security agencies should be allowed to check letters, phone calls, and emails of anyone suspected of threatening national security;
- When faced with violent threats to national security, the government should have the power to control what appears in the media.

Table 4.2 shows the extent to which the participating students agreed with each item. On average, across countries, 56 percent of the target-grade students agreed that the police should have the right to hold suspects in jail without trial. The highest percentages of agreement were found in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Guatemala, Poland, the Russian Federation, and Sweden. Considerably lower percentages of agreement were found in Belgium (Flemish), Greece, the Republic of Korea, and Thailand.

About two thirds of students (67%) agreed that security agencies should have the right to check the private communications of people suspected of threatening national security. However, some variation in responses to this statement was evident across countries. In Austria, the Czech Republic, Finland, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, and Switzerland, the students were considerably less likely than their counterparts in the other countries to agree with it. The highest levels of agreement were found in Chile, Denmark, Guatemala, Indonesia, Paraguay, and Thailand.

On average, 78 percent of the target-grade students supported the idea that governments should be entitled to suppress media information when faced with threats to national security. There was some variation across participating countries. In the Russian Federation, 93 percent of the students agreed with this proposition. However, in Greece, Ireland, and New Zealand, the proportions of students agreeing with this statement were more than 10 percentage points below the ICCS average.



Table 4.2: National percentages of students agreeing with statements regarding reactions to terrorist threats

Country	Percentages of Students Who Think ...								
	the police should have the right to hold people suspected of threatening national security in jail without trial		security agencies should be allowed to check letters, phone calls, and emails of anyone suspected of threatening national security		when faced with violent threats to national security, the government should have the power to control what appears in the media				
Austria	59	(1.1)	△	51	(1.0)	▼	69	(0.9)	▽
Belgium (Flemish) †	43	(1.2)	▼	58	(1.1)	▽	77	(0.8)	
Bulgaria	70	(1.0)	▲	77	(1.0)	△	76	(0.8)	▽
Chile	65	(0.8)	△	78	(0.7)	▲	81	(0.7)	△
Chinese Taipei	59	(0.8)	△	76	(0.7)	△	80	(0.7)	△
Colombia	51	(0.8)	▽	74	(0.8)	△	77	(0.6)	▽
Cyprus	48	(1.0)	▽	66	(0.9)		82	(0.7)	△
Czech Republic †	70	(0.7)	▲	56	(0.9)	▼	82	(0.7)	△
Denmark †	47	(1.0)	▽	78	(0.8)	▲	73	(0.8)	▽
Dominican Republic	56	(1.0)		69	(1.1)		76	(0.6)	▽
England ‡	58	(1.2)		67	(0.9)		68	(1.2)	▽
Estonia	65	(1.2)	△	61	(1.1)	▽	80	(0.9)	△
Finland	60	(1.0)	△	52	(1.0)	▼	75	(0.9)	▽
Greece	41	(1.1)	▼	62	(1.0)	▽	67	(1.0)	▼
Guatemala ¹	71	(0.9)	▲	82	(0.8)	▲	84	(0.8)	△
Indonesia	57	(1.1)		80	(0.8)	▲	88	(0.6)	△
Ireland	50	(1.1)	▽	63	(0.9)	▽	63	(0.9)	▼
Italy	53	(1.2)	▽	71	(1.0)	△	79	(0.9)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	26	(0.7)	▼	69	(0.7)	△	72	(0.6)	▽
Latvia	59	(1.0)	△	69	(1.0)		84	(0.7)	△
Liechtenstein	62	(2.3)	△	55	(2.2)	▼	81	(2.1)	
Lithuania	49	(1.0)	▽	45	(1.0)	▼	75	(0.7)	▽
Luxembourg	52	(0.8)	▽	57	(0.9)	▼	78	(0.6)	
Malta	46	(1.4)	▽	70	(1.1)	△	78	(1.5)	
Mexico	55	(0.8)		73	(0.8)	△	79	(0.7)	△
New Zealand †	54	(1.0)		63	(1.1)	▽	67	(1.0)	▼
Norway †	62	(1.1)	△	75	(1.0)	△	85	(0.8)	△
Paraguay ¹	57	(1.1)		80	(1.1)	▲	82	(0.8)	△
Poland	69	(1.2)	▲	54	(1.1)	▼	75	(1.0)	▽
Russian Federation	69	(0.9)	▲	72	(0.7)	△	93	(0.4)	▲
Slovak Republic ²	55	(1.2)		61	(1.3)	▽	84	(1.0)	△
Slovenia	55	(1.1)		68	(1.0)		84	(0.8)	△
Spain	49	(1.1)	▽	66	(0.9)		72	(0.9)	▽
Sweden	67	(1.0)	▲	74	(0.9)	△	80	(0.7)	△
Switzerland †	61	(1.5)	△	57	(1.1)	▼	78	(1.0)	
Thailand †	44	(1.2)	▼	88	(0.6)	▲	83	(0.7)	△
ICCS average	56	(0.2)		67	(0.2)		78	(0.1)	

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	34	(1.3)		75	(0.9)		56	(1.4)	
Netherlands	41	(2.5)		59	(1.6)		74	(1.6)	

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



The literature provides conceptualizations of citizenship behavior that differ in line with different models of democracy (Janoski, 1998) or different possible individual perspectives of democratic involvement (Theiss-Morse, 1993). Based on the findings of European surveys that asked adults to give their perceptions of the importance of different types of citizenship behavior, Dalton (2006) identified two dimensions: “citizen duty,” which includes behavior related to compliance with social norms, and “engaged citizenship,” which relates to elements of liberal or communitarian norms of citizenship. Kennedy, quoted in Nelson and Kerr (2006), distinguishes active (conventional and social-movement-related citizenship behavior) from passive citizenship elements (national identity, patriotism, and loyalty).

The first IEA survey of civic education in 1971 included items asking about the importance of certain behaviors for “good citizenship” (Torney et al., 1975). In CIVED, a set of 15 items was used to gather students’ ratings of the importance of certain behaviors associated with being a good citizen (see Torney-Purta et al., 2001, p. 77f). Two sub-scales on conventional and social-movement-related citizenship were reported (see Schulz, 2004). Findings showed that lower- and upper-secondary students considered participation in environmental, human rights, and community organizations more important for good citizenship than political party membership (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002; Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

The ICCS student questionnaire included 12 items describing citizenship behavior. Students were asked to rate the importance of each behavior for being a good adult citizen as follows: “very important,” “quite important,” “not very important,” “not at all important.” The items were slightly modified versions of those used in CIVED.

The following six items reflected students’ perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship:

- Voting in every national election;
- Joining a political party;
- Learning about the country’s history;
- Following political issues in the newspaper, on the radio, on TV, or on the internet;
- Showing respect for government representatives;
- Engaging in political discussions.

The internal consistency of the resulting scale was high, with reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.79 for the combined ICCS database. Figure 4.1 in Appendix E shows the item-by-score map and the average percentage in each item category across countries. Here, we can see that students with an ICCS average score of 50 were most likely to rate all behaviors, except joining a political party and engaging in political discussions, as quite important. ICCS average percentages for students rating citizenship behaviors as (at least) quite important or very important ranged from 33 percent (joining a political party) to 81 percent (voting in every national election).

Table 4.3 shows the national averages for students’ perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship. The highest average scores were found in Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Italy, Mexico, and Thailand. The average scores in Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, Finland, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, and Sweden were more than three points below the ICCS average. Gender differences for this scale tended to be small and so are not reported.



Table 4.3: National averages for students' perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship

Country	Student Perceptions of the Importance of Conventional Citizenship					
	Average scale score	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Belgium (Flemish) †	46 (0.2) ▼			■		
Bulgaria	49 (0.2) ▽			■		
Chile	51 (0.2) △				■	
Chinese Taipei	50 (0.2)				■	
Colombia	52 (0.2) △				■	
Cyprus	53 (0.3) ▲				■	
Czech Republic †	44 (0.2) ▼		■			
Denmark †	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Dominican Republic	55 (0.3) ▲				■	
England ‡	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Estonia	47 (0.2) ▽			■		
Finland	45 (0.2) ▼		■			
Greece	49 (0.2) ▽			■		
Guatemala ¹	54 (0.3) ▲				■	
Indonesia	56 (0.2) ▲				■	
Ireland	50 (0.2)				■	
Italy	54 (0.2) ▲				■	
Korea, Republic of ¹	53 (0.2) △				■	
Latvia	50 (0.2)				■	
Liechtenstein	48 (0.5) ▽			■		
Lithuania	51 (0.2) △				■	
Luxembourg	49 (0.1) ▽			■		
Malta	50 (0.3)				■	
Mexico	54 (0.2) ▲				■	
New Zealand †	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Norway †	51 (0.2) △				■	
Paraguay ¹	52 (0.2) △				■	
Poland	51 (0.2) △				■	
Russian Federation	53 (0.3) △				■	
Slovak Republic ²	45 (0.2) ▼		■			
Slovenia	46 (0.2) ▼		■			
Spain	49 (0.2) ▽			■		
Sweden	46 (0.2) ▼		■			
Switzerland †	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Thailand †	58 (0.2) ▲				■	
ICCS average	50 (0.0)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	52 (0.2)				■	
Netherlands	47 (0.3)			■		

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below 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 rating these types of citizenship behavior as:

	Not very important or not important at all
	Quite or very important

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



The question concerning the importance of good citizenship behavior also included the following four items. These reflected student perceptions of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship.

- Participating in peaceful protests against laws believed to be unjust;
- Participating in activities to benefit people in the <local community>;
- Taking part in activities promoting human rights;
- Taking part in activities to protect the environment.

The resulting scale had a satisfactory reliability of 0.74 for the pooled international sample. Figure 4.2 in Appendix E shows the item-by-score map and the average percentage in the item category across countries. From the information presented there, we can expect that students with an ICCS average score of 50 would have rated the importance of all four citizenship behaviors as (at least) quite important. ICCS average percentages for students rating citizenship behaviors as quite important or very important ranged from 63 percent (participating in peaceful protests) to 84 percent (taking part in activities to protect the environment).

Table 4.4 shows the national averages for students' perceptions of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship. Bulgaria, Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Greece, Guatemala, Indonesia, Paraguay, and Thailand had average scores of more than three points above the ICCS average. Considerably lower average scores were found in Belgium (Flemish), Denmark, Finland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, New Zealand, and Switzerland. Gender differences for this scale were again negligible and are therefore not reported.

Perceptions of equal rights in society

The first IEA civic education study in 1971 included four items measuring support for women's political rights. The CIVED survey in 1999 used a set of six items to capture students' attitudes toward women's political rights (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). Both surveys found that females were more supportive of women's rights than were males; these findings were consistent with the outcomes of other research studies (Angvik & von Borries, 1997; Furnham & Gunter, 1989; Hahn, 1998).

The CIVED study revealed that students across countries overwhelmingly tended to agree with statements in favor of and to disagree with statements against equal rights for women. However, students in countries with lower GDP per capita and higher unemployment rates were somewhat less supportive of women's political rights (Torney-Purta et al., 2001, p. 107).

ICCS included seven items measuring attitudes toward gender equality, some of them identical or similar to those used in CIVED. Students were asked to "strongly agree" (1), "agree" (2), "disagree" (3), or "strongly disagree" (4) with the following statements:

- Men and women should have equal opportunities to take part in government;
- Men and women should have the same rights in every way;
- Men and women should get equal pay when they are doing the same jobs;
- Women should stay out of politics;
- When there are not many jobs available, men should have more right to a job than women;
- Men are better qualified to be political leaders than women are.

Because reverse coding was applied to the positively worded items, higher scale scores indicate higher levels of support for gender equality. The internal consistency of the scale was high, with an average reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.79 for the combined ICCS database with equally weighted national samples.



Table 4.4: National averages for students' perceptions of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship

Country	Student Perceptions of the Importance of Social-Movement-Related Citizenship					
	Average scale score	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	47 (0.2) ▽			■		
Belgium (Flemish) †	46 (0.2) ▼			■		
Bulgaria	54 (0.2) ▲				■	
Chile	54 (0.2) ▲				■	
Chinese Taipei	52 (0.2) △				■	
Colombia	55 (0.1) ▲				■	
Cyprus	52 (0.2) △				■	
Czech Republic †	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Denmark †	44 (0.2) ▼		■			
Dominican Republic	53 (0.3) ▲				■	
England ‡	47 (0.3) ▽			■		
Estonia	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Finland	46 (0.2) ▼			■		
Greece	53 (0.3) ▲				■	
Guatemala ¹	55 (0.2) ▲				■	
Indonesia	54 (0.2) ▲				■	
Ireland	50 (0.2)			■		
Italy	52 (0.2) △				■	
Korea, Republic of ¹	52 (0.1) △				■	
Latvia	49 (0.2) ▽			■		
Liechtenstein	45 (0.5) ▼		■			
Lithuania	49 (0.2) ▽			■		
Luxembourg	47 (0.1) ▼			■		
Malta	49 (0.3) ▽			■		
Mexico	53 (0.2) △				■	
New Zealand †	47 (0.2) ▼			■		
Norway †	51 (0.2) △				■	
Paraguay ¹	54 (0.2) ▲				■	
Poland	49 (0.2) ▽			■		
Russian Federation	50 (0.2)			■		
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Slovenia	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Spain	52 (0.2) △				■	
Sweden	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Switzerland †	45 (0.3) ▼		■			
Thailand †	54 (0.2) ▲				■	
ICCS average	50 (0.0)					
Countries not meeting sampling requirements						
Hong Kong SAR	49 (0.2)			■		
Netherlands	45 (0.4)		■			

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 rating these types of citizenship behavior as:

	Not very important or not important at all
	Quite or very important

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Figure 4.3 in Appendix E shows the item-by-score map and the average percentage in the item category across countries. We can assume from the information in this figure that most students with an average scale score of 50 would have strongly agreed with the positively worded items and disagreed with the negatively worded items. When the analysis was done for equally weighted ICCS countries, student agreement with positive statements ranged from 90 to 95 percent and for negative statements from 15 to 29 percent.

Table 4.5 shows the country average for the scale measuring students' attitudes toward gender equality. Support for gender equality was highest in Chinese Taipei, Denmark, England, Finland, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Spain, and Sweden. Considerably lower average scale scores were found in Bulgaria, the Dominican Republic, Indonesia, Latvia, Mexico, the Russian Federation, and Thailand. However, in all countries, nearly all students agreed with positively worded statements and disagreed with those not supportive of gender equality.

As was the case in previous studies (including CIVED), female students were more supportive of gender equality than were male students, and these differences were statistically significant in all countries. Across ICCS countries, there was a difference of six scale points between female and male students, which is more than half an international standard deviation. Much larger differences of almost or about one standard deviation were observed in Austria, Cyprus, Finland, Greece, Liechtenstein, and Slovenia.

Most societies have more than one ethnic or racial group. Positive attitudes toward equal rights and opportunities for all citizens independent of their ethnic or racial origin are often viewed as indicative of the democratic ideal of emancipation and tolerance (Angvik & von Borries, 1997; Hahn, 1998). However, we acknowledge that there are differences across countries with regard to the existence and size of ethnic or racial minorities and whether these people are immigrants to the country.

ICCS included five items reflecting attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic or racial groups in society. Some of these items were identical or similar to the items used in the CIVED survey in 1999.² Students were asked to “strongly agree” (1), “agree” (2), “disagree” (3), or “strongly disagree” (4) with the following statements (the terms in angle brackets were adapted to national contexts):

- 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/racial groups had a high reliability for the combined international sample (Cronbach's alpha = 0.83). Figure 4.4 in Appendix E shows the item-by-score map for these items. Students with an ICCS average score of 50 had more than a 50 percent likelihood of agreeing with all five items. On average, student agreement with these items ranged from 72 (members of all ethnic/racial groups should be encouraged to run in elections for political office) to 93 percent (all ethnic/racial groups should have an equal chance to get a good education).



² A scale derived from the corresponding items in CIVED was not included in the international reporting (see Schulz, 2004a).

Table 4.5: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal gender rights overall and by gender groups

Country	Gender Differences for Attitudes Toward Gender Equality								
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	52 (0.3) △	56 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-9 (0.4)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	52 (0.3) △	56 (0.4)	49 (0.3)	-7 (0.4)					
Bulgaria	46 (0.3) ▼	49 (0.3)	43 (0.3)	-6 (0.4)					
Chile	51 (0.3) △	54 (0.4)	48 (0.3)	-6 (0.4)					
Chinese Taipei	55 (0.2) ▲	59 (0.2)	52 (0.2)	-6 (0.3)					
Colombia	49 (0.2) ▽	51 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-3 (0.3)					
Cyprus	48 (0.2) ▽	53 (0.3)	43 (0.2)	-10 (0.4)					
Czech Republic †	48 (0.2) ▽	51 (0.3)	46 (0.2)	-5 (0.3)					
Denmark †	54 (0.2) ▲	58 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	-7 (0.4)					
Dominican Republic	44 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.3)	42 (0.2)	-2 (0.4)					
England ‡	53 (0.3) ▲	56 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	-7 (0.4)					
Estonia	49 (0.3) ▽	51 (0.3)	46 (0.2)	-5 (0.3)					
Finland	53 (0.2) ▲	58 (0.2)	48 (0.4)	-10 (0.4)					
Greece	50 (0.3)	55 (0.4)	45 (0.3)	-9 (0.4)					
Guatemala ¹	49 (0.3) ▽	51 (0.4)	47 (0.4)	-4 (0.4)					
Indonesia	42 (0.2) ▼	44 (0.2)	41 (0.2)	-3 (0.2)					
Ireland	54 (0.3) ▲	59 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	-8 (0.4)					
Italy	52 (0.2) △	55 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	-7 (0.3)					
Korea, Republic of ¹	50 (0.2) △	54 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	-6 (0.3)					
Latvia	46 (0.2) ▼	48 (0.3)	44 (0.3)	-4 (0.3)					
Liechtenstein	53 (0.7) ▲	58 (0.6)	49 (0.9)	-9 (1.0)					
Lithuania	48 (0.2) ▽	51 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-5 (0.4)					
Luxembourg	52 (0.2) △	55 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	-7 (0.3)					
Malta	51 (0.3) △	56 (0.4)	47 (0.3)	-8 (0.4)					
Mexico	45 (0.1) ▼	47 (0.2)	44 (0.1)	-4 (0.2)					
New Zealand †	52 (0.4) △	55 (0.4)	49 (0.5)	-6 (0.6)					
Norway †	54 (0.2) ▲	57 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	-7 (0.4)					
Paraguay ¹	49 (0.2) ▽	51 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-4 (0.4)					
Poland	48 (0.3) ▽	51 (0.3)	44 (0.2)	-7 (0.4)					
Russian Federation	44 (0.1) ▼	45 (0.2)	42 (0.2)	-4 (0.3)					
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-4 (0.4)					
Slovenia	52 (0.2) △	56 (0.2)	47 (0.4)	-9 (0.4)					
Spain	54 (0.3) ▲	57 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	-5 (0.4)					
Sweden	55 (0.3) ▲	59 (0.2)	51 (0.4)	-8 (0.4)					
Switzerland †	52 (0.3) △	56 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	-7 (0.4)					
Thailand †	44 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	42 (0.2)	-3 (0.3)					
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	53 (0.0)	47 (0.1)	-6 (0.1)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	51 (0.3)	55 (0.3)	49 (0.2)	-6 (0.4)					
Netherlands	51 (0.5)	55 (0.6)	48 (0.5)	-7 (0.5)					

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 positive statements about gender equality with:

	Disagreement
	Agreement

Notes:

- * Differences significant at $p < 0.05$ 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 4.6 records the national averages for participating countries on this scale. Country mean scores of more than three points above the ICCS average were recorded in Chile, Chinese Taipei, and Guatemala. The lowest national averages were found in Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Latvia, and Malta. Female students tended to have significantly higher scores than their male counterparts in most countries; on average, the gender differences measured two score points.

Questions about equal rights and opportunities for all ethnic or racial groups typically encompass immigrants who have recently arrived in a country. However, even though these items ask about equal rights for all possible groups (including the majority as well as the minority), they do not necessarily account for whether students agree in principle with the notion that immigrants should receive equal rights and opportunities. Negative attitudes toward immigration are often linked to attitudes toward national identity (Medrano & Koenig, 2005). Using data from the International Social Survey Programme (ISSP), O'Rourke and Sinnott (2006) found that both economic factors and nationalistic sentiment influenced adult citizens' attitudes toward immigration.

Angvik and von Borries (1997) studied the attitudes of adolescents in 27 countries toward immigration and found that these young people tended to express higher support for educational opportunities than for voting rights. CIVED used eight items to measure attitudes toward immigrants. Five of these were included in a scale (Schulz, 2004a). Both the lower and upper-secondary students surveyed were generally positive about immigrant rights (Amadeo et al., 2002; Torney-Purta et al., 2001). Research findings from both national and international studies show that adolescent females tend to hold more positive attitudes toward immigrant rights than adolescent males (Amadeo et al., 2002; Diaz-Veizades, Widaman, Little, & Gibbs, 1995; Torney-Purta et al., 2001; Toth, 1995; Watts, 1996; Westin, 1998).

The ICCS student questionnaire included slightly modified versions of the five items used in the CIVED scale, as well as one additional item which was not used for scaling. The following five Likert-type items (with response categories "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," "strongly disagree") were used to measure students' attitudes toward equal 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 question prefacing these items was written in a way that referred to immigration to any country, not just the country the students lived in. This approach was necessary because many ICCS countries have very little immigration and because the intention behind the question was to measure students' attitudes toward the principle of providing equal rights and opportunities to immigrants. As a consequence, the point of reference was either people coming from abroad or fellow citizens going to live in another country.

The five items formed a highly reliable scale, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 for the combined international dataset. Figure 4.5 in Appendix E shows the item-by-score map for this scale. According to this figure, we could expect a student with an ICCS average score of 50 to have agreed with all five statements. The agreement with statements ranged from 76 percent (immigrants should have the opportunity to continue speaking their language) to 92 percent (immigrant children should have the same opportunities for education).



Table 4.6: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal rights for ethnic/racial groups

Country	Gender Differences for Attitudes Toward Equal Rights for all Ethnic/Racial Groups								
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	48 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-2 (0.5)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	48 (0.3) ▽	49 (0.4)	47 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)					
Bulgaria	48 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Chile	54 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)					
Chinese Taipei	57 (0.2) ▲	58 (0.2)	56 (0.2)	-2 (0.3)					
Colombia	53 (0.2) △	53 (0.2)	53 (0.2)	0 (0.3)					
Cyprus	47 (0.2) ▼	49 (0.3)	45 (0.3)	-4 (0.4)					
Czech Republic †	46 (0.2) ▼	48 (0.3)	45 (0.2)	-2 (0.3)					
Denmark †	48 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.3)	47 (0.4)	-3 (0.3)					
Dominican Republic	51 (0.3) △	51 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	0 (0.3)					
England ‡	50 (0.3)	51 (0.5)	48 (0.4)	-3 (0.6)					
Estonia	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Finland	48 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	45 (0.3)	-5 (0.4)					
Greece	49 (0.3) ▽	51 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Guatemala ¹	55 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.3)	55 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
Indonesia	50 (0.2)	51 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)					
Ireland	51 (0.3) △	53 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	-3 (0.4)					
Italy	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)					
Korea, Republic of ¹	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	-2 (0.3)					
Latvia	46 (0.2) ▼	46 (0.3)	45 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
Liechtenstein	49 (0.6)	50 (0.6)	48 (0.9)	-2 (1.2)					
Lithuania	50 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Luxembourg	52 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	51 (0.2)	-3 (0.4)					
Malta	46 (0.3) ▼	48 (0.4)	45 (0.3)	-2 (0.6)					
Mexico	52 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)					
New Zealand †	52 (0.3) △	53 (0.3)	50 (0.5)	-3 (0.6)					
Norway †	52 (0.3) △	53 (0.4)	50 (0.4)	-3 (0.5)					
Paraguay ¹	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
Poland	50 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-3 (0.3)					
Russian Federation	48 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)					
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	47 (0.4)	-2 (0.5)					
Slovenia	49 (0.2) ▽	51 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Spain	51 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	-2 (0.4)					
Sweden	52 (0.3) △	54 (0.4)	50 (0.4)	-5 (0.5)					
Switzerland †	49 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.3)	48 (0.4)	-3 (0.4)					
Thailand †	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	51 (0.1)	49 (0.1)	-2 (0.1)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	52 (0.3)	53 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	-2 (0.5)					
Netherlands	47 (0.3)	49 (0.6)	46 (0.4)	-3 (0.7)					

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 positive statements about equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups with:

Disagreement
Agreement

Notes:

- * Differences significant at $p < 0.05$ 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 4.7 shows the national averages for students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants overall and by gender groups. In all participating countries, the average student tended to agree with the statements used for measurement. There were, however, considerable differences across countries. Chile, Chinese Taipei, Colombia, Guatemala, Mexico, and Paraguay had mean scores that were more than three points above the ICCS average. The lowest national averages were found in Belgium (Flemish), England, Indonesia, and Latvia.

In a majority of the participating countries, female students tended to hold more positive attitudes toward immigrant rights than their male counterparts. The gender difference was, on average, four score points.

Perceptions of country and institutions

Nugent (1994) describes the development of children's perceptions of their country as a phenomenon mediated by cognitive processes as well as by the political and cultural milieu. It is possible, when considering individuals' attitudes toward their countries, to distinguish different forms of national attachment (symbolic, constructive, uncritical patriotism, and nationalism), each of which should not be equated with feelings of national identity (Huddy & Khatib, 2007). Anderson (1992) distinguishes between nationalism (a sense of belonging to one particular nation as opposed to all other nations) from patriotism (positive feelings about one's nation without reference to other nations).

Positive attitudes toward one's nation are often viewed as vital for sustaining a healthy democracy (Dalton, 1999; Norris, 1999). Data from the World Values Survey show that, in many countries, majorities of adult citizens tend to express national pride and that levels of national pride across countries differ markedly (Inglehart, 1997).

Earlier research among adolescents in a number of countries provides evidence of a strong sense of attachment to one's nation (see, for example, Connell, 1972; Hess & Torney, 1967). The CIVED survey included 12 items reflecting attitudes toward one's country. Four of these items were used to measure "positive attitudes toward one's nation." The lower-secondary students participating in CIVED generally expressed highly positive feelings about their countries (Torney-Purta et al., 2001); in some countries, their upper-secondary school counterparts showed even more positive attitudes toward the nation (Amadeo et al., 2002). Gender differences were negligible in most of the CIVED countries.

The ICCS student questionnaire included a set of eight items (four of them from CIVED), seven of which were used to derive a scale measuring students' attitudes toward their country (expressions in angle brackets denote text adapted to the respective national contexts):

- 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 (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.82 for the combined international dataset. From the item-by-score map in Figure 4.6 in Appendix E, we can see that students with the average ICCS score of 50 would probably have agreed with all seven statements. Student agreement with the statements ranged from 60 percent (<country of test> shows a lot of respect for the environment) to 89 percent (I have great respect for <country of test>).



Table 4.7: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants

Country	Gender Differences for Attitudes Toward Equal Rights for Immigrants								
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	48 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.4)	46 (0.4)	-4 (0.5)			■		
Belgium (Flemish) †	46 (0.3) ▼	47 (0.3)	44 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)			■		
Bulgaria	52 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)			■		
Chile	54 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.2)	53 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)			■		
Chinese Taipei	56 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.2)	55 (0.2)	-2 (0.3)			■		
Colombia	54 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.2)	54 (0.2)	0 (0.3)			■		
Cyprus	49 (0.3) ▽	52 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-5 (0.4)			■		
Czech Republic †	48 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.2)	47 (0.2)	-3 (0.3)			■		
Denmark †	48 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.3)	47 (0.4)	-2 (0.4)			■		
Dominican Republic	51 (0.4) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.5)	-1 (0.4)			■		
England ‡	46 (0.3) ▼	47 (0.3)	45 (0.5)	-2 (0.5)			■		
Estonia	48 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	47 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)			■		
Finland	48 (0.3) ▽	51 (0.3)	45 (0.4)	-5 (0.5)			■		
Greece	51 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)			■		
Guatemala ¹	54 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.3)	54 (0.3)	0 (0.3)			■		
Indonesia	47 (0.1) ▼	47 (0.1)	47 (0.2)	0 (0.2)			■		
Ireland	50 (0.2)	52 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)			■		
Italy	48 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)			■		
Korea, Republic of ¹	49 (0.1) ▽	50 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	-1 (0.3)			■		
Latvia	47 (0.2) ▼	47 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)			■		
Liechtenstein	48 (0.5) ▽	49 (0.8)	47 (1.0)	-2 (1.4)			■		
Lithuania	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	50 (0.2)	-2 (0.3)			■		
Luxembourg	52 (0.2) △	53 (0.2)	51 (0.2)	-2 (0.4)			■		
Malta	49 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.5)	47 (0.3)	-3 (0.6)			■		
Mexico	55 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.3)	54 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)			■		
New Zealand †	51 (0.3) △	52 (0.3)	50 (0.5)	-2 (0.6)			■		
Norway †	50 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	-3 (0.5)			■		
Paraguay ¹	53 (0.2) ▲	53 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	0 (0.4)			■		
Poland	50 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-3 (0.3)			■		
Russian Federation	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)			■		
Slovak Republic ²	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	-2 (0.4)			■		
Slovenia	50 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	48 (0.4)	-4 (0.4)			■		
Spain	51 (0.3) △	51 (0.4)	50 (0.4)	-1 (0.4)			■		
Sweden	52 (0.4) △	54 (0.4)	49 (0.5)	-4 (0.5)			■		
Switzerland †	49 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.3)	47 (0.4)	-4 (0.5)			■		
Thailand †	48 (0.1) ▽	48 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	0 (0.3)			■		
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	51 (0.1)	49 (0.1)	-2 (0.1)					

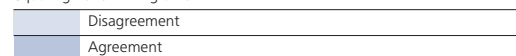
Countries not meeting sampling requirements									
Hong Kong SAR	52 (0.3)	54 (0.4)	53 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)			■		
Netherlands	47 (0.3)	47 (0.4)	44 (0.6)	-3 (0.7)			■		

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 positive statements about equal rights for immigrants with:



Notes:

- * Differences significant at $p < 0.05$ 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 4.8 shows the national averages for the scale reflecting students' attitudes toward their country. The table also presents scale score averages relating to students' immigrant background.³ However, we included data for students with an immigrant background only for those countries in which the sample size for this sub-group was sufficiently large (at least 50 cases).

The highest national averages of more than three points above the ICCS average were found in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, the Russian Federation, and Thailand. The lowest national averages were recorded in Belgium (Flemish), Chinese Taipei, the Czech Republic, Greece, the Republic of Korea, and Latvia.

When we compared scale means between students with and without an immigrant background, we observed that, in many countries, the students with an immigrant background held less positive attitudes toward the country in which they lived. On average, the difference between both groups was three score points. The largest differences (six score points or more) were found in Austria, Estonia, and Latvia. Of note is the lack of significant difference between the two groups in some of the countries with larger proportions of immigrant-background students, such as Belgium (Flemish), England, and Norway.

Researchers have been conducting studies about trust in institutions for over 50 years. Some studies, such as the World Values Survey, are conducted periodically and so allow comparisons over time. These studies all indicate a decline in trust in institutions among adults over the last decades of the 20th century (Newton & Norris, 2000), but some denote this decrease as relatively insubstantial (Fuchs & Klingemann, 1995).

Inglehart (1997) distinguishes between generalized interpersonal trust and institutional trust, seeing the latter as relating more to cultural and economic factors than to political stability. Klingemann (1999), however, shows that low levels of trust in political institutions are typical in societies that have recently undergone political transitions.

In her study with small student samples from five countries, Hahn (1998) found, among students, generally low levels of trust in government's responsiveness to citizens. The first two IEA civic education studies in 1971 and 1999 included items on trust in governmental institutions (Torney et al., 1975; Torney-Purta et al., 2001). Both studies found lower levels of trust among older students (Amadeo et al., 2003).

The ICCS student survey included an item that required students to rate their trust ("completely," "quite a lot," "a little," "not at all") in a number of civic institutions, including the national government, political parties, media, schools, and "people in general." The following six items were used to produce a scale of students' trust in civic attitudes (terms in angle brackets were adapted to the respective national context of countries):

- The <national government> of <country of test>;
- The <local government> of your town or city;
- Courts of justice;
- The police;
- Political parties;
- <National parliament>.

³ Students were divided into two categories. The category "students with immigrant background" included students who reported that they and both parents had *not* been born in the country of test or students who had been born in the country of test but whose parents had been born abroad. 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 4.8: National averages for students' attitudes toward their country by immigrant background

Country	Students' Attitudes Toward Their Country by Immigrant Background				Differences (A-B)*					
	All students	Students with non-immigrant background (A)	Students with immigrant background (B)			30	40	50	60	70
Austria	52 (0.3) △	53 (0.2)	47 (0.5)	6 (0.5)						
Belgium (Flemish) †	44 (0.2) ▼	44 (0.2)	44 (0.5)	0 (0.5)						
Bulgaria	48 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.3)	^							
Chile	51 (0.2) △	51 (0.2)	^							
Chinese Taipei	47 (0.2) ▼	47 (0.2)	^							
Colombia	55 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.2)	^							
Cyprus	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	45 (0.7)	5 (0.7)						
Czech Republic †	45 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	44 (1.0)	1 (1.0)						
Denmark †	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	45 (0.5)	4 (0.5)						
Dominican Republic	56 (0.6) ▲	56 (0.6)	53 (1.3)	4 (1.6)						
England ‡	47 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.2)	47 (0.7)	1 (0.7)						
Estonia	49 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.3)	41 (0.9)	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)	2 (0.6)						
Guatemala ¹	54 (0.3) ▲	54 (0.3)	51 (1.3)	2 (1.3)						
Indonesia	59 (0.2) ▲	59 (0.2)	56 (1.2)	3 (1.3)						
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)						
Korea, Republic of ¹	45 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	^							
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)	^							
Mexico	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	53 (1.1)	-1 (1.1)						
New Zealand †	51 (0.3) △	52 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	2 (0.4)						
Norway †	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	51 (0.8)	1 (0.8)						
Paraguay ¹	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	51 (1.4)	2 (1.4)						
Poland	48 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.3)	^							
Russian Federation	53 (0.3) ▲	53 (0.3)	52 (0.7)	2 (0.7)						
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.3)	^							
Slovenia	51 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	46 (0.7)	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)						
Thailand †	59 (0.2) ▲	59 (0.2)	58 (1.1)	1 (1.1)						
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	50 (0.0)	47 (0.3)	3 (0.3)						

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	47 (0.2)	47 (0.2)	47 (0.3)	0 (0.4)						
Netherlands	47 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	44 (0.8)	4 (0.9)						

National average

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

Notes:

- ^ Number of students too small to report group average scores.
- * Differences significant at $p < 0.05$ 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

- Non-immigrant students' average score +/- confidence interval
- Immigrant students' 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 their country with:

	Disagreement
	Agreement

The reliability for this six-item scale was 0.84 (Cronbach's alpha) for the combined international dataset. Figure 4.7 (Appendix E) shows the item-by-score map for these items. From it, we can assume that students with an average ICCS score of 50 would have expressed, at the least, quite a lot of trust in all of the civic institutions except political parties. The percentages of students who trusted "quite a lot" or "completely" ranged from 41 percent (political parties) to 67 percent (courts of justice).

Table 4.9 shows the national averages of students' trust in civic institutions. The highest country means of more than three score points above the ICCS average were found in the Dominican Republic, Finland, Indonesia, Liechtenstein, and Thailand. The lowest national averages were recorded in Cyprus, Greece, Guatemala, the Republic of Korea, Latvia, and Poland. Gender differences, which were negligible in most countries, are not reported.

We consider that it is interesting to review, in addition to the overall levels of students' trust in civic institutions shown in Table 4.9, students' trust in individual institutions, including some that were not part of the reporting scale. Table 4.10 shows the percentages of students who said that they trusted "completely" or "quite a lot" the national government, political parties, media (television, newspapers, radio), schools, and "people in general."

In most countries, the institution that students tended to trust least was political parties; only 41 percent, on average, expressed complete trust or quite a lot of trust in these organizations. On average, about 60 percent of students across ICCS countries expressed trust in their national governments, the media, and "people in general", while three quarters of students had, at least, quite a lot of trust in schools.

The highest levels of trust in the national government were found in Austria, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, Finland, Indonesia, Italy, Liechtenstein, the Russian Federation, Sweden, and Thailand. Considerably lower percentages were recorded in Belgium (Flemish), Chinese Taipei, Cyprus, Greece, Guatemala, Ireland, the Republic of Korea, Latvia, and Poland.

The highest percentages of students expressing trust in political parties were found in Denmark, the Dominican Republic, Finland, Indonesia, Italy, Liechtenstein, Malta, Norway, Sweden, and Thailand. Less than 30 percent of students trusted these institutions in Chinese Taipei, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece, Guatemala, the Republic of Korea, Poland, and the Slovak Republic. No ICCS country had students who trusted political parties to the same degree that they trusted the national government.

Traditionally, identification with political parties is considered to be a product of age and is assumed to strengthen with increasing age. However, there is evidence that, in recent times, young people have become even less interested and engaged in political parties than they were in the past (Dalton, 2002). There are also signs that youth sections of political parties as a traditional channel for recruitment are losing importance (see, for example, Hooghe, Stolle, & Stouthuysen, 2004).

The ICCS survey included two questions asking students if they liked a particular political party more than others, and, if they did, how much they favored this party ("a little," "to some extent," "a lot"). The resulting variable, with its four categories, was designed to measure level of support for political parties.

Table 4.11 shows the percentages of students for each of the four categories. It is evident that the percentages of students who reported no preferences for a political party varied considerably across countries. In countries such as the Dominican Republic, Indonesia, Malta, and Mexico, less than a third of students had no party preferences, whereas in Chinese Taipei, the Czech Republic, England, Finland, the Republic of Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, and the Slovak Republic, more than two thirds of students had no party preferences. On average, across countries, about half of the participating students expressed no preference for any particular party.



Table 4.9: National averages for students' trust in civic institutions

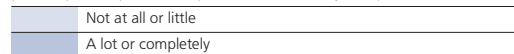
Country	Students' Trust in Civic Institutions					
	Average scale score	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	53 (0.2) △					
Belgium (Flemish) †	49 (0.2) ▽					
Bulgaria	48 (0.3) ▽					
Chile	50 (0.3)					
Chinese Taipei	48 (0.2) ▽					
Colombia	50 (0.3)					
Cyprus	45 (0.2) ▼					
Czech Republic †	48 (0.2) ▽					
Denmark †	52 (0.2) △					
Dominican Republic	54 (0.4) ▲					
England ‡	51 (0.2) △					
Estonia	48 (0.2) ▽					
Finland	53 (0.2) ▲					
Greece	45 (0.2) ▼					
Guatemala ¹	47 (0.3) ▼					
Indonesia	59 (0.3) ▲					
Ireland	49 (0.2) ▽					
Italy	52 (0.2) △					
Korea, Republic of ¹	43 (0.2) ▼					
Latvia	45 (0.2) ▼					
Liechtenstein	55 (0.5) ▲					
Lithuania	48 (0.2) ▽					
Luxembourg	51 (0.1) △					
Malta	52 (0.3) △					
Mexico	49 (0.2) ▽					
New Zealand †	50 (0.2) △					
Norway †	53 (0.3) △					
Paraguay ¹	50 (0.2)					
Poland	45 (0.3) ▼					
Russian Federation	52 (0.2) △					
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.3) ▽					
Slovenia	48 (0.3) ▽					
Spain	50 (0.2)					
Sweden	52 (0.3) △					
Switzerland †	51 (0.2) △					
Thailand †	56 (0.2) ▲					
ICCS average	50 (0.0)					
Countries not meeting sampling requirements						
Hong Kong SAR	51 (0.2)					
Netherlands	51 (0.4)					

National average

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

■ Average score +/- confidence interval

On average, students with a score in this range have more than a 50% probability of trusting civic institutions (national and local government, political parties, parliament, police, and courts of justice):



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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



In most countries, among those students who had a preference, the largest group of students (usually about a quarter of all students) included those who stated that they favored a party to “some extent.” In a few countries (Austria, Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Malta, and New Zealand), about a quarter or more of the students reported “a lot” of support for a particular political party.

Students' engagement with religion

Engagement with religion may be regarded as an important part of a broader civic engagement (Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). The ICCS student questionnaire included an international option consisting of a set of three questions that was administered in 28 of the 38 participating countries.⁴ Two of the questions asked students whether they identified with a religion (the categories were adapted to national contexts) and to what extent they attended religious services (“never,” “less than once a year,” “at least once a year,” “at least once a month,” “at least once a week”). The categories reflecting students' affiliation with a religion were dichotomized as (1) identifying with a religion, and (2) not identifying with any religion.

Table 4.12 shows the percentages of students who said they identified with a religion and the frequencies of attendance among those students who said they went to religious services. On average, across ICCS countries, 81 percent of students reported that they identified with a religion. However, there was considerable variation within this proportion, ranging from a very low 25 percent in the Czech Republic to almost 100 percent in Cyprus and Thailand.

Identification with a religion does not reveal to what extent students are really engaged with it. When the students were asked about their attendance at religious services, only a minority, on average, of 21 percent reported that they attended on a weekly basis. Forty-one percent stated that they never attended a service or attended only once a year. As with religious identification, there was considerable variation across countries. Whereas in Colombia, Guatemala, Malta, Paraguay, Poland, and Thailand, the proportion of students who reported attending religious services at least once a month was more than 60 percent, this proportion was below 20 percent in Belgium (Flemish), Chinese Taipei, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Latvia, Norway, and the Russian Federation.

The ICCS student questionnaire also included items that asked students what influence they thought religion should have in society. The following five Likert-type items, each with four response categories (“strongly agree,” “agree,” “disagree,” “strongly disagree”), were used to measure students' attitudes toward the influence of religion in society:

- Religion is more important to me than what is happening in national politics;
- Religion helps me to decide what is right and what is wrong;
- Religious leaders should have more power in society;
- Religion should influence people's behavior toward others;
- Rules of life based on religion are more important than civil laws.

The resulting five-item scale had a reliability of 0.89 for the combined international database. The item-by-score map in Figure 4.8 of Appendix E shows that a student with an average ICCS score of 50 was likely to have agreed that religion should influence people's behavior toward others. However, he or she was likely to have disagreed with statements expressing the notions that religious leaders should have more influence in society and that rules of life based on religion are more important than civic laws. The agreement ranged from 34 percent (more power for religious leaders) to 58 percent (religious influence on people's behavior).



⁴ In a few cases, the ICCS national centers chose to administer only one or two of these questions. However, we include in this report analysis of only the data from countries that included all three optional questions.



Table 4.10: National percentages of students' trust in different civic institutions and people in general

Country	Percentages of Students Trusting Completely or Quite a Lot in ...									
	national government	political parties	media	schools	armed forces	United Nations	people in general			
Austria	77 (0.9) ▲	48 (1.3) △	53 (1.0) ▽	67 (1.2) ▽	66 (1.0) ▽	62 (1.0) ▽	64 (0.9) △			
Belgium (Flemish) †	51 (1.0) ▼	35 (1.1) ▽	48 (1.0) ▼	74 (1.2)	68 (1.0) ▽	58 (1.3) ▽	57 (1.1)			
Bulgaria	56 (1.3) ▽	32 (1.2) ▽	70 (1.1) △	80 (1.0) △	67 (0.9) ▽	61 (1.2) ▽	64 (1.1) △			
Chile	65 (1.0) △	34 (1.0) ▽	74 (0.7) ▲	80 (0.8) △	81 (0.5) ▲	65 (1.1)	52 (0.9) ▽			
Chinese Taipei	44 (0.9) ▼	26 (0.8) ▼	43 (0.8) ▼	71 (1.0) ▽	59 (0.8) ▼	69 (0.8) △	51 (0.9) ▽			
Colombia	62 (1.2)	35 (1.1) ▽	72 (1.0) ▲	87 (0.6) ▲	80 (0.7) △	62 (1.1) ▽	49 (0.9) ▽			
Cyprus	51 (0.9) ▼	31 (0.8) ▽	57 (1.2) ▽	57 (1.1) ▼	58 (1.0) ▼	42 (0.9) ▼	47 (0.9) ▼			
Czech Republic †	55 (0.9) ▽	28 (0.8) ▼	65 (1.0) △	73 (0.9)	71 (0.8)	58 (0.8) ▽	63 (0.9) △			
Denmark †	72 (1.0) ▲	56 (1.2) ▲	56 (1.0) ▽	74 (1.1)	78 (0.9) △	76 (0.8) △	68 (0.8) ▲			
Dominican Republic	74 (1.3) ▲	51 (1.2) ▲	76 (1.0) ▲	88 (1.3) ▲	68 (1.9)	68 (1.1)	61 (1.3)			
England †	71 (0.9) △	43 (1.2)	46 (1.2) ▼	73 (1.0)	77 (1.2) △	65 (1.1)	52 (1.0) ▽			
Estonia	62 (1.4)	23 (1.3) ▼	54 (1.0) ▽	71 (1.2) ▽	75 (1.2) △	55 (1.5) ▼	58 (1.0)			
Finland	82 (0.8) ▲	61 (1.0) ▲	80 (0.8) ▲	76 (1.0)	88 (0.6) ▲	81 (0.8) ▲	76 (0.8) ▲			
Greece	41 (1.2) ▼	25 (1.1) ▼	48 (1.0) ▼	73 (1.0)	63 (1.0) ▽	52 (1.1) ▼	57 (1.1)			
Guatemala ¹	45 (1.4) ▼	26 (1.0) ▼	70 (1.0) △	88 (1.0) ▲	63 (1.0) ▽	66 (1.0)	47 (1.1) ▼			
Indonesia	96 (0.4) ▲	66 (1.1) ▲	75 (0.9) ▲	96 (0.4) ▲	88 (0.7) ▲	87 (0.6) ▲	77 (0.8) ▲			
Ireland	52 (1.0) ▼	40 (1.1)	48 (1.0) ▼	75 (0.9)	76 (0.9) △	69 (1.1)	64 (1.0) △			
Italy	74 (0.9) ▲	52 (1.1) ▲	81 (0.9) ▲	82 (0.8) △	84 (0.7) ▲	80 (1.0) ▲	52 (1.0) ▽			
Korea, Republic of ¹	20 (0.7) ▼	18 (0.7) ▼	51 (0.8) ▽	45 (0.8) ▼	36 (0.8) ▼	63 (0.8) ▽	39 (0.7) ▼			
Latvia	32 (1.2) ▼	25 (1.0) ▼	65 (1.3) △	73 (1.2)	70 (1.1)	59 (1.4) ▽	58 (1.1)			
Liechtenstein	82 (2.1) ▲	64 (2.4) ▲	57 (2.5)	70 (2.4)		74 (2.3) △	70 (2.4) ▲			
Lithuania	54 (0.9) ▽	33 (1.1) ▽	67 (0.9) △	80 (0.9) △	77 (0.8) △	68 (1.1)	66 (0.8) △			
Luxembourg	72 (0.7) △	48 (0.7) △	62 (0.6)	70 (1.0) ▽	51 (0.9) ▼	66 (0.8)	64 (0.8) △			
Malta	62 (1.4)	55 (1.7) ▲	70 (1.1) △	76 (1.7)	78 (1.3) △	69 (1.7)	50 (1.3) ▽			
Mexico	58 (1.0) ▽	35 (1.0) ▽	57 (0.8) ▽	72 (0.9) ▽	62 (1.1) ▽	66 (1.0)	47 (0.8) ▼			
New Zealand †	66 (1.0) △	42 (1.2)	49 (1.3) ▼	68 (1.0) ▽	79 (1.1) △	59 (1.0) ▽	58 (1.3)			
Norway †	68 (1.1) △	56 (1.0) ▲	51 (1.0) ▽	72 (1.2) ▽	83 (1.0) ▲	83 (1.0) ▲	52 (1.1) ▽			

Table 4.10: National percentages of students' trust in different civic institutions and people in general (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Students Trusting Completely or Quite a Lot in ...									
	national government	political parties	media	schools	armed forces	United Nations	people in general			
Paraguay ¹	66 (1.3) △	32 (0.9) ▽	74 (1.5) ▲	88 (0.8) ▲	61 (0.9) ▼	70 (1.1) △	57 (1.0)			
Poland	36 (1.2) ▼	23 (1.1) ▼	52 (1.0) ▽	63 (1.4) ▼	67 (1.1) ▽	55 (1.2) ▼	58 (1.0)			
Russian Federation	88 (0.7) ▲	51 (0.9) △	41 (1.0) ▼	84 (0.7) △	80 (0.8) △	71 (0.9) △	51 (1.0) ▽			
Slovak Republic ²	57 (1.3) ▽	31 (1.2) ▼	58 (1.1) ▽	65 (1.2) ▽	69 (1.2)	64 (1.4) ▽	51 (1.3) ▽			
Slovenia	56 (1.4) ▽	45 (1.3) △	64 (1.1) △	68 (1.2) ▽	72 (1.2)	62 (1.1) ▽	71 (0.9) ▲			
Spain	62 (1.2)	40 (0.9)	69 (0.9) △	82 (0.9) △	75 (0.8) △	73 (0.9) △	59 (1.0)			
Sweden	73 (1.2) ▲	60 (1.3) ▲	54 (0.9) ▽	64 (1.2) ▼	73 (1.1)	82 (1.0) ▲	67 (0.8) △			
Switzerland †	69 (1.0) △	46 (1.0) △	54 (1.1) ▽	67 (1.2) ▽	65 (1.1) ▽	63 (1.5) ▽	64 (1.2) △			
Thailand †	85 (0.8) ▲	61 (1.0) ▲	72 (0.9) ▲	91 (0.6) ▲	79 (0.7) △	83 (0.7) ▲	63 (0.9) △			
ICCS average	62 (0.2)	41 (0.2)	61 (0.2)	75 (0.2)	71 (0.2)	67 (0.2)	58 (0.2))			
Countries not meeting sampling requirements										
Hong Kong SAR	70 (1.1)	38 (1.0)	42 (1.0)	75 (1.4)	49 (1.1)	71 (1.1)	30 (0.9)			
Netherlands	70 (2.2)	53 (1.7)	48 (1.2)	75 (1.4)	81 (1.3)	65 (1.7)	57 (1.3)			

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average
 △ Significantly above ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below ICCS average
 ▽ Significantly below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 4.11: National percentages of students' support for political parties

Country	Percentages of Students Who ...			
	do not like any political party more than others	like one party more than others		
		a little	to some extent	a lot
Austria	37 (1.2) ▼	5 (0.4)	27 (0.8)	30 (1.1)
Belgium (Flemish) †	51 (1.1)	22 (0.9)	21 (0.8)	6 (0.4)
Bulgaria	62 (1.1) △	6 (0.5)	19 (0.7)	14 (0.8)
Chile	59 (0.9) △	8 (0.5)	24 (0.7)	9 (0.5)
Chinese Taipei	69 (0.9) ▲	7 (0.4)	16 (0.6)	7 (0.4)
Colombia	52 (1.2)	12 (0.5)	26 (1.0)	10 (0.6)
Cyprus	50 (0.9) ▽	8 (0.5)	18 (0.8)	25 (0.9)
Czech Republic †	66 (0.9) ▲	8 (0.5)	20 (0.7)	6 (0.4)
Denmark †	50 (1.2)	7 (0.4)	26 (1.0)	17 (0.8)
Dominican Republic	23 (0.8) ▼	22 (0.7)	23 (1.3)	32 (1.1)
England ‡	67 (1.3) ▲	7 (0.5)	18 (1.0)	7 (0.6)
Estonia	47 (1.5) ▽	12 (0.6)	31 (1.2)	10 (0.8)
Finland	73 (0.9) ▲	7 (0.6)	16 (0.7)	5 (0.4)
Greece	53 (1.1)	12 (0.7)	23 (0.8)	13 (0.8)
Guatemala ¹	44 (1.4) ▽	10 (0.5)	25 (1.2)	20 (1.1)
Indonesia	25 (0.9) ▼	7 (0.4)	47 (1.1)	22 (0.8)
Ireland	56 (1.1) △	9 (0.5)	23 (0.8)	12 (0.7)
Italy	55 (1.1) △	8 (0.4)	25 (0.9)	12 (0.7)
Korea, Republic of ¹	87 (0.5) ▲	4 (0.3)	7 (0.4)	2 (0.2)
Latvia	66 (1.3) ▲	8 (0.5)	21 (1.0)	5 (0.6)
Liechtenstein	46 (2.6) ▽	7 (1.2)	22 (2.2)	24 (2.4)
Lithuania	67 (1.0) ▲	9 (0.5)	21 (0.9)	4 (0.3)
Luxembourg	61 (0.7) △	5 (0.4)	21 (0.7)	13 (0.5)
Malta	28 (1.1) ▼	5 (0.7)	28 (1.2)	39 (1.1)
Mexico	24 (0.8) ▼	29 (0.8)	32 (0.9)	15 (0.7)
New Zealand †	33 (1.1) ▼	11 (0.5)	31 (0.7)	25 (1.0)
Norway †	46 (1.2) ▽	11 (0.5)	31 (1.1)	12 (0.7)
Paraguay ¹	53 (1.1)	8 (0.6)	24 (0.9)	15 (1.0)
Poland	60 (1.0) △	5 (0.4)	25 (0.8)	10 (0.6)
Russian Federation	42 (1.1) ▼	7 (0.4)	31 (0.9)	20 (1.0)
Slovak Republic ²	68 (1.4) ▲	12 (0.7)	17 (0.8)	3 (0.5)
Slovenia	61 (1.0) △	8 (0.5)	22 (0.9)	9 (0.7)
Spain	49 (1.1) ▽	5 (0.5)	28 (0.8)	18 (0.9)
Sweden	45 (1.2) ▽	11 (0.6)	31 (1.1)	13 (0.7)
Switzerland †	48 (1.3) ▽	7 (0.6)	28 (1.1)	17 (0.8)
Thailand †	53 (0.9)	2 (0.3)	30 (0.8)	15 (0.8)
ICCS average	52 (0.2)	9 (0.1)	24 (0.2)	14 (0.1)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	82 (1.2)	5 (0.4)	12 (0.9)	2 (0.3)
Netherlands	53 (2.1)	12 (1.2)	29 (2.2)	6 (0.9))

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 4.12: National percentages of students belonging to a religion and percentages of students' attendance at religious services

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting that They Belong to ...		Percentages of Students Reporting that They Attend Religious Services Outside Home with a Group of Other People ...				
	a religion	no religion	never	less than once a year	at least once a year	at least once a month	once a week
Austria	96 (0.5)	4 (0.5)	18 (1.0)	12 (0.7)	29 (1.2)	27 (1.1)	15 (0.9)
Belgium (Flemish) †	64 (1.8)	36 (1.8)	41 (1.5)	18 (0.7)	29 (1.4)	7 (0.6)	5 (0.6)
Bulgaria	84 (1.2)	16 (1.2)	27 (1.2)	16 (0.7)	33 (1.0)	17 (1.0)	7 (0.6)
Chile	89 (0.7)	11 (0.7)	24 (1.0)	13 (0.4)	20 (0.8)	19 (0.7)	24 (1.0)
Chinese Taipei	69 (1.0)	31 (1.0)	43 (1.0)	16 (0.6)	24 (0.6)	10 (0.5)	7 (0.6)
Colombia	92 (0.6)	8 (0.6)	13 (0.6)	9 (0.5)	14 (0.6)	26 (0.8)	39 (1.1)
Cyprus	99 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	15 (0.9)	13 (0.7)	20 (0.8)	32 (0.9)	20 (0.7)
Czech Republic †	25 (1.3)	75 (1.3)	70 (1.2)	11 (0.6)	10 (0.5)	3 (0.3)	5 (0.6)
Denmark †	82 (1.0)	18 (1.0)	42 (1.3)	17 (0.7)	29 (0.8)	7 (0.6)	5 (0.6)
Dominican Republic	79 (1.2)	21 (1.2)	20 (0.7)	12 (0.7)	11 (0.5)	15 (0.7)	43 (1.1)
England ‡	56 (2.2)	44 (2.2)	53 (2.1)	10 (0.7)	13 (0.9)	10 (0.9)	14 (1.3)
Greece	96 (0.4)	4 (0.4)	25 (1.0)	17 (0.9)	24 (0.9)	24 (0.9)	11 (0.7)
Guatemala ¹	89 (1.0)	11 (1.0)	10 (0.7)	7 (0.4)	10 (0.5)	18 (0.8)	55 (1.5)
Korea, Republic of ¹	56 (0.7)	44 (0.7)	41 (0.8)	5 (0.3)	25 (0.6)	9 (0.4)	19 (0.6)
Latvia	69 (1.5)	31 (1.5)	33 (1.5)	22 (0.9)	29 (1.4)	11 (0.8)	4 (0.6)
Liechtenstein	95 (1.1)	5 (1.1)	20 (2.2)	16 (2.1)	40 (2.7)	19 (2.2)	5 (1.3)
Lithuania	85 (1.0)	15 (1.0)	31 (1.0)	18 (0.8)	29 (0.9)	15 (0.7)	7 (0.7)
Luxembourg	81 (0.6)	19 (0.6)	41 (1.0)	15 (0.5)	21 (0.8)	13 (0.5)	10 (0.7)
Malta	97 (0.4)	3 (0.4)	14 (1.1)	6 (0.6)	10 (0.8)	13 (1.1)	57 (1.5)
Norway †	71 (1.3)	29 (1.3)	39 (1.3)	17 (1.0)	31 (1.2)	5 (0.6)	7 (1.1)
Paraguay ¹	92 (0.7)	8 (0.7)	12 (0.7)	8 (0.7)	12 (0.6)	20 (0.9)	48 (1.2)
Poland	97 (0.3)	3 (0.3)	9 (0.7)	6 (0.5)	12 (0.6)	17 (0.8)	56 (1.3)
Russian Federation	79 (1.1)	21 (1.1)	33 (1.6)	21 (0.7)	30 (1.1)	11 (0.7)	5 (0.7)
Slovak Republic ²	83 (1.2)	17 (1.2)	25 (1.4)	10 (0.7)	18 (1.0)	12 (0.7)	36 (2.2)
Switzerland †	87 (1.0)	13 (1.0)	24 (1.1)	14 (0.8)	31 (1.2)	23 (0.9)	9 (0.8)
Thailand †	99 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	8 (0.4)	10 (0.7)	21 (0.6)	38 (0.9)	24 (0.9)
ICCS average	81 (0.2)	19 (0.2)	28 (0.2)	13 (0.2)	22 (0.2)	16 (0.2)	21 (0.2)
Countries not meeting sampling requirements							
Hong Kong SAR	42 (1.7)	58 (1.7)	53 (1.3)	14 (0.8)	12 (0.8)	8 (0.6)	14 (0.9)
Netherlands	53 (3.0)	47 (3.0)	47 (2.1)	14 (1.1)	22 (2.0)	7 (0.8)	10 (2.2)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 4.13 shows the national averages for students' attitudes toward the influence of religion on society overall, along with students' self-reported attendance at religious services. As was evident from the students' reports on belonging to a religion and attendance at religious services, the information presented in Table 4.13 shows considerable variation among participating countries. Countries with high national averages include Colombia, Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Malta, Paraguay, Poland, and Thailand. The lowest country means evident relate to Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, Denmark, England, the Republic of Korea, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway, and Switzerland.



Table 4.13: National averages for students' attitudes toward the influence of religion in society overall and by attendance at religious services

Country	Attitudes Toward the Influence of Religion in Society by Attendance of Religious Services				
	All students	Students attending at least monthly (A)	Students never or rarely attending (B)	Differences (A-B)*	
Austria	48 (0.3) ▽	51 (0.3)	45 (0.3)	7 (0.3)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	45 (0.2) ▼	53 (0.6)	45 (0.2)	8 (0.6)	
Bulgaria	51 (0.3) △	54 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	5 (0.3)	
Chile	53 (0.2) △	56 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	5 (0.3)	
Chinese Taipei	48 (0.2) ▽	53 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	6 (0.3)	
Colombia	54 (0.1) ▲	55 (0.1)	53 (0.2)	3 (0.2)	
Cyprus	57 (0.2) ▲	58 (0.2)	55 (0.3)	3 (0.4)	
Czech Republic †	41 (0.2) ▼	53 (0.4)	40 (0.2)	13 (0.4)	
Denmark †	44 (0.2) ▼	51 (0.8)	43 (0.2)	8 (0.8)	
Dominican Republic	58 (0.2) ▲	59 (0.2)	57 (0.4)	2 (0.4)	
England ‡	47 (0.4) ▼	56 (0.4)	44 (0.3)	11 (0.4)	
Greece	53 (0.2) △	55 (0.2)	51 (0.2)	4 (0.3)	
Guatemala ¹	57 (0.2) ▲	58 (0.1)	55 (0.4)	2 (0.4)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	42 (0.1) ▼	50 (0.2)	39 (0.1)	10 (0.3)	
Latvia	47 (0.3) ▽	53 (0.4)	46 (0.3)	7 (0.4)	
Liechtenstein	45 (0.5) ▼	51 (0.8)	43 (0.6)	8 (1.0)	
Lithuania	49 (0.2) ▽	52 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	5 (0.3)	
Luxembourg	46 (0.2) ▼	52 (0.3)	44 (0.2)	8 (0.4)	
Malta	55 (0.2) ▲	57 (0.2)	52 (0.4)	5 (0.5)	
Norway †	46 (0.3) ▼	57 (0.5)	44 (0.2)	12 (0.5)	
Paraguay ¹	56 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.2)	54 (0.3)	2 (0.3)	
Poland	54 (0.3) ▲	55 (0.2)	50 (0.5)	5 (0.4)	
Russian Federation	52 (0.2) △	56 (0.6)	51 (0.2)	5 (0.7)	
Slovak Republic ²	49 (0.3) ▽	54 (0.3)	45 (0.4)	9 (0.4)	
Switzerland †	46 (0.3) ▼	51 (0.5)	43 (0.3)	8 (0.5)	
Thailand	58 (0.1) ▲	58 (0.2)	57 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	54 (0.1)	48 (0.1)	6 (0.1)	

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	46 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	45 (0.3)	7 (0.4)	
Netherlands	46 (0.4)	54 (0.6)	44 (0.4)	10 (0.6)	

National average

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

- Average score for attending students +/- confidence interval
- Average score for non-attending students +/- confidence interval

On average, students with a score in this range have more than a 50% probability of responding to affirmative statements regarding the influence of religion on society with:



Notes:

- * Differences significant at $p < 0.05$ 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Not surprisingly, students who said they regularly attended religious services were generally more in favor of religious influence in society than were those students who attended less regularly or not at all. Significant differences between these groups were recorded in all participating countries. On average, the difference was six scale points. However, in a number of countries with very high overall averages, such as the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Paraguay, and Thailand, this difference was relatively small, whereas in the Czech Republic, England, the Republic of Korea, and Norway, the difference was more than 10 scale points (i.e., one international standard deviation).

Summary of findings

The ICCS survey of students' value beliefs and attitudes provided a number of interesting findings about the way students think about civic society. These findings related to students' perceptions of democracy and citizenship, the extent of support they accorded equal rights and diversity, the attitudes they held toward their country and institutions, and their engagement with religion.

When the students were asked to what extent they supported basic democratic values, large majorities in all participating countries said they did so. However, the pattern of responses across countries in relation to various aspects of societies, such as nepotistic behavior of political leaders, media monopolies, and criticism of government, was less clear cut.

Research Question 4 specifically asked students how societies should react to threats from terrorism. ICCS results show that, in most countries, majorities of students agreed with measures giving more power to security agencies and were even more supportive of possible restrictions on media coverage.

Students were also asked about the importance of a number of conventional behaviors associated with good citizenship. Large majorities rated voting, learning about national history, and showing respect for government officials as quite or very important. However, only minorities of students thought that the same was true for joining political parties. Among social-movement-related activities, students overwhelmingly rated participation in activities to help people in the local community, to promote human rights, and to protect the environment as a quite or very important aspect of being a good citizen.

Similar to the findings from the IEA CIVED survey, the ICCS findings showed that the participating lower-secondary students generally strongly endorsed gender equality. However, there was some notable variation in this overall pattern across countries. As observed in the previous IEA survey, in all participating countries, female students were significantly more supportive than male students of gender equality. Similarly, majorities of students tended to agree with the notion of equal rights and opportunities for all ethnic or racial groups as well as for immigrants, with females tending to score significantly higher than males.

Considerable variation was also evident among the ICCS countries with regard to trust in civic institutions; political parties emerged as the least-trusted institution. However, the extent of trust in and support for political parties also varied quite noticeably across countries. Parties in some countries attracted clearly higher levels of trust and/or support than the political parties in others, where few students trusted these organizations or had a preference for any one of them.

The ICCS students generally held very positive attitudes toward their own country, but there was a notable difference to this pattern among students with an immigrant background. These students tended to be less positive about the country they were living in than were students from non-immigrant backgrounds. This pattern was particularly pronounced in some of the countries with larger proportions of immigrant population.



A majority of 28 countries provided data for the international option on students' engagement with religion. The results showed considerable cross-country variation with respect to students' self-reported identification with a religion and their attendance at religious services. When the students were asked to what extent they supported religion having an influence in society, only minorities of them were clearly in favor of that influence. There were notable differences on this scale across countries as well as within sub-groups of students with and without active involvement in religious services.



Students' civic engagement

In this chapter, we again address Research Question 3: “What is the extent of interest and disposition to engage in public and political life among adolescents and which factors within or across countries are related to it?” Our focus this time, however, is on different aspects of students' civic engagement across ICCS countries. The data relevant to these aspects were collected through the ICCS student questionnaire, which consisted mainly of Likert-type items and where measures were either single items (reported as percentages) or scales.¹

Civic engagement of citizens is a central characteristic of a democratic society. For this reason, one of the ICCS researchers' key aims when undertaking the survey was to measure the extent of students' engagement with aspects of civic and citizenship education. Engagement in any subject matter area includes a variety of different processes that tend to be related to one another (see Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997). Civic engagement thus refers not only to students' personal involvement in activities related to this area, such as learning and active participation, but also comprises their motivation to engage, their confidence in the effectiveness of participation, and their beliefs about their own capacity to become actively involved.

Civic engagement should not be confined to the sphere of politics. In his work on social capital and citizen participation, Putnam (1995) defines civic engagement as “people's connections with the life of their communities, not merely politics” (p. 665). Although definitions of citizen engagement differ, research studies emphasize the importance of formal education as a strong predictor of adult engagement (see Nie, Junn, & Stehlik-Barry, 1996).

Ekman and Amnå (2009) distinguish civic participation (latent political participation) from manifest political participation as well as individual forms from collective forms of engagement. In this typology, civic participation consists of involvement (e.g., interest and attentiveness) and civic engagement (defined here as either individual or collective activities outside the political sphere). Political participation can involve formal political participation (e.g., voting or party membership) or activism (legal or illegal protest).

In this chapter, we define students' civic engagement as the attitudes, behaviors, and behavioral intentions that relate to more general civic participation as well as manifest political participation. We consider that any review of the extent of students' civic engagement needs to consider the following aspects:

- *Student self-beliefs* (interest, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy): indicative of psychological involvement;
- *Student engagement in communication about political and social issues* (discussions, information-seeking): indicative of individual civic engagement;
- *Student participation in civic activities outside of school*: reflects student involvement in collective civic engagement that is not part of the formal learning context;
- *Student participation in civic activities at their schools*: reflects student involvement in collective civic engagement that is related to education;
- *Students' expected political participation in the future*: refers to behavioral intentions with regard to legal and illegal forms as well as individual (electoral) or collective (active political) forms of formal participation.

¹ Although the civic knowledge scale was set to have a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100, the metric of all ICCS questionnaire scales was set to an international metric with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted national samples. (Appendix D provides a description of the scaling of questionnaire items.)



In the following sections of this chapter, we not only report the ICCS data on each of these aspects but also describe the general extent of students' civic engagement and its variation across the participating countries. We also include bivariate associations of selected indicators with gender, civic knowledge, and interest in political and social issues.²

Students' self-beliefs

Research shows that an individual's psychological engagement (e.g., interest, feelings of efficacy) can be an important predictor of political participation (see, for example, Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). In particular, interest in politics is generally seen as an important pre-condition for any political activity (van Deth, 2000). Between the 1960s and 1990s, an observed growth in political interest in Western democracies appeared to be associated with a change from materialist to post-materialist orientations (Gabriel & van Deth, 1995; Inglehart, 1997).

Many research studies report women as less interested than men in politics (e.g., Bennett, 1986; Bennett & Bennett, 1989). Although some of the earlier studies indicate a narrowing gender gap in interest in some countries (Hahn, 1998), more recent research shows that considerable gender differences still exist in many countries (Inglehart & Norris, 2003). However, there is evidence that findings about the existence and extent of gender differences may depend on contextual factors (Burns, Lehman Schlozman, & Verba, 1997) or the wording and format of the survey question (Mondak & Anderson, 2004; Oswald & Schmid, 1998).

In the first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971, measures of interest in public affairs television were positive predictors of civic knowledge and participation (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975). In the CIVED survey, political interest was measured with just one item ("I am interested in politics"), which featured a four-point Likert scale and a "don't know" category. This interest measure was used as a predictor for the upper-secondary school students tested in CIVED, and the association was statistically significant (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002).

ICCS included a list of more specific items covering students' interest in a broader range of six different political and social issues, each of which had four response categories—"not interested at all," "not very interested," "quite interested," "very interested." The following five items were used to derive a scale reflecting student interest in political and social issues.

- Political issues within student's local community;
- Political issues in student's country;
- Social issues in student's country;
- Politics in other countries;
- International politics.

Figure 5.1 in Appendix E shows that students with an average ICCS scale score of 50 tended to have little interest in political and social issues. The percentages of quite or very interested students differed noticeably for the combined international sample with equally weighted national samples. Whereas only 28 percent of students expressed interest in politics in other countries and 36 percent in international politics, a majority of students said they were quite interested in social issues (59%) and political issues (53%) in their country. The scale measuring students' interest in political and social issues had a high reliability of 0.86 for the ICCS student database with equally weighted national samples.



² Chapter 8 sets out our multivariate analysis of the association between background factors, civic knowledge, and affective-behavioral variables with students' expected participation.

Table 5.1 shows the national means on the interest scale. Higher levels of student interest (three points above the ICCS average) were found in the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, the Russian Federation, and Thailand. In these countries, the average student was quite or very interested in the political and social issues used for measurement. Average scores of more than three points below the ICCS average were found in Belgium (Flemish), Finland, Norway, Slovenia, and Sweden.

Gender differences on the interest scale were generally small. In a few countries, males showed significantly higher levels of interest in political and social issues than females did. In a few other countries, females had slight but statistically significantly higher levels of interest. Comparisons of these results with those from CIVED on political interest suggest that the gender gap is narrowing. However, we need to note that the measurement was different in ICCS. For this study, the construct focused on interest in a number of different political as well as social topics and did not provide respondents with a “don’t know” category, as occurred in CIVED.

To become politically involved, people have to believe that they have the capacity to do this. The general construct of political efficacy thus reflects whether an individual has the “feeling that political and social change is possible and that the individual citizen can play a part in bringing about this change” (Campbell, Gurin, & Miller, 1954, p. 187). The construct is generally seen as a two-dimensional structure of political efficacy, that is, internal efficacy and external efficacy. The former can be defined as individuals’ confidence in their ability to understand politics and to act politically, the latter as individuals’ beliefs in the responsiveness of the political system (Balch, 1974; Converse, 1972).

The CIVED survey used three items measuring internal political efficacy, three items measuring external political efficacy, and three items measuring political cynicism. Comparison of the findings for upper-secondary students with those from lower-secondary students in 10 CIVED countries revealed lower levels of external efficacy but higher levels of internal political efficacy among upper secondary students. Internal political efficacy was also found to be positively associated with indicators of civic engagement (Schulz, 2005).

ICCS included a question asking students to rate (“strongly agree,” “agree,” “disagree,” “strongly disagree”) statements reflecting beliefs about their own capacity to engage in politics. The following items were used to measure internal political efficacy:

- I know more about politics than most people my age;
- When political issues or problems are being discussed, I usually have something to say;
- I am able to understand most political issues easily;
- I have political opinions worth listening to;
- As an adult I will be able to take part in politics; and
- I have a good understanding of the political issues facing this country.

The first three items were used in the IEA CIVED study in 1999. The item-by-score map in Figure 5.2 in Appendix E shows that students with an average ICCS score of 50 were those most likely to disagree with four out of the six items. The average percentages of agreement across countries ranged from 28 percent (knowing more than most people of their age) to 54 percent (good understanding of political issues in their country). The set of six items formed a highly reliable scale, with an average internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.84 for the pooled international sample with equally weighted countries.

The results in Table 5.2 show that feelings of internal political efficacy among students were least apparent in Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, Finland, and Luxembourg and most apparent in the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, and Thailand.



Table 5.1: National averages for students' interest in political and social issues overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Students' Interest in Political and Social Issues				
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	
Austria	52 (0.2) △	51 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	2 (0.4)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	45 (0.3) ▼	45 (0.4)	45 (0.4)	0 (0.5)	
Bulgaria	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	0 (0.3)	
Chile	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)	
Chinese Taipei	47 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.2)	47 (0.3)	0 (0.3)	
Colombia	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	52 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
Cyprus	47 (0.3) ▽	46 (0.3)	48 (0.4)	3 (0.4)	
Czech Republic †	47 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	-1 (0.3)	
Denmark †	48 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Dominican Republic	57 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.3)	57 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	
England ‡	49 (0.3) ▽	49 (0.4)	49 (0.4)	-1 (0.6)	
Estonia	50 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.3)	
Finland	46 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	46 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	
Greece	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Guatemala ¹	55 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.2)	54 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)	
Indonesia	55 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.2)	55 (0.2)	0 (0.2)	
Ireland	50 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Italy	53 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	0 (0.3)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	50 (0.2)	50 (0.2)	50 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
Latvia	51 (0.2) △	51 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Liechtenstein	50 (0.5)	50 (0.6)	50 (0.8)	1 (1.0)	
Lithuania	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)	
Luxembourg	50 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	
Malta	48 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.3)	49 (0.6)	1 (0.6)	
Mexico	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	52 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
New Zealand †	50 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	49 (0.4)	-1 (0.6)	
Norway †	47 (0.3) ▼	47 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Paraguay ¹	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	
Poland	50 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	
Russian Federation	54 (0.2) ▲	53 (0.3)	54 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
Slovak Republic ²	47 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Slovenia	45 (0.3) ▼	44 (0.3)	46 (0.4)	2 (0.5)	
Spain	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	49 (0.2)	-1 (0.4)	
Sweden	45 (0.3) ▼	46 (0.4)	45 (0.5)	-1 (0.5)	
Switzerland †	51 (0.2) △	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	
Thailand †	56 (0.1) ▲	56 (0.2)	56 (0.2)	0 (0.2)	
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	50 (0.1)	50 (0.1)	0 (0.1)	

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	52 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	0 (0.4)	
Netherlands	46 (0.3)	46 (0.4)	46 (0.4)	-1 (0.5)	

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 rating their interest in political and social issues as:

	Not very interested or not interested at all
	Quite or very interested

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 5.2: National averages for students' internal political efficacy overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Students' Sense of Internal Political Efficacy								
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	50 (0.2) △	48 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	4 (0.5)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	45 (0.3) ▼	44 (0.4)	46 (0.3)	2 (0.5)					
Bulgaria	50 (0.2)	49 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Chile	51 (0.2) △	51 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Chinese Taipei	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	50 (0.2)	2 (0.3)					
Colombia	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	53 (0.3)	1 (0.2)					
Cyprus	51 (0.2) △	50 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	3 (0.5)					
Czech Republic †	44 (0.2) ▼	44 (0.2)	45 (0.2)	1 (0.3)					
Denmark †	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Dominican Republic	55 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.3)	56 (0.3)	2 (0.3)					
England ‡	50 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	50 (0.4)	1 (0.5)					
Estonia	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Finland	45 (0.2) ▼	44 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	3 (0.4)					
Greece	53 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Guatemala ¹	55 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.2)	55 (0.2)	1 (0.3)					
Indonesia	56 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.2)	56 (0.2)	1 (0.2)					
Ireland	51 (0.2) △	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Italy	52 (0.2) △	51 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	2 (0.4)					
Korea, Republic of ¹	48 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	1 (0.3)					
Latvia	50 (0.2) △	50 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	1 (0.3)					
Liechtenstein	47 (0.5) ▽	46 (0.7)	49 (0.7)	3 (0.9)					
Lithuania	51 (0.1) △	51 (0.2)	51 (0.2)	0 (0.3)					
Luxembourg	46 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	4 (0.4)					
Malta	51 (0.3) △	50 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	2 (0.5)					
Mexico	52 (0.1) △	51 (0.2)	53 (0.2)	1 (0.3)					
New Zealand †	50 (0.2)	50 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.5)					
Norway †	48 (0.3) ▽	47 (0.4)	49 (0.4)	1 (0.4)					
Paraguay ¹	52 (0.2) △	51 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Poland	52 (0.2) △	50 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	2 (0.4)					
Russian Federation	52 (0.2) △	51 (0.2)	52 (0.2)	1 (0.3)					
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Slovenia	47 (0.3) ▽	46 (0.3)	48 (0.4)	3 (0.4)					
Spain	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Sweden	47 (0.3) ▽	46 (0.4)	49 (0.4)	2 (0.5)					
Switzerland †	48 (0.2) ▽	46 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	4 (0.5)					
Thailand †	55 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.2)	56 (0.2)	2 (0.3)					
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	49 (0.1)	51 (0.1)	2 (0.1)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	51 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Netherlands	45 (0.3)	43 (0.5)	46 (0.5)	3 (0.6)					

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 the statements with:

	Agreement
	Disagreement

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

In most countries, male students reported higher levels of internal political efficacy than females; on average, the scale scores for males were about two score points (about one fifth of a standard deviation) higher. This finding is similar to findings from prior research showing that females tend to feel less efficacious than males with regard to political involvement.

Whereas internal political efficacy refers to the beliefs that individuals have about their capacity to become politically involved, citizenship self-efficacy relates to the general concept of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993). Within the context of ICCS, this notion focused on students' self-reported confidence to undertake specific tasks in the area of (more general) civic participation.

Bandura's (1993) social cognitive theory postulates a learning process wherein learners direct their own learning. Bandura (1986, p. 391) deems individuals' "judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" to have a strong influence on the choices each of them makes as well as on the effort, perseverance, and emotions they each vest in those tasks. Bandura (1997, p. 491) suggests that the extent to which young people, during adolescence, develop beliefs about their efficacy relative to politics and citizenship education might be partially influenced by whether or not they engage in activities at school that influence what goes on in that school.

Research shows that males generally show higher levels of self-confidence in a number of learning areas than females (Pajares, 2003, 2005; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Wigfield, Eccles, & Pintrich, 1996). Wigfield et al. (1996) surmise, in this regard, that males generally tend to be more self-congratulatory than females.

ICCS asked students to rate how well ("very well," "fairly well," "not very well," "not well at all") they thought they would perform different activities related to citizenship participation at or outside of school. The seven items used to measure citizenship self-efficacy were:

- Discuss a newspaper article about a conflict between countries;
- Argue your point of view about a controversial political or social issue;
- Stand as a candidate in a school election;
- Organize a group of students in order to achieve changes at school;
- Follow a television debate about a controversial issue;
- Write a letter to a newspaper giving your view on a current issue;
- Speak in front of your class about a social or political issue.

The scale derived from this set of seven items was highly reliable, with an average internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.82 for the combined database. Figure 5.3 in Appendix E, which shows the item-by-score map for this scale, tells us that we could expect students with an average ICCS score of 50 to have reported doing these activities at least fairly well. The average percentages of students expressing confidence in doing the activities at least fairly well at the international level ranged from 50 percent (speaking in front of the class) to 65 percent (organizing a group of students).

Table 5.3 shows the national averages on the scale. The highest levels of citizenship self-efficacy were observed in the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, the Republic of Korea, and Thailand. The lowest levels were found in Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, Finland, and Malta.

Gender differences generally tended to be small across the participating countries. In a number of countries, females tended to show slightly higher levels of self-confidence in citizenship participation than boys. However, in a few other countries, among them Indonesia and Thailand, males had higher levels of citizenship self-efficacy. The slightly higher levels of self-confidence among females in many countries are notable given that research using different measures of self-efficacy mostly reports gender differences in favor of males.



Table 5.3: National averages for students' citizenship self-efficacy overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Students' Sense of Citizenship Self-Efficacy				
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	
Austria	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	47 (0.2) ▼	48 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Bulgaria	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	-2 (0.5)	
Chile	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)	
Chinese Taipei	48 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	1 (0.3)	
Colombia	53 (0.3) △	53 (0.3)	53 (0.4)	0 (0.3)	
Cyprus	51 (0.3) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	-2 (0.5)	
Czech Republic †	47 (0.1) ▼	48 (0.2)	46 (0.2)	-2 (0.3)	
Denmark †	50 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.2)	49 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)	
Dominican Republic	57 (0.3) ▲	56 (0.3)	57 (0.4)	1 (0.3)	
England ‡	50 (0.2)	50 (0.4)	50 (0.3)	-1 (0.5)	
Estonia	48 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)	
Finland	46 (0.2) ▼	47 (0.2)	45 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)	
Greece	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Guatemala	54 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Indonesia	51 (0.2) △	50 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	2 (0.3)	
Ireland	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.4)	48 (0.3)	-1 (0.5)	
Italy	51 (0.3) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)	
Korea, Republic of	55 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.2)	54 (0.2)	-1 (0.2)	
Latvia	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)	
Liechtenstein	48 (0.4) ▽	48 (0.6)	48 (0.7)	0 (0.9)	
Lithuania	50 (0.2)	51 (0.2)	49 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)	
Luxembourg	48 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
Malta	47 (0.3) ▼	46 (0.4)	47 (0.5)	2 (0.6)	
Mexico	53 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	53 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
New Zealand †	48 (0.3) ▽	49 (0.4)	47 (0.4)	-2 (0.5)	
Norway †	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	-1 (0.5)	
Paraguay	52 (0.2) △	51 (0.2)	52 (0.4)	1 (0.5)	
Poland	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)	
Russian Federation	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)	
Slovak Republic ¹	48 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Slovenia	50 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Spain	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Sweden	49 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.4)	48 (0.4)	-2 (0.4)	
Switzerland †	48 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	47 (0.2)	0 (0.4)	
Thailand †	54 (0.2) ▲	53 (0.2)	55 (0.3)	2 (0.3)	
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	50 (0.0)	50 (0.1)	-1 (0.1)	

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Netherlands	48 (0.6)	48 (0.6)	47 (0.7)	-1 (0.7)	

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 thinking that they would do civic activities:

Not very well or not well at all
Fairly or very well

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

To review relationships between students' motivation, self-belief, and civic knowledge, we computed national tertiles for each ICCS questionnaire index and then compared test score averages across the tertile groups. We note here that the relationship between measures of student self-belief and civic knowledge is most likely a reciprocal one, especially when the measure asks for students' judgments of their own ability. Although the extent of knowledge is likely to have a decisive effect on students' perceptions of their own abilities, those beliefs, in turn, are likely to influence learning behavior and test performance. This viewpoint receives support from Bandura (1986), who contends that human motivation and behavior influence each other reciprocally. Consequently, although self-beliefs reflect individuals' assessment of their own capacity, intervention and strengthening of these beliefs can enhance academic achievement.

Table 5.4 sets out the findings of our review. In the table, the right-facing triangles indicate positive associations. In these instances, the medium-tertile group had significantly higher averages than the lowest-tertile group. It also had a significantly lower average than the highest-tertile group. The triangles pointing to the left denote a negative association. Here, the medium-tertile group had significantly lower averages than the lowest-tertile group and significantly higher averages than the highest-tertile group.

On average, as Table 5.4 shows, each of the three scales tended to show positive relationships with civic knowledge. Across the participating countries, the differences in civic knowledge between the tertile groups were greatest for internal political efficacy (28 score points difference) and smallest for interest in political and social issues (16 score points).

However, negative associations with civic knowledge were evident in a small number of countries. Negative relationships between at least one of these scales and civic knowledge were observed in the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Mexico, and Thailand. Note, however, that these countries were ones that tended to have high averages on these three scales as well as low civic knowledge scores (see Chapter 3). It is not possible within the scope of this international report to examine this interesting finding in greater detail. It should, however, be explored further in secondary research.

Student communication on political and social issues

Discussions about politics are regarded as a key element in democratic society. In her secondary analysis of United States data from the IEA CIVED study, Richardson (2003) emphasizes the role of political discussion as a predictor of both feelings of efficacy and expected participation. Reported participation in political discussions with peers, parents, and teachers proved to be a more influential predictor than civic knowledge.

ICCS included questions about how often (“never or hardly ever,” “at least once a month,” “at least once a week,” “daily or almost daily”) students discussed political and social issues with parents and with friends and how often they discussed events in other countries with parents and friends. Discussion with parents can be seen as part of the family context because this context includes parental disposition to talk to their children about these issues. Discussion with peers, on the other hand, is likely to depend on the students' own motivation and the dispositions of the individuals in the students' peer groups.

Table 5.5 shows the national percentages of (at least) weekly student discussions with friends. Students tended to talk with friends about other countries much more frequently than they talked about political and social issues. On average, across the ICCS countries, only 15 percent of students reported talking at least once a week about political and social issues; about 25 percent reported talking about other countries. Percentages of students who discussed these issues with their parents at least weekly ranged from 6 percent in Belgium (Flemish) to 37 percent in Indonesia; percentages of students reporting weekly discussions with parents about happenstances in other countries ranged from 10 percent in the Republic of Korea to 49 percent in Indonesia.



When we compared average civic knowledge scores between students who reported weekly discussion of political and social issues and those who talked less often or never about these matters, it was evident in many countries that the students who engaged in discussion were more knowledgeable. However, there were some countries where students who reported few or no discussions had considerably higher average civic knowledge scores. These countries included Bulgaria, Guatemala, and Mexico.

Not surprisingly, associations between reported interest in political and social issues and frequency of talking about these matters were statistically significant in all ICCS countries. The interest scores of students who reported weekly discussions were, on average, more than half of a standard deviation higher than the interest scores of students who rarely or never talked about political and social issues.

Research on the effects of media on participation in a democratic society is inconclusive. One popular explanation for the waning of civil society in the United States is the negative effect of television viewing (Putnam, 2000), which is assumed to lead to decreasing interest, sense of efficacy, trust, and participation (see also Gerbner, 1980; Robinson, 1976). However, research also (usually) shows positive associations between media use (in particular for seeking information) and political participation. Norris (2000), for example, concludes from an extensive literature review as well as findings from a large-scale study that there is no conclusive evidence for a negative relationship between media use and political participation. The CIVED survey of 1999 showed that gaining media information through television news is a positive predictor of civic knowledge and expected participation in elections (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001).

ICCS included questions about the frequency (“never or hardly ever,” “at least once a month,” “at least once a week,” “daily or almost daily”) of watching television, reading the newspaper, and using the internet to inform oneself about national and international news.

Television was the most frequently reported source for information on national and international news across countries (see Table 5.6). On average, about two thirds of students at the ICCS target age stated that they accessed this information through television. Very high percentages (80 percent and more) were found in Chile, Chinese Taipei, Colombia, and Indonesia. In Cyprus, Finland, Ireland, and Sweden, however, only about 50 percent of the students said they watched television, at least once a week, in order to receive news coverage.

Newspapers were a less frequently used source of information among the target-grade students; about 40 percent, on average, of these students across the ICCS countries said they informed themselves about political and social issues from newspapers at least weekly. However, there was considerable variation in extent of use among this group. In Chinese Taipei, Guatemala, Paraguay, Switzerland, and Thailand, more than 55 percent of these students read a newspaper at least once a week to inform themselves. The corresponding percentage in Cyprus, Denmark, Greece, the Republic of Korea, Malta, and Spain was less than 30 percent.

The internet, a relatively new information medium, was being used by only a third of the ICCS students to obtain information. The percentages of students who said they used the internet to inform themselves about political and social issues was more than 10 percentage points higher than the ICCS average in Bulgaria, Chinese Taipei, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, and the Slovak Republic. The lowest percentages were evident in Belgium (Flemish), Ireland, New Zealand, Spain, and Switzerland, where less than 18 percent of the target-grade students reported using this medium.

On average, about three quarters of lower-secondary students reported informing themselves about national and international news from at least one of the three media. These percentages were highest in Colombia, Guatemala, Indonesia, and Paraguay, and lowest in Cyprus, Greece, Ireland, and New Zealand.





Table 5.4. National averages for students' civic knowledge by tertile groupings of students' interest in political and social issues, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy

Country	Interest in Political and Social Issues			Internal Political Efficacy			Citizenship Self-Efficacy		
	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	485 (5.0)	506 (4.2)	522 (5.6)	478 (4.7)	505 (4.9)	532 (4.9)	490 (4.8)	504 (4.4)	517 (5.1)
Belgium (Flemish) †	516 (4.8)	518 (6.1)	509 (5.5)	497 (5.2)	515 (4.6)	530 (6.1)	509 (5.1)	518 (4.7)	515 (5.9)
Bulgaria	467 (5.2)	479 (5.0)	469 (7.7)	470 (5.3)	473 (5.5)	472 (6.4)	466 (5.6)	482 (5.2)	480 (6.4)
Chile	477 (3.4)	493 (4.3)	482 (4.6)	471 (3.6)	488 (3.8)	493 (5.0)	480 (3.1)	489 (4.5)	487 (4.3)
Chinese Taipei	538 (3.1)	552 (2.6)	585 (3.6)	545 (3.0)	566 (2.8)	565 (3.8)	570 (2.6)	565 (3.3)	543 (3.6)
Colombia	472 (3.3)	472 (3.2)	453 (3.8)	464 (2.6)	465 (3.7)	467 (3.8)	471 (3.0)	475 (3.3)	463 (3.5)
Cyprus	455 (3.3)	470 (3.8)	447 (3.4)	448 (3.4)	456 (3.8)	466 (3.2)	438 (3.4)	456 (3.5)	480 (4.1)
Czech Republic †	492 (3.2)	508 (2.5)	532 (3.8)	493 (2.8)	511 (2.8)	529 (3.6)	501 (2.8)	510 (2.6)	522 (3.4)
Denmark †	541 (5.0)	569 (3.5)	615 (4.3)	538 (3.5)	577 (4.3)	632 (4.2)	538 (3.8)	581 (3.9)	618 (4.7)
Dominican Republic	401 (3.6)	382 (2.9)	377 (3.3)	396 (2.9)	389 (3.4)	376 (3.0)	387 (3.2)	391 (2.8)	383 (3.5)
England †	504 (3.7)	530 (4.7)	532 (8.9)	494 (3.7)	522 (5.1)	548 (6.9)	493 (4.0)	526 (4.9)	546 (6.6)
Estonia	510 (4.7)	526 (5.0)	542 (6.8)	507 (4.7)	520 (5.5)	548 (5.6)	511 (4.8)	529 (5.2)	545 (6.0)
Finland	563 (3.8)	573 (2.6)	595 (3.9)	553 (3.2)	564 (3.3)	607 (3.5)	550 (2.8)	584 (3.1)	604 (3.9)
Greece	465 (4.1)	474 (5.7)	493 (5.9)	472 (3.9)	477 (5.3)	481 (6.5)	462 (4.3)	471 (5.2)	507 (5.0)
Guatemala ¹	448 (5.3)	436 (3.8)	425 (3.9)	448 (4.3)	436 (4.2)	425 (4.7)	454 (5.3)	437 (3.9)	426 (4.0)
Indonesia	429 (3.6)	437 (3.7)	434 (4.4)	454 (4.5)	433 (3.3)	413 (3.4)	460 (4.4)	431 (3.5)	414 (3.2)
Ireland	523 (4.4)	540 (5.3)	548 (6.5)	509 (4.6)	534 (4.9)	567 (6.6)	514 (5.0)	540 (5.4)	559 (5.9)
Italy	525 (3.5)	533 (4.0)	535 (4.3)	510 (4.0)	536 (3.9)	545 (4.3)	508 (3.8)	535 (3.9)	552 (4.3)
Korea, Republic of ¹	539 (2.1)	572 (2.4)	591 (2.9)	543 (2.4)	560 (2.5)	591 (2.4)	538 (2.5)	564 (2.2)	595 (2.4)
Latvia	473 (4.7)	483 (4.9)	489 (5.6)	468 (4.4)	477 (4.9)	498 (5.1)	470 (4.3)	484 (4.5)	492 (5.3)
Liechtenstein	514 (8.0)	537 (7.7)	543 (7.6)	498 (6.5)	546 (5.9)	552 (8.7)	539 (9.8)	528 (6.4)	529 (9.0)
Lithuania	489 (3.0)	514 (3.6)	516 (3.8)	494 (3.5)	503 (3.2)	516 (3.7)	498 (3.1)	506 (3.3)	511 (4.2)
Luxembourg	466 (3.3)	486 (2.8)	476 (4.1)	453 (3.2)	475 (2.2)	494 (4.2)	472 (2.7)	483 (3.3)	476 (3.6)
Malta	493 (4.7)	496 (6.7)	490 (5.2)	488 (5.1)	497 (5.0)	493 (5.8)	484 (5.7)	496 (5.3)	505 (5.7)
Mexico	472 (3.3)	455 (3.7)	436 (2.9)	460 (2.7)	452 (3.4)	450 (3.6)	468 (3.5)	458 (3.8)	445 (3.1)
New Zealand †	511 (4.6)	524 (6.0)	525 (8.1)	498 (4.7)	512 (5.1)	547 (7.1)	500 (4.8)	521 (5.2)	541 (7.9)
Norway †	488 (5.0)	520 (3.5)	538 (5.7)	485 (3.6)	521 (4.0)	553 (5.5)	493 (3.7)	522 (3.8)	543 (5.3)
Paraguay ¹	439 (3.6)	434 (4.8)	424 (4.4)	433 (3.6)	433 (5.5)	433 (4.3)	441 (3.5)	440 (4.0)	444 (4.5)
Poland	522 (5.0)	536 (5.1)	553 (6.3)	513 (5.0)	532 (4.7)	562 (5.9)	518 (4.6)	538 (5.5)	553 (5.9)

Table 5.4: National averages for students' civic knowledge by tertile groupings of students' interest in political and social issues, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy (contd.)

Country	Interest in Political and Social Issues			Internal Political Efficacy			Citizenship Self-Efficacy		
	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
Russian Federation	497 (3.5)	509 (4.2)	518 (5.7) ▲	490 (4.2)	511 (4.2)	517 (4.9) △	500 (4.1)	508 (4.6)	514 (4.5) △
Slovak Republic ²	518 (5.0)	530 (3.9)	537 (7.0) △	516 (4.5)	530 (5.1)	541 (5.7) ▲	521 (4.6)	537 (5.1)	531 (5.4) △
Slovenia	508 (2.7)	521 (3.6)	521 (4.3) △	498 (3.2)	515 (3.2)	531 (4.6) ▲	500 (3.1)	517 (3.6)	532 (4.3) ▲
Spain	499 (3.9)	515 (4.6)	504 (5.6)	489 (4.1)	505 (4.2)	522 (6.0) ▲	492 (3.9)	510 (5.1)	517 (5.0) △
Sweden	520 (3.4)	532 (4.1)	561 (4.3) ▲	502 (3.1)	543 (3.7)	579 (4.8) ▲	507 (3.4)	546 (3.9)	568 (4.9) ▲
Switzerland †	517 (4.3)	537 (5.3)	539 (4.4) △	502 (3.8)	532 (4.3)	564 (5.6) ▲	519 (4.8)	534 (4.2)	541 (5.0) △
Thailand †	457 (3.9)	455 (4.1)	443 (4.2) ◁	472 (3.8)	459 (4.7)	427 (3.6) ◁	476 (4.1)	452 (3.8)	432 (3.8) ◁
ICCS average	493 (0.7)	504 (0.7)	508 (0.9) ▲	487 (0.7)	502 (0.7)	516 (0.8) ▲	493 (0.7)	505 (0.7)	512 (0.8) ▲
Countries not meeting sampling requirements									
Hong Kong SAR	530 (6.0)	563 (6.8)	567 (6.6) △	536 (7.3)	563 (5.5)	562 (6.9) △	553 (7.1)	556 (6.3)	552 (6.7)
Netherlands	492 (7.1)	487 (10.0)	499 (9.1)	479 (6.5)	494 (10.9)	508 (10.2) △	491 (8.3)	494 (7.7)	493 (11.0)

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.
- † Meet guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
- ‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
- ¹ Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.





Table 5.5: Percentages, average civic knowledge, and average interest in political and social issues for students' reported participation in discussions of political and social issues with friends

Country	Percentages of Students Who Discuss with Friends at Least Once a Week ...		Average Civic Knowledge Scores of Students Who Discuss Political and Social Issues with Friends ...				Average Interest in Political or Social Issues of Students Who Discuss Political and Social Issues with Friends ...				
	political and social issues	what is happening in other countries	less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*	less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*	less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*
Austria	16 (0.9)	26 (0.9)	500 (4.1)	526 (7.0)	25 (7.0)	51 (0.2)	58 (0.4)	7 (0.4)	51 (0.2)	58 (0.4)	7 (0.4)
Belgium (Flemish) †	6 (0.5)	14 (0.8)	513 (4.8)	526 (8.4)	13 (7.9)	45 (0.3)	51 (0.7)	7 (0.7)	45 (0.3)	51 (0.7)	7 (0.7)
Bulgaria	17 (0.9)	30 (1.1)	476 (4.7)	441 (9.4)	-35 (8.2)	48 (0.2)	53 (0.4)	4 (0.5)	48 (0.2)	53 (0.4)	4 (0.5)
Chile	11 (0.7)	19 (0.6)	483 (3.4)	492 (7.3)	9 (6.0)	51 (0.2)	56 (0.5)	5 (0.5)	51 (0.2)	56 (0.5)	5 (0.5)
Chinese Taipei	14 (0.6)	22 (0.8)	558 (2.4)	568 (4.9)	10 (4.4)	47 (0.2)	52 (0.4)	5 (0.4)	47 (0.2)	52 (0.4)	5 (0.4)
Colombia	15 (0.7)	29 (1.0)	467 (2.7)	456 (4.8)	-12 (4.1)	51 (0.2)	57 (0.4)	5 (0.4)	51 (0.2)	57 (0.4)	5 (0.4)
Cyprus	15 (0.6)	25 (0.8)	458 (2.5)	446 (6.0)	-12 (5.9)	46 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	6 (0.6)	46 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	6 (0.6)
Czech Republic †	7 (0.5)	19 (0.6)	510 (2.2)	522 (9.8)	12 (9.3)	47 (0.2)	54 (0.6)	7 (0.6)	47 (0.2)	54 (0.6)	7 (0.6)
Denmark †	13 (0.8)	23 (0.8)	569 (3.4)	637 (5.6)	68 (5.8)	47 (0.2)	56 (0.4)	10 (0.4)	47 (0.2)	56 (0.4)	10 (0.4)
Dominican Republic	18 (1.3)	41 (1.0)	388 (2.6)	376 (3.5)	-12 (3.5)	56 (0.3)	59 (0.4)	3 (0.5)	56 (0.3)	59 (0.4)	3 (0.5)
England ‡	13 (0.7)	17 (0.8)	518 (3.9)	538 (9.9)	20 (7.9)	48 (0.3)	55 (0.7)	7 (0.6)	48 (0.3)	55 (0.7)	7 (0.6)
Estonia	14 (0.9)	25 (0.9)	522 (4.3)	547 (8.4)	25 (6.9)	50 (0.2)	55 (0.5)	6 (0.5)	50 (0.2)	55 (0.5)	6 (0.5)
Finland	7 (0.5)	16 (0.8)	574 (2.3)	610 (6.5)	36 (6.1)	45 (0.2)	55 (0.5)	10 (0.6)	45 (0.2)	55 (0.5)	10 (0.6)
Greece	13 (0.8)	30 (1.2)	476 (4.2)	481 (8.0)	5 (6.5)	49 (0.2)	54 (0.5)	5 (0.6)	49 (0.2)	54 (0.5)	5 (0.6)
Guatemala ¹	23 (1.0)	34 (1.0)	442 (4.0)	419 (4.3)	-23 (4.2)	54 (0.2)	58 (0.3)	3 (0.3)	54 (0.2)	58 (0.3)	3 (0.3)
Indonesia	37 (1.1)	49 (1.0)	434 (3.5)	434 (3.9)	0 (2.7)	54 (0.2)	57 (0.2)	3 (0.2)	54 (0.2)	57 (0.2)	3 (0.2)
Ireland	10 (0.5)	17 (0.7)	535 (4.4)	533 (8.4)	-3 (6.9)	49 (0.2)	56 (0.5)	7 (0.5)	49 (0.2)	56 (0.5)	7 (0.5)
Italy	15 (0.7)	24 (0.9)	529 (3.2)	547 (6.1)	18 (5.5)	52 (0.2)	57 (0.3)	5 (0.4)	52 (0.2)	57 (0.3)	5 (0.4)
Korea, Republic of ¹	20 (0.8)	10 (0.5)	563 (2.0)	576 (3.1)	13 (3.0)	49 (0.2)	54 (0.2)	5 (0.3)	49 (0.2)	54 (0.2)	5 (0.3)
Latvia	22 (1.0)	29 (1.0)	480 (3.9)	489 (6.3)	8 (5.3)	50 (0.2)	54 (0.4)	4 (0.5)	50 (0.2)	54 (0.4)	4 (0.5)
Liechtenstein	15 (2.0)	30 (2.4)	523 (4.0)	580 (9.4)	57 (11.1)	49 (0.6)	56 (1.2)	7 (1.4)	49 (0.6)	56 (1.2)	7 (1.4)
Lithuania	13 (0.6)	25 (0.8)	505 (2.7)	507 (6.1)	2 (5.2)	50 (0.2)	55 (0.4)	5 (0.4)	50 (0.2)	55 (0.4)	5 (0.4)
Luxembourg	9 (0.5)	23 (0.8)	474 (2.6)	489 (6.6)	16 (8.1)	49 (0.2)	55 (0.5)	6 (0.5)	49 (0.2)	55 (0.5)	6 (0.5)
Malta	16 (1.0)	26 (1.0)	491 (4.5)	489 (8.0)	-1 (7.3)	48 (0.4)	53 (0.5)	5 (0.6)	48 (0.4)	53 (0.5)	5 (0.6)
Mexico	9 (0.5)	20 (0.6)	456 (2.7)	426 (6.3)	-30 (5.6)	52 (0.2)	56 (0.4)	5 (0.4)	52 (0.2)	56 (0.4)	5 (0.4)
New Zealand †	16 (0.9)	21 (0.9)	517 (4.8)	528 (8.2)	11 (6.6)	49 (0.3)	55 (0.4)	7 (0.5)	49 (0.3)	55 (0.4)	7 (0.5)

Table 5.5: Percentages, average civic knowledge, and average interest in political and social issues for students' reported participation in discussions of political and social issues with friends

Country	Percentages of Students Who Discuss with Friends at Least Once a Week ...		Average Civic Knowledge Scores of Students Who Discuss Political and Social Issues with Friends ...		Average Interest in Political or Social Issues of Students Who Discuss Political and Social Issues with Friends ...		Difference (B-A)*
	political and social issues	what is happening in other countries	less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	
Norway †	10 (0.7)	18 (0.9)	514 (3.3)	531 (8.1)	17 (7.2)	46 (0.3)	10 (0.6)
Paraguay ¹	17 (1.0)	37 (1.0)	433 (3.1)	422 (7.0)	-11 (6.1)	52 (0.3)	4 (0.4)
Poland	14 (0.8)	22 (0.9)	535 (4.5)	550 (8.0)	16 (6.5)	49 (0.2)	6 (0.5)
Russian Federation	16 (0.9)	25 (1.0)	507 (3.7)	510 (6.6)	3 (5.4)	53 (0.2)	5 (0.4)
Slovak Republic ²	14 (0.9)	24 (0.9)	529 (4.1)	532 (9.5)	3 (7.7)	46 (0.2)	6 (0.5)
Slovenia	7 (0.6)	23 (0.9)	515 (2.7)	535 (8.5)	20 (8.4)	45 (0.3)	8 (1.1)
Spain	7 (0.6)	16 (0.8)	505 (4.1)	521 (9.0)	16 (8.2)	49 (0.2)	5 (0.8)
Sweden	10 (0.7)	15 (0.8)	534 (2.8)	573 (8.6)	39 (7.8)	44 (0.3)	13 (0.5)
Switzerland †	14 (0.9)	24 (1.1)	527 (3.6)	562 (6.7)	35 (5.6)	50 (0.3)	6 (0.5)
Thailand †	33 (0.9)	40 (0.9)	452 (3.5)	453 (4.5)	1 (2.8)	55 (0.1)	3 (0.2)
ICCS average	15 (0.1)	25 (0.2)	500 (0.6)	510 (1.2)	10 (1.1)	49 (0.0)	6 (0.1)
Countries not meeting sampling requirements							
Hong Kong SAR	16 (1.0)	22 (1.3)	552 (5.7)	560 (9.4)	9 (7.4)	52 (0.3)	5 (0.5)
Netherlands	6 (0.6)	14 (1.0)	491 (7.8)	511 (16.9)	19 (13.9)	45 (0.3)	9 (1.5)

Notes:

* Statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 5.6: National percentages for students reporting using media (newspaper, television, and internet) to inform themselves about national and international news

Country	Percentages of Students ...			
	watching television at least weekly	reading the newspaper at least weekly	using the internet at least weekly	using at least one of these media
Austria	58 (1.0) ▽	52 (1.2) △	19 (0.8) ▽	73 (1.0) ▽
Belgium (Flemish) †	62 (1.1) ▽	33 (0.9) ▽	14 (0.8) ▼	70 (1.1) ▽
Bulgaria	72 (1.1) △	37 (0.9) ▽	38 (1.1) ▲	82 (0.9) △
Chile	80 (0.8) ▲	38 (1.7) ▽	19 (0.7) ▽	85 (0.6) △
Chinese Taipei	80 (0.6) ▲	56 (1.1) ▲	47 (0.9) ▲	87 (0.5) △
Colombia	84 (0.6) ▲	38 (1.3) ▽	25 (0.9) ▽	88 (0.4) ▲
Cyprus	49 (1.1) ▼	16 (0.7) ▼	21 (0.9) ▽	58 (1.0) ▼
Czech Republic †	65 (0.9) ▽	41 (0.9)	45 (1.0) ▲	80 (0.8) △
Denmark †	69 (1.0) △	28 (0.8) ▼	31 (0.9) △	76 (0.8)
Dominican Republic	74 (1.2) △	54 (1.4) ▲	32 (2.1)	83 (0.7) △
England ‡	56 (1.3) ▼	41 (1.5)	25 (0.8) ▽	68 (1.2) ▽
Estonia	75 (1.0) △	53 (0.9) ▲	50 (1.1) ▲	86 (0.8) △
Finland	50 (1.1) ▼	48 (1.2) △	29 (1.0)	68 (1.1) ▽
Greece	56 (1.2) ▼	17 (1.0) ▼	18 (0.8) ▽	63 (1.2) ▼
Guatemala ¹	73 (1.1) △	73 (0.9) ▲	21 (0.8) ▽	88 (0.8) ▲
Indonesia	87 (0.7) ▲	50 (1.0) △	24 (1.0) ▽	92 (0.5) ▲
Ireland	50 (1.2) ▼	40 (1.3) ▽	12 (0.7) ▼	61 (1.2) ▼
Italy	78 (0.9) ▲	36 (1.1) ▽	31 (1.1) △	84 (0.8) △
Korea, Republic of ¹	75 (0.6) △	27 (1.3) ▼	30 (0.8)	81 (0.6) △
Latvia	76 (1.1) △	37 (0.8) ▽	36 (1.1) △	84 (0.7) △
Liechtenstein	63 (2.0) ▽	54 (2.7) ▲	20 (1.9) ▽	76 (2.0)
Lithuania	76 (0.9) △	45 (1.2) △	40 (1.0) ▲	84 (0.7) △
Luxembourg	59 (1.0) ▽	48 (0.9) △	21 (0.6) ▽	72 (0.8) ▽
Malta	64 (0.9) ▽	28 (1.2) ▼	25 (0.9) ▽	72 (0.8) ▽
Mexico	63 (0.8) ▽	31 (0.9) ▼	20 (0.7) ▽	73 (0.7) ▽
New Zealand †	60 (1.5) ▽	33 (1.0) ▽	18 (0.9) ▼	66 (1.4) ▼
Norway †	69 (1.1)	51 (1.3) △	36 (1.1) △	79 (0.8)
Paraguay ¹	79 (0.9) ▲	61 (1.1) ▲	24 (1.1) ▽	89 (0.6) ▲
Poland	78 (0.9) ▲	48 (1.1) △	45 (1.1) ▲	86 (0.7) △
Russian Federation	61 (1.1) ▽	38 (1.2) ▽	32 (1.2) △	75 (0.8) ▽
Slovak Republic ²	73 (1.2) △	51 (0.9) △	39 (1.3) ▲	83 (1.0) △
Slovenia	54 (1.3) ▼	32 (1.4) ▼	32 (1.0) △	68 (1.0) ▽
Spain	73 (1.1) △	25 (1.0) ▼	18 (0.8) ▼	77 (1.0)
Sweden	49 (1.0) ▼	51 (1.2) △	31 (1.1) △	68 (1.0) ▽
Switzerland †	64 (1.4) ▽	60 (1.0) ▲	18 (0.8) ▼	79 (1.2)
Thailand †	77 (0.9) △	58 (0.9) ▲	28 (0.9)	86 (0.7) △
ICCS average	67 (0.2)	42 (0.2)	28 (0.2)	77 (0.2)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	77 (1.2)	68 (1.2)	54 (1.1)	85 (1.0)
Netherlands	62 (1.7)	31 (1.8)	27 (1.9)	73 (1.9)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 5.7 shows the average civic knowledge of target-grade students by categories of weekly or less than weekly use of each of these information sources. The students who used none of these sources had significantly lower test scores. Across the three media, the largest differences were associated with television use (28 score points on average); in all but one country, these differences were statistically significant. Differences between those students who informed themselves, at least weekly, from a newspaper and those who did not use this medium were somewhat smaller (19 score points) but still considerable in a majority of countries.

The smallest differences in civic knowledge with respect to media use were found in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Mexico, and Paraguay. In Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Korea, and Hong Kong (SAR), considerable differences were apparent in students' civic knowledge across all three media groups.

Participation in civic activities outside of school

Numerous studies on social capital and citizen participation in society use membership or involvement in organizations or community groups as indicators of civic engagement (see, for example, Putnam, 2000; van Deth, Maraffi, Newton, & Whiteley, 1999). Involvement in these activities can be seen not only as an indicator of current engagement but also as a resource for future engagement because of its "social network" facility. Putnam (1993) views social networks as one of three components of social capital (the other two are trust and social norms).

Opportunities for active participation in the wider community are limited for the age group studied in ICCS. However, some studies (e.g., Verba et al., 1995) emphasize the links between adolescent participation and later involvement as adult citizens. In the IEA CIVED survey of 1999, students were asked about their participation in a number of different organizations or activities. Results showed only small minorities of students reporting participation in formal organizations (youth groups of parties or unions, environmental groups). However, larger numbers of students reported that they had participated in voluntary activities such as collecting money or volunteering within an organization dedicated to helping people in the community (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). Participation in political youth organizations appeared to have positive effects on political efficacy among both lower- and upper-secondary students (Schulz, 2005).

ICCS measured civic participation in the wider community by asking students to state whether they had participated "within the last 12 months," "more than a year ago," or "never" in the following organizations or activities:³

- Youth organization affiliated with a political party or union;
- Environmental organizations;
- Human rights organizations;
- A voluntary group doing something to help the community;
- An organization collecting money for a social cause;
- A cultural organization based on ethnicity;
- A group of young people campaigning for an issue.

Table 5.8 shows the percentages of students who said they had participated in these organizations or activities in the past.

³ One additional item referred to participation in a religious group or organisation. Because this item related to religious background, it was difficult to separate it from general religious engagement (e.g., attending religious services). It is therefore not included in the analysis in this chapter.





Table 5.7: National averages for civic knowledge by students' use of media information (newspaper, television, and internet)

Country	Average Civic Knowledge Scores of Students Who Report ...											
	watching TV to inform themselves about national and international news				reading the newspaper to inform themselves about national and international news				using the internet to inform themselves about national and international news			
	less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*		less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*		less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*	
Austria	484 (4.6)	519 (4.1)	34 (3.6)		489 (4.8)	518 (4.1)	28 (4.4)		504 (4.0)	504 (5.7)	0 (4.7)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	501 (5.3)	522 (4.8)	21 (3.9)		506 (4.8)	530 (5.0)	24 (3.3)		513 (4.8)	519 (6.9)	6 (6.1)	
Bulgaria	445 (6.5)	479 (4.8)	33 (4.8)		462 (5.4)	483 (5.0)	20 (4.1)		464 (5.2)	482 (5.7)	18 (4.6)	
Chile	450 (4.6)	492 (3.5)	42 (3.9)		474 (3.7)	500 (3.8)	26 (3.0)		481 (3.3)	497 (5.5)	16 (3.8)	
Chinese Taipei	517 (3.6)	570 (2.5)	53 (3.6)		542 (2.8)	573 (2.9)	31 (3.1)		544 (2.7)	577 (3.1)	33 (3.1)	
Colombia	451 (4.0)	466 (2.9)	15 (3.3)		466 (3.3)	462 (3.4)	-5 (3.4)		464 (2.8)	471 (4.0)	7 (3.3)	
Cyprus	445 (3.0)	467 (3.1)	22 (3.8)		454 (2.5)	467 (4.8)	13 (4.6)		457 (2.5)	452 (4.6)	-6 (4.3)	
Czech Republic †	490 (3.0)	522 (2.7)	32 (3.1)		506 (2.7)	519 (2.8)	13 (2.8)		502 (2.7)	522 (2.7)	20 (2.7)	
Denmark †	546 (4.6)	592 (3.5)	46 (4.3)		570 (3.7)	599 (4.9)	30 (4.8)		570 (3.8)	595 (4.6)	25 (4.5)	
Dominican Republic	371 (3.8)	389 (2.3)	17 (3.0)		383 (3.4)	387 (2.5)	4 (3.1)		387 (2.5)	385 (3.5)	-1 (3.0)	
England †	503 (4.2)	533 (5.5)	30 (4.9)		509 (4.2)	536 (6.9)	26 (6.8)		517 (4.1)	532 (7.3)	15 (5.8)	
Estonia	506 (6.8)	533 (4.4)	27 (5.6)		512 (5.2)	539 (4.9)	27 (4.6)		518 (5.2)	534 (4.9)	15 (4.3)	
Finland	568 (2.6)	586 (3.1)	18 (3.0)		569 (2.7)	586 (3.3)	17 (3.7)		573 (2.6)	587 (3.9)	14 (4.0)	
Greece	465 (4.6)	485 (5.2)	20 (4.6)		476 (4.5)	480 (6.3)	3 (5.7)		477 (4.4)	477 (6.4)	0 (5.2)	
Guatemala ¹	438 (6.8)	436 (3.2)	-2 (5.3)		439 (5.3)	436 (3.7)	-3 (4.0)		436 (4.0)	443 (5.0)	7 (4.5)	
Indonesia	404 (4.8)	438 (3.4)	35 (4.0)		429 (3.4)	438 (3.9)	9 (2.9)		432 (3.3)	441 (5.0)	9 (4.0)	
Ireland	519 (4.6)	550 (5.1)	30 (3.5)		534 (4.4)	536 (5.9)	3 (4.7)		537 (4.4)	518 (8.2)	-19 (6.8)	
Italy	506 (5.0)	538 (3.1)	33 (4.3)		526 (3.5)	540 (3.9)	14 (3.4)		527 (3.6)	540 (3.9)	13 (3.8)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	547 (2.8)	572 (2.0)	25 (2.9)		555 (1.8)	595 (2.8)	40 (2.6)		555 (1.9)	591 (2.6)	36 (2.5)	
Latvia	467 (5.9)	487 (3.9)	20 (4.9)		480 (3.9)	486 (5.2)	5 (4.2)		481 (4.1)	484 (5.2)	4 (4.6)	
Liechtenstein	510 (7.4)	545 (4.7)	35 (9.9)		506 (6.5)	553 (4.8)	47 (9.0)		528 (4.3)	545 (10.0)	17 (12.0)	
Lithuania	490 (3.5)	510 (3.1)	20 (3.4)		496 (3.1)	517 (3.4)	21 (3.3)		494 (2.8)	523 (3.7)	29 (3.4)	
Luxembourg	456 (4.0)	488 (1.9)	33 (4.0)		467 (3.5)	484 (1.8)	17 (3.7)		473 (2.6)	482 (4.1)	9 (4.8)	
Malta	475 (5.4)	500 (4.5)	25 (4.5)		483 (5.0)	512 (5.2)	29 (5.8)		487 (4.9)	502 (5.6)	16 (5.6)	
Mexico	442 (3.3)	459 (2.8)	18 (2.4)		452 (2.9)	455 (3.5)	3 (3.0)		453 (2.9)	456 (3.9)	3 (3.1)	
New Zealand †	495 (5.3)	534 (5.5)	39 (4.9)		512 (5.1)	532 (5.8)	19 (4.1)		517 (4.8)	524 (7.8)	7 (5.8)	
Norway †	489 (4.5)	528 (3.7)	38 (4.7)		501 (3.7)	531 (4.3)	30 (4.5)		512 (3.9)	524 (4.0)	13 (4.2)	
Paraguay ¹	419 (4.6)	431 (3.4)	12 (4.0)		421 (3.9)	436 (3.9)	16 (4.2)		429 (3.6)	443 (5.4)	13 (5.7)	

Table 5.7: National averages for civic knowledge by students' use of media information (newspaper, television, and internet) (contd.)

Country	Average Civic Knowledge Scores of Students Who Report ...											
	watching TV to inform themselves about national and international news				reading the newspaper to inform themselves about national and international news				using the internet to inform themselves about national and international news			
	less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*		less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*		less than weekly (A)	at least weekly (B)	Difference (B-A)*	
Poland	516 (6.9)	543 (4.6)	27 (5.6)		529 (5.2)	546 (4.7)	17 (3.2)		526 (4.9)	550 (5.2)	25 (4.0)	
Russian Federation	497 (4.1)	514 (4.2)	18 (3.8)		505 (4.3)	512 (4.0)	7 (3.5)		499 (3.8)	527 (4.8)	27 (4.0)	
Slovak Republic ²	510 (4.8)	536 (5.0)	26 (5.4)		519 (4.5)	539 (5.6)	20 (5.1)		522 (4.2)	540 (6.4)	18 (5.7)	
Slovenia	500 (3.7)	531 (2.9)	31 (4.1)		509 (3.2)	531 (3.4)	22 (4.0)		512 (2.8)	526 (4.2)	15 (4.2)	
Spain	479 (4.7)	516 (4.1)	37 (4.0)		502 (4.3)	517 (4.8)	15 (4.0)		503 (4.3)	515 (5.5)	12 (5.0)	
Sweden	525 (3.8)	551 (4.1)	25 (4.8)		524 (3.5)	551 (3.9)	27 (4.1)		534 (3.2)	546 (4.2)	12 (3.7)	
Switzerland †	521 (3.7)	538 (4.6)	18 (4.2)		515 (3.4)	543 (5.3)	28 (5.9)		531 (3.7)	539 (6.7)	7 (5.6)	
Thailand †	422 (3.8)	461 (3.8)	40 (3.8)		435 (3.8)	464 (3.8)	29 (2.9)		449 (3.6)	460 (4.4)	11 (2.9)	
ICCS average	482 (0.8)	510 (0.7)	28 (0.7)		493 (0.7)	512 (0.7)	19 (0.7)		497 (0.6)	510 (0.9)	12 (0.8)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements												
Hong Kong SAR	505 (7.0)	568 (5.7)	63 (6.0)		521 (6.9)	568 (5.7)	47 (4.8)		533 (6.4)	570 (6.1)	36 (5.4)	
Netherlands	476 (8.4)	503 (9.2)	26 (8.1)		485 (7.2)	509 (11.4)	24 (8.0)		490 (6.8)	499 (13.5)	10 (10.0)	

Notes:

- * Statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.





Table 5.8: National percentages for students' reported participation in different civic activities outside of school

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Having Been Involved in ...									
	youth organization affiliated with a political party or union	environmental organization	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	a group of young people campaigning for an issue	none of these activities		
Austria	11 (0.6)	19 (0.9)	13 (0.8)	35 (1.2)	51 (1.6)	14 (0.8)	33 (1.0)	30 (1.3)		
Belgium (Flemish) †	5 (0.5)	15 (0.9)	7 (0.5)	23 (0.9)	60 (1.1)	11 (0.6)	17 (0.8)	32 (1.0)		
Bulgaria	9 (0.7)	41 (1.3)	21 (1.0)	37 (1.3)	40 (1.6)	17 (1.0)	37 (1.3)	27 (1.5)		
Chile	9 (0.7)	31 (1.2)	16 (0.9)	40 (1.1)	40 (0.9)	10 (0.6)	42 (0.9)	29 (1.1)		
Chinese Taipei	4 (0.3)	9 (0.5)	3 (0.3)	20 (0.7)	17 (0.7)	10 (0.6)	6 (0.4)	65 (0.9)		
Colombia	14 (0.6)	55 (1.1)	36 (1.2)	57 (0.8)	41 (0.9)	17 (0.9)	45 (0.9)	17 (0.8)		
Cyprus	18 (0.7)	38 (1.0)	22 (0.9)	26 (1.0)	53 (1.1)	18 (0.7)	25 (0.9)	29 (1.0)		
Czech Republic †	4 (0.3)	21 (1.2)	9 (0.6)	13 (0.7)	29 (1.1)	6 (0.4)	19 (0.8)	50 (1.2)		
Denmark †	4 (0.5)	3 (0.3)	3 (0.3)	12 (0.7)	36 (1.0)	6 (0.5)	13 (0.7)	55 (1.1)		
Dominican Republic	25 (0.9)	58 (1.1)	50 (1.1)	70 (0.9)	54 (1.0)	33 (1.0)	58 (1.1)	9 (0.7)		
England †	15 (0.9)	18 (1.1)	8 (0.7)	39 (1.4)	46 (1.3)	12 (1.0)	17 (1.0)	36 (1.4)		
Estonia	9 (0.8)	19 (1.0)	8 (0.7)	44 (1.3)	15 (0.6)	10 (0.7)	30 (1.0)	37 (1.3)		
Finland	3 (0.3)	9 (0.5)	1 (0.2)	14 (0.6)	20 (0.9)	2 (0.3)	10 (0.6)	64 (0.9)		
Greece	8 (0.6)	43 (1.6)	17 (1.1)	21 (0.9)	37 (1.2)	16 (0.8)	27 (1.2)	35 (1.3)		
Guatemala ¹	22 (1.0)	55 (1.3)	34 (1.4)	64 (1.0)	55 (1.4)	28 (1.4)	62 (1.4)	11 (0.7)		
Indonesia	14 (0.7)	61 (1.0)	31 (1.2)	40 (1.0)	50 (1.1)	24 (0.9)	21 (0.8)	18 (0.9)		
Ireland	8 (0.6)	10 (0.7)	9 (0.7)	50 (1.1)	43 (1.3)	10 (0.7)	20 (0.8)	33 (1.1)		
Italy	5 (0.4)	26 (1.2)	14 (0.7)	23 (1.0)	24 (0.9)	11 (0.7)	23 (1.0)	43 (1.3)		
Korea, Republic of ¹	4 (0.3)	5 (0.3)	2 (0.2)	18 (0.7)	8 (0.7)	2 (0.2)	10 (0.6)	74 (0.9)		
Latvia	9 (0.8)	33 (1.5)	13 (0.8)	38 (1.2)	22 (1.3)	14 (0.8)	38 (1.5)	32 (1.2)		
Liechtenstein	11 (1.6)	17 (2.2)	14 (1.8)	26 (2.4)	58 (2.7)	11 (1.7)	35 (2.6)	28 (2.4)		
Lithuania	11 (0.6)	35 (1.3)	15 (0.8)	23 (0.9)	31 (1.2)	17 (0.9)	25 (0.9)	34 (1.2)		
Luxembourg	11 (0.4)	26 (0.7)	17 (0.6)	28 (0.7)	52 (0.9)	14 (0.4)	35 (0.8)	31 (0.9)		
Malta	14 (0.9)	23 (1.0)	9 (0.7)	36 (1.3)	28 (1.3)	16 (0.9)	17 (1.0)	38 (1.4)		
Mexico	15 (0.7)	40 (1.1)	25 (0.8)	46 (1.0)	44 (1.1)	22 (0.9)	39 (0.9)	23 (0.8)		
New Zealand †	13 (0.9)	21 (1.0)	7 (0.6)	40 (1.4)	47 (1.2)	23 (1.1)	14 (0.8)	32 (1.2)		
Norway †	8 (0.6)	13 (0.9)	10 (0.7)	20 (0.9)	52 (1.1)	12 (0.7)	23 (0.7)	38 (1.2)		
Paraguay ¹	19 (1.0)	49 (1.2)	31 (1.2)	69 (1.0)	52 (1.0)	22 (1.2)	54 (1.0)	11 (0.7)		

Table 5.8: National percentages for students' reported participation in different civic activities outside of school (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Having Been Involved in ...									
	youth organization affiliated with a political party or union	environmental organization	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	a group of young people campaigning for an issue	none of these activities		
Poland	4 (0.4) ▽	50 (1.3) ▲	17 (0.9)	36 (1.3)	47 (1.4) △	15 (0.6)	27 (1.0) ▽	28 (1.2) ▽		
Russian Federation	11 (0.8) △	39 (1.6) △	23 (1.3) △	30 (1.5) ▽	28 (1.2) ▼	18 (1.0) △	62 (1.3) ▲	22 (1.1) ▼		
Slovak Republic ²	6 (0.6) ▽	19 (1.4) ▼	12 (1.0) ▽	27 (1.3) ▽	26 (1.7) ▼	9 (1.0) ▽	24 (1.5) ▽	44 (1.7) △		
Slovenia	6 (0.5) ▽	28 (1.3)	10 (0.6) ▽	24 (1.0) ▽	44 (1.2) △	13 (0.7) ▽	35 (1.0) △	34 (1.2)		
Spain	5 (0.5) ▽	18 (0.8) ▼	14 (0.8) ▽	26 (0.9) ▽	32 (1.0) ▽	7 (0.5) ▽	22 (0.9) ▽	46 (1.0) ▲		
Sweden	7 (0.5) ▽	8 (0.5) ▼	7 (0.5) ▽	14 (0.7) ▼	23 (1.0) ▼	6 (0.4) ▽	14 (0.6) ▼	63 (1.1) ▲		
Switzerland †	6 (0.7) ▽	21 (1.4) ▽	13 (1.0) ▽	26 (1.1) ▽	49 (1.4) △	8 (0.8) ▽	23 (0.9) ▽	34 (1.2)		
Thailand †	23 (1.1) ▲	71 (0.8) ▲	39 (1.0) ▲	57 (1.0) ▲	56 (1.0) ▲	38 (1.2) ▲	59 (1.0) ▲	11 (0.5) ▼		
ICCS average	10 (0.1)	29 (0.2)	16 (0.1)	34 (0.2)	39 (0.2)	14 (0.1)	29 (0.2)	35 (0.2)		
Countries not meeting sampling requirements										
Hong Kong SAR	8 (0.6)	29 (1.3)	6 (0.6)	33 (1.4)	34 (1.4)	8 (0.6)	9 (0.6)	46 (1.6)		
Netherlands	6 (1.3)	14 (1.6)	7 (0.8)	24 (2.3)	60 (2.6)	7 (1.6)	12 (0.9)	31 (2.6)		

National percentage

- ▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 10 percentage points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Participation in youth organizations of political parties or unions was the least frequent of these involvements; about 15 percent of students across ICCS countries reported engaging in cultural organizations based on ethnicity. Participation in environmental organizations was more common. In a number of countries, including Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, and Thailand, more than half of the participating students said they had participated in environmental organizations.

Involvement in groups helping the community and undertaking charity collections was the most frequent form of participation among the lower-secondary school students across ICCS countries. On average, about a third of these students reported that they had been involved in this way in the past. The extent to which students engaged in these activities across countries varied considerably, which may be due to cultural differences. For example, the percentage of students reporting participation in groups collecting money for a social cause ranged from a very low 8 percent in Korea to 60 percent in Belgium (Flemish).

The percentages in the last column on the right-hand side of Table 5.8 show that, on average, about a third of target-grade students across countries reported no participation in any of these activities. Percentages of students reporting this lack of participation were highest (more than 50 percent) in Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Finland, the Republic of Korea, and Sweden. The lowest percentages (under 25 percent) of students in this category came from Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Mexico, Paraguay, the Russian Federation, and Thailand.

Civic participation at school

Adolescents are generally not able to participate in civic activities in the same ways that adult citizens can (e.g., through voting or becoming candidates in elections). However, they may experiment to determine what power they have to influence how their schools are run, and in doing so may develop a sense of efficacy (Bandura, 1997). There is also some evidence that more democratic forms of school governance may contribute to higher levels of political efficacy among students (see, for example, Mosher, Kenny, & Garrod, 1994; Pasek, Feldman, Romer, & Jamieson, 2008).

The extent to which students feel they have a useful say when acting together could be seen as the counterpart of (external) political efficacy, which reflects a generalized belief in the responsiveness of the political system relative to the usefulness of participating in it. Democratic practices in schools can provide students with a means of ascertaining the usefulness of political action. Opportunity to value participation in the school environment has the potential to influence students' beliefs about the value of engaging in the democratic system in later adult life.

Several comparative research studies that used general measures of political efficacy to assess students' confidence with regard to active participation found male students to be more confident than female students (see, for example, Hahn, 1998; Yeich & Levine, 1994). CIVED included a set of four items designed to assess students' confidence in school participation. The students' responses on these items revealed females reporting more confidence than males (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

ICCS used the following five items to measure students' perceptions of the value of student participation at school:

- Lots of positive changes can happen in schools when students work together;
- Organizing groups of students to express their opinions could help solve problems in schools;



- Students can have more influence on what happens in schools if they act together rather than alone;
- Student participation in how schools are run can make schools better;
- All schools should have a school parliament.

The first three items were slightly modified CIVED items. The resulting scale had an average reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.72 across ICCS countries. The item-by-score map in Figure 5.4 in Appendix E shows that students with an average ICCS score of 50 were those most likely to agree with all of the statements. Only a minority of students expressed disagreement; the percentages of agreement ranged from 86 percent (support for school parliaments at all schools) to 92 percent (agreement that positive changes are possible when students work together).

Table 5.9 shows the average scale scores across participating countries. The highest country averages were found in Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, and Paraguay. Austria, the Czech Republic, the Republic of Korea, Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic, and Switzerland all had lower levels of perceived value of participating at school. As was the outcome for the CIVED scale of confidence in school participation, the ICCS results showed that, in most countries, females tended to agree more than males did that participation in civic-related activities at school is valuable.

The students participating in ICCS were also asked to report whether they had done the following activities “within the last 12 months,” “more than a year ago,” or “never”:

- Voluntary participation in school-based music or drama activities outside of regular lessons;
- Active participation in a debate;
- Voting for class representative or school parliament;
- Taking part in decision-making about how the school is run;
- Taking part in discussions at a student assembly;
- Becoming a candidate for class representative or school parliament.

The percentages of students who said that they had participated in each of these activities in the past (either in the last 12 months or before) are shown in Table 5.10. Students were far more likely to report school-based civic participation than involvement in activities or organizations outside of school.

Across participating countries, 76 percent of ICCS students, on average, reported having voted in school elections and 61 percent reported voluntary participation in music or drama activities. About 40 percent of students said that they had been actively involved in debates, taken part in decision-making about how their school was run, taken part in school assembly discussions, or been candidates for class representative or the school parliament.

On average, across countries, only seven percent of students reported not having been involved in any of these activities at school. The highest percentages in this category were found in the Republic of Korea and in Luxembourg. We note, however, that students were asked whether they had done these activities at this or previous schools; they were not asked to what extent these activities were available to them. As such, students' non-participation could also be due to lack of opportunities at their schools.



Table 5.9: National averages for students' perceptions of the value of participation at school overall and by gender

Country	Perceptions of the Value of Participation at School by Gender								
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	46 (0.2) ▼	46 (0.3)	45 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.3)					
Bulgaria	49 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.4)	47 (0.4)	-2 (0.4)					
Chile	56 (0.2) ▲	57 (0.3)	55 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)					
Chinese Taipei	51 (0.2) △	51 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	0 (0.4)					
Colombia	54 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.2)	54 (0.3)	0 (0.3)					
Cyprus	51 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-5 (0.4)					
Czech Republic †	47 (0.2) ▼	48 (0.2)	46 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)					
Denmark †	50 (0.2)	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.4)					
Dominican Republic	54 (0.3) ▲	55 (0.3)	54 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
England ‡	48 (0.3) ▽	49 (0.4)	47 (0.3)	-1 (0.5)					
Estonia	50 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	48 (0.3)	-4 (0.4)					
Finland	50 (0.2)	51 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	-3 (0.3)					
Greece	53 (0.3) △	54 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	-3 (0.4)					
Guatemala ¹	56 (0.2) ▲	56 (0.3)	55 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
Indonesia	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.2)	-1 (0.3)					
Ireland	51 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Italy	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	-1 (0.3)					
Korea, Republic of ¹	46 (0.2) ▼	47 (0.2)	45 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)					
Latvia	48 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Liechtenstein	47 (0.6) ▽	48 (0.7)	47 (0.8)	-1 (0.9)					
Lithuania	48 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	46 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)					
Luxembourg	47 (0.2) ▼	48 (0.2)	46 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)					
Malta	51 (0.3) △	52 (0.5)	50 (0.3)	-2 (0.6)					
Mexico	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	50 (0.2)	-2 (0.3)					
New Zealand †	48 (0.3) ▽	50 (0.4)	47 (0.4)	-3 (0.5)					
Norway †	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
Paraguay ¹	54 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	-1 (0.3)					
Poland	51 (0.3) △	52 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-3 (0.4)					
Russian Federation	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)					
Slovak Republic ²	47 (0.2) ▼	47 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)					
Slovenia	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	-3 (0.4)					
Spain	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)					
Sweden	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)					
Switzerland †	46 (0.3) ▼	47 (0.4)	46 (0.4)	-1 (0.4)					
Thailand †	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)					
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	51 (0.1)	49 (0.1)	-2 (0.1)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	48 (0.3)	48 (0.4)	48 (0.4)	0 (0.6)					
Netherlands	47 (0.5)	47 (0.5)	47 (0.7)	1 (0.7)					

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 positive statements with:

	Agreement
	Disagreement

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Expected political participation

Given the limited opportunities that students of the ICCS target grade have to participate as active citizens, collecting information about their intended participation is important. The ICCS assessment framework measured behavioral intentions through items that asked students about their anticipated civic action in the near future or when they became adults (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008).

Research on active citizenship often focuses on participation in the sphere of politics. Verba et al. (1995) define political participation as any “activity that has the intent or effect of influencing government action—either directly by affecting the making or implementation of public policy or indirectly by influencing the selection of people who make those policies” (p. 48). Citizen activities such as voting, volunteering for campaign work, becoming members of political parties or other politically active organizations, running for office, and protest activities are all forms of political participation. Among these, voting is clearly the least intensive and demanding.

Due to the appearance of many new social movements during the 1970s and 1980s, protest as an alternative form of participation became more prominent in many democratic countries (Barnes & Kaase, 1979). Scholars distinguish “conventional” (voting, running for office) from “unconventional” or “social-movement-related” activities (grass-root campaigns, protest activities). They also distinguish, among the latter, legal from illegal forms of behavior (Kaase, 1990). Another form of citizen participation receiving increased attention, especially since the 1990s, relates to volunteering and social engagement (Norris, 2002; Putnam, 2000).

Verba et al. (1995) identify the following three factors as predictors of political participation:

- Resources enabling individuals to participate (time, knowledge);
- Psychological engagement (interest, efficacy); and
- “Recruitment networks,” which help bring individuals into politics (these networks include social movements, church, groups, and political parties).

The IEA CIVED survey collected data on expected participation through several items concerned with expected voting, active participation, more conventional and less conventional participation, and protest. Large majorities of the CIVED students expected to vote in national elections as adults but did not intend to participate in conventional political activities. Only minorities expected to become involved in illegal protest activities (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

ICCS included one question with nine items designed to measure student expectations to take part in different forms of legal and illegal protest. The response categories were “I would certainly do this,” “I would probably do this,” “I would probably not do this,” and “I would certainly not do this.” Of the nine items, the following six focused on legal protest activities:

- Writing a letter to a newspaper;
- Wearing a badge or t-shirt expressing your opinion;
- Contacting an elected representative;
- Taking part in a peaceful march or rally;
- Collecting signatures for a petition;
- Choosing not to buy certain products.

The scale had a reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.79 at the international level. The item-by-score map in Figure 5.5 in Appendix E shows that students with a scale score of 50 (equivalent to the ICCS average) were those likely to report probable participation in most of these activities.





Table 5.10: National percentages for students' reported participation in different civic activities at school

Country	Civic Activities									
	Voluntary participation in school-based music or drama activities outside of regular lessons	Active participation in a debate	Voting for class representative or school parliament	Taking part in decision-making about how the school is run	Taking part in discussions about a school assembly	Becoming a candidate for class representative or school parliament	No participation in any of these activities			
Austria	52 (1.4) ▽	25 (1.1) ▼	81 (0.9) △	30 (1.2) ▼	38 (1.1) ▽	57 (1.1) ▲	8 (0.7)			
Belgium (Flemish) †	47 (1.8) ▼	31 (1.2) ▼	68 (2.0) ▽	36 (1.3) ▽	24 (0.9) ▼	34 (1.2) ▽	16 (1.2) △			
Bulgaria	66 (1.2) △	52 (1.4) △	52 (1.9) ▼	31 (1.2) ▽	40 (1.2) ▽	34 (1.1) ▽	12 (0.9) △			
Chile	70 (1.0) △	49 (1.7) △	89 (0.7) ▲	39 (1.1)	35 (1.0) ▽	47 (1.0) △	3 (0.3) ▽			
Chinese Taipei	56 (0.8) ▽	17 (0.8) ▼	67 (0.9) ▽	43 (0.7) △	84 (0.7) ▲	32 (0.9) ▽	7 (0.4)			
Colombia	71 (0.9) ▲	49 (1.3) △	90 (0.5) ▲	57 (0.9) ▲	41 (0.9) ▽	44 (0.8) △	3 (0.3) ▽			
Cyprus	69 (0.9) △	55 (0.9) ▲	71 (0.8) ▽	35 (1.2) ▽	39 (0.9) ▽	67 (1.0) ▲	9 (0.5) △			
Czech Republic †	52 (1.2) ▽	54 (1.0) △	74 (1.9)	21 (0.9) ▼	29 (0.9) ▼	31 (1.0) ▼	9 (0.8) △			
Denmark †	43 (1.4) ▼	57 (1.2) ▲	73 (1.1) ▽	44 (1.0) △	20 (0.8) ▼	49 (1.0) △	9 (0.6) △			
Dominican Republic	62 (1.3)	66 (1.5) ▲	61 (1.5) ▼	59 (1.1) ▲	49 (1.2) △	58 (1.2) ▲	6 (0.4) ▽			
England ‡	62 (1.3)	48 (1.5) △	79 (1.2) △	55 (1.5) ▲	37 (1.4) ▽	40 (1.2)	8 (0.6)			
Estonia	73 (1.2) ▲	36 (1.2) ▽	75 (1.8)	24 (1.2) ▼	25 (1.3) ▼	32 (1.5) ▼	7 (0.6)			
Finland	61 (1.2)	59 (1.2) ▲	83 (1.3) △	15 (0.7) ▼	23 (1.0) ▼	35 (1.4) ▽	6 (0.6) ▽			
Greece	61 (1.4)	40 (1.1) ▽	85 (1.0) △	57 (1.1) ▲	74 (1.4) ▲	68 (1.5) ▲	4 (0.4) ▽			
Guatemala ¹	76 (1.0) ▲	56 (2.0) ▲	94 (0.8) ▲	63 (1.0) ▲	51 (1.2) △	56 (1.2) ▲	1 (0.2) ▽			
Indonesia	55 (1.4) ▽	41 (1.2) ▽	72 (1.4) ▽	57 (1.3) ▲	85 (1.0) ▲	26 (1.0) ▼	3 (0.4) ▽			
Ireland	58 (1.2) ▽	66 (1.3) ▲	76 (2.2)	38 (1.3)	28 (1.1) ▼	25 (0.9) ▼	6 (0.7)			
Italy	67 (1.1) △	50 (1.3) △	49 (2.3) ▼	34 (1.5) ▽	24 (1.5) ▼	21 (1.3) ▼	8 (0.6)			
Korea, Republic of ¹	23 (0.7) ▼	33 (0.9) ▼	76 (0.7)	33 (0.9) ▽	26 (0.6) ▼	33 (0.7) ▽	18 (0.6) ▲			
Latvia	77 (1.2) ▲	55 (1.6) ▲	67 (2.5) ▽	31 (1.3) ▽	31 (1.5) ▼	39 (1.6)	6 (0.6)			
Liechtenstein	48 (2.9) ▼	54 (2.6) △	74 (2.5)	27 (2.6) ▼	42 (2.5)	49 (2.5) △	8 (1.4)			
Lithuania	63 (1.1) △	23 (0.9) ▼	84 (0.9) △	35 (1.1) ▽	38 (1.2) ▽	30 (1.1) ▼	6 (0.5) ▽			
Luxembourg	46 (0.7) ▼	19 (0.6) ▼	63 (0.8) ▼	25 (0.6) ▼	31 (0.7) ▼	36 (0.8) ▽	17 (0.8) ▲			
Malta	70 (1.3) △	30 (1.1) ▼	62 (1.2) ▼	29 (1.0) ▼	*	24 (0.9) ▼	12 (0.9) △			
Mexico	59 (0.8)	48 (1.1) △	74 (0.9) ▽	54 (0.9) ▲	41 (1.0) ▽	36 (0.7) ▽	8 (0.4)			
New Zealand †	64 (1.2) △	42 (1.4)	75 (1.4)	48 (1.3) △	43 (1.1)	38 (1.1) ▽	10 (0.7) △			
Norway †	61 (1.3)	62 (1.3) ▲	90 (0.8) ▲	58 (1.6) ▲	52 (1.3) △	62 (1.0) ▲	4 (0.4) ▽			

Table 5.10: National percentages for students' reported participation in different civic activities at school

Country	Civic Activities							
	Voluntary participation in school-based music or drama activities outside of regular lessons	Active participation in a debate	Voting for class representative or school parliament	Taking part in decision-making about how the school is run	Taking part in discussions about a school assembly	Becoming a candidate for class representative or school parliament	No participation in any of these activities	
Paraguay ¹	73 (0.9) ▲	39 (1.3) ▽	87 (1.0) ▲	56 (1.2) ▲	54 (1.4) ▲	58 (1.3) ▲	3 (0.5) ▽	
Poland	60 (1.3)	32 (1.2) ▼	95 (0.5) ▲	57 (1.1) ▲	67 (1.1) ▲	59 (0.9) ▲	2 (0.3) ▽	
Russian Federation	67 (1.0) △	34 (1.2) ▼	76 (1.4)	32 (1.2) ▽	45 (1.1)	28 (1.1) ▼	8 (0.6)	
Slovak Republic ²	60 (1.2)	49 (1.5) △	73 (2.3)	28 (1.2) ▼	81 (1.0) ▲	43 (1.5)	5 (0.6) ▽	
Slovenia	65 (1.3) △	41 (1.2) ▽	84 (0.8) △	28 (1.2) ▼	35 (1.4) ▽	59 (1.1) ▲	6 (0.5) ▽	
Spain	65 (1.0) △	50 (1.5) △	87 (1.0) ▲	48 (1.2) △	38 (1.3) ▽	55 (1.2) ▲	4 (0.4) ▽	
Sweden	59 (1.4)	42 (1.6)	85 (0.9) △	54 (1.1) ▲	53 (1.1) △	40 (1.0)	6 (0.5) ▽	
Switzerland †	56 (1.3) ▽	56 (1.5) ▲	60 (2.0) ▼	28 (1.3) ▼	40 (1.4) ▽	34 (1.4) ▽	9 (0.8) △	
Thailand †	64 (1.1) △	36 (1.3) ▽	79 (0.9) △	46 (1.1) △	52 (1.1) △	36 (1.0) ▽	6 (0.5) ▽	
ICCS average	61 (0.2)	44 (0.2)	76 (0.2)	40 (0.2)	43 (0.2)	42 (0.2)	7 (0.1)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements								
Hong Kong SAR	70 (1.4)	35 (1.3)	74 (1.5)	28 (1.3)	34 (1.2)	32 (1.3)	10 (0.8)	
Netherlands	47 (2.1)	20 (2.8)	52 (4.5)	27 (2.5)	11 (0.9)	22 (2.5)	24 (2.7)	

National percentage

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

Notes:

- * Data not available
- () 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Majorities of students (between 51 and 57 percent) expected to probably or definitely do all of these activities except contact an elected representative. Across the participating countries, only 38 percent of the students probably or definitely anticipated doing this.

Table 5.11 shows the scale score averages for participating countries. Whereas students in Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, and Mexico had the highest average scores, those from Belgium (Flemish), the Republic of Korea, and Poland had country average scores of three or more scale points lower than the ICCS average.

Statistically significant gender differences were found in about half of the participating countries. In most of these countries, the scale scores of female students were higher than those of males. In a few cases, including Chinese Taipei, Indonesia, and Thailand, males were more likely than females to say they would participate in legal protest. In general, the gender differences for this scale were relatively small.

The remaining three items relating to students' expectation to participate in protest activities focused on illegal protest. The types listed in the questionnaire were:

- Spray-painting protest slogans on walls;
- Blocking traffic;
- Occupying public buildings.

The scale measuring this expectation had an average scale reliability of 0.83 for the pooled international sample with equally weighted country data. According to the item-by-score map in Figure 5.6, students with a (ICCS average) scale score of 50 were those who said they were unlikely to participate in any of these activities. Percentages of students expecting to probably or definitely do these activities in the future ranged from 19 percent (occupying public buildings) to 27 percent (spray-painting slogans).

The results for the ICCS scale on student expectations to take part in illegal protest activities in Table 5.12 show that, in all countries, the average student did not intend to get involved in any of these forms of protest. There was some variation across participating countries: students in Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Greece, and Indonesia had considerably higher country averages; in Chinese Taipei and Denmark, the national averages were three or more score points lower than the ICCS average.

Statistically significant gender differences were found in all but one of the participating countries. As in the CIVED survey of 1999, male students were much more likely than females to state they would probably participate in illegal forms of protest. Across countries, the male students had average scale scores that were three score points higher than the scores for females.

The ICCS student survey included a number of questions that asked students to state whether they expected to participate as adults in a number of activities ranging from voting in local or national elections through to joining political parties or trade unions or standing as candidates in local elections. The response categories were "I will certainly do this," "I will probably do this," "I will probably not do this," and "I will certainly not do this."

The following three items were designed to measure students' expected electoral participation:

- Vote in local elections;
- Vote in national elections;
- Get information about candidates before voting in an election.

The items were used to derive a scale measuring students' expected adult electoral participation. From the item-by-score map in Figure 5.7 (Appendix E), we can see that students with a (ICCS average) score of 50 expected to engage in all three activities as adults.



Table 5.11: National averages for expected participation in legal protest activities overall and by gender

Country	National Averages for Expected Participation in Legal Protest Activities Overall and by Gender Groups				
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males–females)*	
Austria	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	47 (0.2) ▼	48 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)	
Bulgaria	51 (0.3) △	51 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	0 (0.5)	
Chile	54 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Chinese Taipei	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.2)	50 (0.2)	2 (0.3)	
Colombia	55 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.2)	55 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
Cyprus	51 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	-1 (0.5)	
Czech Republic †	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)	
Denmark †	47 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	46 (0.2)	-3 (0.4)	
Dominican Republic	57 (0.4) ▲	57 (0.4)	58 (0.5)	1 (0.4)	
England ‡	50 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	48 (0.3)	-3 (0.5)	
Estonia	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	48 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
Finland	49 (0.2) ▽	51 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	-3 (0.3)	
Greece	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Guatemala ¹	54 (0.2) ▲	53 (0.2)	54 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	
Indonesia	52 (0.2) △	51 (0.2)	53 (0.2)	2 (0.3)	
Ireland	51 (0.2) △	53 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	-4 (0.4)	
Italy	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	-1 (0.3)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	45 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	45 (0.2)	0 (0.3)	
Latvia	50 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Liechtenstein	48 (0.5) ▽	48 (0.6)	49 (0.8)	1 (1.0)	
Lithuania	53 (0.2) △	54 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	-2 (0.4)	
Luxembourg	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	
Malta	48 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.4)	49 (0.5)	1 (0.6)	
Mexico	53 (0.2) ▲	53 (0.2)	53 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	
New Zealand †	50 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	47 (0.3)	-4 (0.5)	
Norway †	48 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-1 (0.5)	
Paraguay ¹	52 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	53 (0.4)	1 (0.5)	
Poland	46 (0.3) ▼	47 (0.3)	46 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Russian Federation	48 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.2)	47 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Slovak Republic ²	51 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	-1 (0.5)	
Slovenia	49 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Spain	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Sweden	48 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	-2 (0.3)	
Switzerland †	48 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	-1 (0.4)	
Thailand †	49 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	4 (0.3)	
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	50 (0.0)	50 (0.1)	-1 (0.1)	

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	47 (0.2)	47 (0.3)	47 (0.3)	0 (0.4)	
Netherlands	46 (0.5)	46 (0.6)	45 (0.5)	-1 (0.5)	

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 expecting to participate in legal protest activities:

	Certainly not or probably not
	Certainly or probably

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 5.12: National averages for expected participation in illegal protest activities overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Expected Participation in Illegal Protest									
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males-females)*	30	40	50	60	70	
Austria	49 (0.3) ▽	47 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	5 (0.4)						
Belgium (Flemish) †	49 (0.3) ▽	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	3 (0.4)						
Bulgaria	53 (0.2) △	52 (0.3)	54 (0.3)	3 (0.4)						
Chile	53 (0.2) △	52 (0.2)	53 (0.3)	2 (0.3)						
Chinese Taipei	46 (0.2) ▼	44 (0.2)	47 (0.2)	3 (0.3)						
Colombia	50 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	2 (0.3)						
Cyprus	54 (0.2) ▲	52 (0.4)	55 (0.3)	4 (0.5)						
Czech Republic †	50 (0.2) △	49 (0.2)	52 (0.3)	3 (0.4)						
Denmark †	47 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	3 (0.3)						
Dominican Republic	55 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.3)	56 (0.4)	3 (0.5)						
England ‡	50 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	2 (0.5)						
Estonia	49 (0.3) ▽	47 (0.3)	51 (0.4)	4 (0.4)						
Finland	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	2 (0.4)						
Greece	56 (0.3) ▲	55 (0.4)	57 (0.3)	2 (0.4)						
Guatemala ¹	50 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	2 (0.4)						
Indonesia	54 (0.2) ▲	53 (0.2)	55 (0.3)	2 (0.3)						
Ireland	51 (0.2) △	49 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	4 (0.4)						
Italy	48 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.3)	49 (0.2)	2 (0.3)						
Korea, Republic of ¹	49 (0.1) ▽	49 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	0 (0.3)						
Latvia	51 (0.3)	48 (0.4)	53 (0.4)	5 (0.4)						
Liechtenstein	49 (0.5) ▽	48 (0.7)	50 (0.8)	3 (1.2)						
Lithuania	51 (0.3) △	49 (0.4)	53 (0.3)	4 (0.5)						
Luxembourg	50 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	52 (0.4)	3 (0.4)						
Malta	48 (0.3) ▽	45 (0.3)	50 (0.6)	4 (0.7)						
Mexico	52 (0.2) △	50 (0.2)	53 (0.3)	3 (0.3)						
New Zealand †	50 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	2 (0.4)						
Norway †	47 (0.3) ▽	46 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	4 (0.3)						
Paraguay ¹	53 (0.3) △	52 (0.3)	54 (0.4)	2 (0.4)						
Poland	50 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	4 (0.4)						
Russian Federation	48 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	2 (0.3)						
Slovak Republic ²	49 (0.3) ▽	47 (0.3)	50 (0.4)	2 (0.5)						
Slovenia	50 (0.3) ▽	47 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	5 (0.5)						
Spain	50 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	4 (0.4)						
Sweden	47 (0.2) ▽	46 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	4 (0.4)						
Switzerland †	48 (0.4) ▽	46 (0.4)	51 (0.4)	5 (0.4)						
Thailand †	49 (0.3) ▽	46 (0.3)	52 (0.4)	6 (0.4)						
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	49 (0.1)	52 (0.1)	3 (0.1)						

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

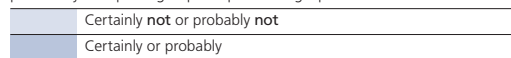
Hong Kong SAR	44 (0.3)	43 (0.3)	45 (0.4)	2 (0.5)					
Netherlands	50 (0.4)	48 (0.4)	52 (0.6)	4 (0.7)					

National average

- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 expecting to participate in illegal protest activities:



Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Across participating countries, the average percentages of students probably or definitely expecting to do these activities ranged from 76 percent (getting information about candidates) to 82 percent (voting in local elections). The resulting scale had a reliability of 0.82 for the pooled ICCS sample with equally weighted countries.

Table 5.13 shows the scale score averages across participating countries. High scale score averages (three or more points above the ICCS average) were found in Colombia, Guatemala, Italy, and Thailand. The lowest averages were evident in Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, and Estonia. Gender differences were negligible, and are not shown in the table.

Given the importance usually assigned to having citizens participate in national elections held to decide the central government, we decided to compare the percentages of students who probably or definitely expected to participate overall and within gender groups. We also decided it would be interesting to look at differences in civic knowledge and interest in political and social issues between the students who said they expected to vote and those who did not expect to do this.

In CIVED, civic knowledge emerged, from a multiple regression model, as a strong predictor of expected electoral participation (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). In many of the countries in the CIVED survey of upper-secondary students, interest in politics was another important predictor of students' expected future participation in national elections (Amadeo et al., 2002).

Table 5.14 presents the percentages of students definitely or probably expecting to vote in national elections. Here we can see that large majorities of the target-grade students in the participating countries expected to vote in elections when they became adults. On average, across countries, about 80 percent of students said that they would probably or definitely vote in national elections. The highest percentages were observed in Guatemala and Indonesia; the lowest in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, and Switzerland. Gender differences in expectations to vote as adults were negligible, and so are not reported.

When we compared levels of civic knowledge for students expecting and not expecting to vote, we found that students who probably or definitely expected to vote as adults were more knowledgeable about civic-related matters. On average, there was a difference of over 50 score points (about half an international standard deviation) between the two groups. A similar result emerged when we compared average interest in political and social issues; here, the difference was about six scale points (more than half an international standard deviation). The following four items were used to derive the scale measuring students' expected adult participation in political activities:

- Help a candidate or party during an election campaign;
- Join a political party;
- Join a trade union;
- Stand as a candidate in local elections.

Figure 5.8 in Appendix E shows that students with a (ICCS average) score of 50 were those who would probably not do any of these activities as adults. Across participating countries, the average percentages of students probably or definitely expecting to do these activities ranged from 26 percent (joining a political party or standing as a candidate in a local election) to 40 percent (helping a candidate during an election campaign). The scale had a reliability of 0.81 for the combined ICCS database with equally weighted national samples.

Table 5.15 shows the national averages across the ICCS countries. Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Indonesia, Mexico, Paraguay, and Thailand had national averages that were more than three scale points above the ICCS average. Relatively low national averages were found in Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, and the Republic of Korea.



Table 5.13: National averages for students' expected electoral participation as an adult

Country	Students' Expected Electoral Participation as an Adult					
	Average scale score	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	51 (0.2) △					
Belgium (Flemish) †	46 (0.2) ▼					
Bulgaria	48 (0.3) ▽					
Chile	50 (0.3)					
Chinese Taipei	51 (0.2) △					
Colombia	54 (0.2) ▲					
Cyprus	49 (0.2) ▽					
Czech Republic †	44 (0.3) ▼					
Denmark †	49 (0.2) ▽					
Dominican Republic	52 (0.3) △					
England ‡	47 (0.3) ▽					
Estonia	47 (0.3) ▼					
Finland	49 (0.2) ▽					
Greece	50 (0.3)					
Guatemala ¹	55 (0.2) ▲					
Indonesia	53 (0.2) △					
Ireland	52 (0.3) △					
Italy	54 (0.2) ▲					
Korea, Republic of ¹	49 (0.2) ▽					
Latvia	50 (0.3)					
Liechtenstein	50 (0.4)					
Lithuania	52 (0.2) △					
Luxembourg	47 (0.2) ▽					
Malta	49 (0.4) ▽					
Mexico	53 (0.2) △					
New Zealand †	49 (0.3) ▽					
Norway †	52 (0.3) △					
Paraguay ¹	53 (0.2) △					
Poland	48 (0.3) ▽					
Russian Federation	51 (0.2) △					
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.3) ▽					
Slovenia	50 (0.2) ▽					
Spain	51 (0.3) △					
Sweden	49 (0.3) ▽					
Switzerland †	48 (0.3) ▽					
Thailand †	54 (0.2) ▲					
ICCS average	50 (0.0)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	48 (0.3)					
Netherlands	47 (0.4)					

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

■ Average score +/- confidence interval

On average, students with a score in this range have more than a 50% probability of expecting to engage in elections as an adult:

Light blue bar	Certainly not or probably not
Dark blue bar	Certainly or probably

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 5.14: National percentages for students' intentions to vote in national elections

Country	Percentages of Students Who Probably or Definitely Expect to Vote in National Elections	Average Civic Knowledge Scores of Students Who Expect in National Elections to ...			Average Interest in Political/Social Issues of Students Who Expect in National Elections to ...		
		probably or definitely not vote (A)	probably or definitely vote (B)	Difference (B-A)*	probably or definitely not vote (A)	probably or definitely vote (B)	Difference (B-A)*
Austria	82 (0.9)	452 (5.2)	516 (3.9)	63 (5.0)	47 (0.6)	54 (0.2)	7 (0.5)
Belgium (Flemish) †	72 (1.3) ▽	476 (4.8)	530 (4.6)	54 (4.1)	42 (0.4)	47 (0.4)	5 (0.6)
Bulgaria	69 (1.0) ▼	447 (5.5)	492 (5.5)	45 (5.5)	45 (0.4)	51 (0.2)	6 (0.4)
Chile	76 (1.0) ▽	473 (4.3)	490 (3.6)	16 (3.6)	46 (0.3)	53 (0.2)	7 (0.3)
Chinese Taipei	82 (0.7)	503 (3.0)	572 (2.4)	69 (3.0)	42 (0.3)	49 (0.2)	7 (0.4)
Colombia	90 (0.5) △	436 (4.1)	476 (2.7)	40 (3.8)	47 (0.4)	53 (0.2)	6 (0.5)
Cyprus	75 (0.8) ▽	420 (4.3)	472 (2.7)	51 (4.9)	43 (0.5)	49 (0.3)	6 (0.5)
Czech Republic †	50 (1.1) ▼	481 (2.1)	542 (3.0)	61 (3.3)	44 (0.2)	50 (0.2)	6 (0.3)
Denmark †	89 (0.6) △	505 (5.4)	590 (3.5)	85 (5.7)	40 (0.6)	49 (0.3)	9 (0.6)
Dominican Republic	86 (0.9) △	381 (3.9)	390 (2.9)	10 (4.2)	51 (0.8)	58 (0.2)	7 (0.9)
England ‡	72 (1.1) ▽	470 (4.0)	544 (4.9)	74 (5.4)	44 (0.4)	51 (0.3)	7 (0.5)
Estonia	73 (1.3) ▽	487 (6.3)	542 (4.4)	55 (5.4)	47 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	4 (0.4)
Finland	85 (0.7) △	521 (4.4)	588 (2.4)	67 (4.5)	39 (0.5)	47 (0.2)	8 (0.5)
Greece	77 (1.1) ▽	446 (4.5)	491 (4.9)	45 (4.9)	46 (0.5)	51 (0.2)	5 (0.5)
Guatemala ¹	94 (0.4) ▲	410 (5.3)	442 (3.8)	32 (4.5)	51 (0.8)	55 (0.2)	5 (0.8)
Indonesia	92 (0.6) ▲	397 (3.8)	439 (3.3)	42 (4.0)	53 (0.4)	55 (0.2)	2 (0.4)
Ireland	87 (0.7) △	464 (5.9)	550 (4.2)	85 (5.8)	43 (0.6)	50 (0.3)	8 (0.7)
Italy	88 (0.6) △	470 (5.6)	541 (3.1)	72 (4.8)	49 (0.5)	53 (0.2)	4 (0.5)
Korea, Republic of ¹	87 (0.6) △	506 (3.1)	574 (1.9)	68 (3.3)	45 (0.4)	51 (0.1)	5 (0.4)
Latvia	77 (1.2) ▽	455 (4.7)	490 (4.3)	36 (5.0)	47 (0.4)	52 (0.2)	4 (0.5)
Liechtenstein	81 (2.0)	482 (13.0)	544 (4.5)	62 (15.1)	45 (1.2)	51 (0.5)	6 (1.2)
Lithuania	88 (0.8) △	455 (4.3)	513 (2.7)	58 (4.2)	46 (0.6)	52 (0.2)	6 (0.6)
Luxembourg	73 (0.7) ▽	435 (3.4)	493 (2.4)	59 (3.0)	45 (0.4)	51 (0.2)	7 (0.4)
Malta	86 (1.2) △	428 (7.1)	506 (4.5)	78 (8.1)	42 (0.7)	49 (0.3)	7 (0.6)
Mexico	86 (0.6) △	419 (3.6)	463 (2.9)	44 (3.8)	48 (0.4)	52 (0.2)	4 (0.4)
New Zealand †	84 (0.8) △	452 (6.5)	535 (5.1)	83 (6.7)	43 (0.7)	51 (0.3)	8 (0.7)
Norway †	83 (1.0) △	451 (4.4)	535 (3.3)	84 (5.5)	41 (0.7)	48 (0.3)	6 (0.7)
Paraguay ¹	89 (0.9) △	397 (5.8)	451 (3.5)	54 (6.5)	48 (0.8)	53 (0.2)	5 (0.8)
Poland	77 (1.0) ▽	491 (6.2)	550 (4.3)	59 (4.9)	46 (0.5)	51 (0.2)	5 (0.5)
Russian Federation	85 (0.8) △	470 (4.4)	514 (4.0)	44 (4.8)	49 (0.4)	54 (0.2)	5 (0.4)
Slovak Republic ²	75 (1.2) ▽	493 (4.7)	542 (4.7)	49 (4.8)	43 (0.5)	48 (0.2)	5 (0.5)
Slovenia	81 (0.8)	471 (4.4)	528 (2.9)	57 (4.4)	42 (0.7)	46 (0.3)	4 (0.7)
Spain	85 (0.8) △	456 (5.8)	516 (3.9)	60 (5.1)	44 (0.6)	50 (0.2)	6 (0.6)
Sweden	85 (0.9) △	477 (4.4)	551 (3.2)	73 (5.2)	39 (0.5)	46 (0.3)	8 (0.6)
Switzerland †	70 (1.4) ▼	500 (4.8)	547 (3.7)	47 (4.5)	48 (0.4)	52 (0.2)	5 (0.5)
Thailand †	88 (0.6) △	415 (3.9)	458 (3.8)	43 (3.9)	54 (0.4)	56 (0.1)	2 (0.4)
ICCS average	81 (0.2)	458 (0.9)	514 (0.6)	56 (0.9)	45 (0.1)	51 (0.0)	6 (0.1)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	83 (1.0)	501 (8.4)	564 (5.3)	63 (6.8)	46 (0.6)	54 (0.3)	7 (0.7)
Netherlands	74 (2.3)	451 (6.0)	509 (9.3)	58 (9.0)	42 (0.5)	47 (0.4)	5 (0.7)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

In many countries, male students were more likely than females to have higher scale scores. On average, the gender difference was one scale point. However, larger differences were evident in a number of countries.

Summary of findings

We addressed, in this chapter, several important aspects, indicated in Research Question 3, of students' civic engagement. Our analyses showed considerable differences in engagement across participating countries and also varying degrees of association between and among engagement indicators, gender, civic knowledge, and interest in political and social issues.

When we considered student self-beliefs (or dispositions) relative to civic engagement, we found that the ICCS students tended to be more interested in national rather than in international politics and in politics in other countries. Only small minorities expressed interest in the latter. Gender differences were statistically significant in only a few countries.

Students' sense of internal political efficacy was slightly higher among males than females; just under half of the ICCS students across countries tended to agree with the statements used to measure this construct. When stating their ability to do specific civic-related activities, the average student across ICCS countries tended to be confident that he or she would do at least fairly well in a number of civic-related tasks, such as speaking in front of the class about a social or political issue or organizing a group of students to achieve changes at school. Gender differences in citizenship self-efficacy were relatively small across countries.

In most participating countries, interest in political and social issues, internal efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy were positively related to civic knowledge. This finding is plausible given the likelihood that interest as well as self-confidence is higher among more knowledgeable students. However, in a number of countries, we observed negative associations. These countries were also the ones characterized by low average civic knowledge and high average levels of interest, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy. This interesting finding deserves to be explored in greater detail in future secondary research.

When we reviewed student reports on their engagement in civic-related communication, it became clear that students engage infrequently in discussions with peers about political and social issues. However, large majorities of students in the ICCS target grade reported informing themselves about political and social issues at least weekly from either television, newspapers, or the internet. Television was the most frequently reported source of information.

Not unexpectedly, few students reported active civic participation in the wider community. Civic participation at school, however, tended to be much more frequent; large majorities of students said they had voted in school or class elections. Furthermore, majorities of ICCS students tended to agree with statements emphasizing the general value of student participation at school.

Expectations among target-grade students to participate in legal protest activities in the future were fairly widespread. However, most of these students did not intend to get involved in illegal activities such as spray-painting or blocking traffic. The students who did anticipate this type of involvement were more likely to be males than females.

When students were asked about their expectations with regard to electoral participation as adults, large majorities of them said they intended to vote in national elections. However, only minorities of students in the ICCS countries expected to engage in more active forms of participation, such as standing as candidates, helping in campaigns, and joining parties or trade unions.



Table 5.15: National averages for students' expected participation in political activities as an adult

Country	Gender Differences								
	All students	Females	Males	Differences (males–females)*	30	40	50	60	70
Austria	51 (0.2) △	49 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	3 (0.4)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	45 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.3)	45 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Bulgaria	49 (0.3) ▽	48 (0.3)	49 (0.4)	1 (0.5)					
Chile	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Chinese Taipei	47 (0.1) ▽	46 (0.2)	49 (0.2)	3 (0.3)					
Colombia	53 (0.3) ▲	53 (0.3)	54 (0.4)	1 (0.3)					
Cyprus	51 (0.2) △	49 (0.3)	53 (0.3)	3 (0.4)					
Czech Republic †	45 (0.2) ▼	45 (0.2)	45 (0.3)	0 (0.3)					
Denmark †	50 (0.1)	50 (0.2)	50 (0.2)	0 (0.3)					
Dominican Republic	57 (0.4) ▲	56 (0.4)	59 (0.4)	3 (0.4)					
England ‡	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.4)					
Estonia	48 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Finland	48 (0.1) ▽	47 (0.2)	48 (0.2)	0 (0.3)					
Greece	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	2 (0.3)					
Guatemala ¹	52 (0.3) △	52 (0.4)	53 (0.4)	1 (0.5)					
Indonesia	56 (0.2) ▲	55 (0.3)	57 (0.3)	2 (0.3)					
Ireland	50 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.4)					
Italy	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	51 (0.3)	2 (0.4)					
Korea, Republic of ¹	46 (0.1) ▼	46 (0.2)	47 (0.2)	1 (0.3)					
Latvia	51 (0.2) △	50 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	1 (0.5)					
Liechtenstein	51 (0.5) △	50 (0.6)	52 (0.7)	2 (0.9)					
Lithuania	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	2 (0.4)					
Luxembourg	51 (0.2) △	50 (0.2)	51 (0.3)	1 (0.3)					
Malta	48 (0.4) ▽	47 (0.4)	50 (0.6)	4 (0.7)					
Mexico	54 (0.2) ▲	53 (0.3)	56 (0.3)	2 (0.3)					
New Zealand †	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.3)	49 (0.3)	0 (0.5)					
Norway †	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	49 (0.3)	0 (0.4)					
Paraguay ¹	55 (0.3) ▲	54 (0.3)	56 (0.4)	2 (0.5)					
Poland	48 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.2)	49 (0.4)	2 (0.4)					
Russian Federation	52 (0.2) △	51 (0.3)	52 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Slovak Republic ²	48 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.2)	48 (0.3)	1 (0.3)					
Slovenia	48 (0.2) ▽	47 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	3 (0.4)					
Spain	49 (0.2) ▽	49 (0.2)	50 (0.3)	1 (0.3)					
Sweden	50 (0.2) ▽	50 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	0 (0.3)					
Switzerland †	49 (0.2) ▽	48 (0.3)	50 (0.3)	2 (0.4)					
Thailand †	55 (0.2) ▲	54 (0.3)	57 (0.3)	3 (0.4)					
ICCS average	50 (0.0)	49 (0.0)	51 (0.1)	1 (0.1)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	47 (0.2)	47 (0.3)	48 (0.3)	1 (0.4)					
Netherlands	49 (0.4)	48 (0.5)	49 (0.5)	1 (0.6)					

National average

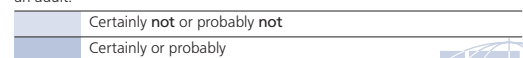
- ▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below ICCS average

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

■ 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 expecting to engage in political activities as an adult:



As in previous civic education studies, expectations to vote were positively associated with both civic knowledge and interest in political and social issues. Although, in many countries, male students were more likely than females to say that they expected to become politically active adult citizens, gender differences with regard to voting intentions were negligible.



CHAPTER 6:

The roles of schools and communities

The ICCS assessment framework (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008) posited that civic and citizenship education outcomes may be influenced by factors associated with different contexts, including family background, classrooms, schools, and the wider community. The wider community includes the contexts—from local community through national and even supra-national—within which schools and home environments function. The school-level context includes factors such as classroom and school climate, student participation in making decisions about the running of the school, initiatives taken by schools to encourage student participation in civic activities in the local community, and approaches adopted for delivering civic and citizenship education.

In this chapter, we address ICCS Research Question 5: “What aspects of schools and education systems are related to achievement in and attitudes toward civics and citizenship?” During our exploration of this question, we draw on data from the school, teacher, and student questionnaires, describe the relationships between schools and their local communities, and review variation in school and community context variables and their association with civic knowledge.

When focusing on the relationships between school and community, we consider the following specific research questions:

- What opportunities do schools give target-grade students to participate in community activities related to civic and citizenship education?
- What are the characteristics of these activities?
- To what extent are target-grade students willing to do voluntary work in the local community where the school is situated? Are there any gender differences in willingness to do voluntary work?

We also examine two questions concerning the possible influence of local community characteristics on student achievement:

- To what extent is student achievement related to the availability of cultural resources in the community?
- To what extent is student achievement related to the existence of issues of social tension in the community?

When considering the characteristics of school and classroom contexts, we focus on these questions:

- What are students’ perceptions of their capacity to influence decisions about school? To what extent is the capacity for students to influence decisions about school related to student achievement? Are there any gender differences?
- To what extent is the active participation of students in classroom activities related to student achievement? Does an open classroom climate which facilitates discussion support student achievement? Are there any gender differences in this effect?

We also, in this chapter, outline what teachers and principals think about how civic and citizenship education is implemented at school level and which aims of civic and citizenship education they regard as being the most important. Some of the questions included in the teacher and school questionnaires relate to issues similar to those asked in the ICCS national context survey. The data presented in this chapter thus not only reflect the opinions of principals and teachers and their understanding of the questions included in the questionnaires but also provide information on how civic and citizenship education is actually implemented in schools.



As shown in other research literature (e.g., Birzea et al., 2004; Cox, Jaramillo, & Reimers, 2005), civic and citizenship education is one of the areas of school education where the gaps between official regulations and curricula and the curricula actually implemented at school are broader than in other areas of education. The same can be said of national policies and their implementation at the school level, and of theory and practice. Furthermore, especially in education systems that allow schools to exercise a comparatively high degree of autonomy, national curricula may be implemented in different ways (Eurydice, 2007).

The teacher questionnaire included an international option with questions to be answered only by teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education. Thirty-three countries participated in this international option. The national research coordinators (NRCs) in these countries were responsible for providing a national definition of subjects related to civic and citizenship education. In this chapter, we draw on the data collected for this international option when considering how confident teachers felt about teaching topics specifically related to civic and citizenship education.

The local community context

Student activities in the local community

In Chapter 5, we reported on the types of civic activities the target-grade students participated in outside of school. In this present chapter, we consider the opportunities students had to participate in civic activities that their schools carried out in the local community in cooperation with external groups and organizations.

The interactions that schools have with their local communities and the links that they establish with other civic-related and political institutions can influence student perceptions of their own relationship with the wider community and of the different roles they can play in it. Participation in community-oriented projects (such as environmental education projects) tends not only to help develop students' civic-related knowledge and skills but also to support a more open and participative climate in the school itself.

The researchers who developed the model that guided CIVED and is reflected in the ICCS assessment framework recognized the importance of students' daily lives in their social, civic, and political contexts (Schulz et al., 2008; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001). Links between the school and its community represent an opportunity for motivating student participation in activities related to civic and citizenship education and for offering students real opportunities for exercising the skills and competencies necessary for democratic civic engagement.

The ICCS teacher questionnaire included a set of items asking teachers if they had participated with their target-grade students in each of the following civic-related activities organized by the school in the local community:

- Activities related to the environment, geared to the local area;
- Human rights projects;
- Activities related to underprivileged people or groups;
- Cultural activities;
- Multicultural and intercultural activities within the local community;
- Campaigns to raise people's awareness, such as World AIDS Day and World No Tobacco Day;
- Activities related to improving facilities for the local community;
- Participation in sport events.



Table 6.1 shows the percentages of teachers who said they had participated with their target-grade students in these activities. In all countries, except Ireland, large majorities of teachers reported that they had participated with their target-grade classes in cultural activities such as theater, music, and cinema. Across most of the participating countries (with the exception of Chile and Cyprus), the majority of teachers stated that they had participated in sports events with their target-grade classes.

Participation in national campaigns on specific issues (e.g., World AIDS Day) and activities in the local area related to the environment appeared to be fairly widespread. Participation in activities in support of underprivileged people or groups was less common, except in Indonesia and Thailand, where 73 and 66 percent respectively of teachers stated that they had participated in these activities with their target-grade classes.

In most of the participating countries, under 10 percent of the participating teachers said that they had not participated in any of these initiatives with their target-grade classes. The countries where these percentages were equal to or higher than 10 percent were Chile, Chinese Taipei, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Finland, Ireland, the Republic of Korea, Liechtenstein, Poland, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden.

The school questionnaire contained a set of items similar to that included in the teacher questionnaire. The two sets differed in format, however. Principals were asked how many target-grade students in their school had opportunity to participate in civic-related activities that the school carried out in the local community in cooperation with external groups or organizations. The response categories were “all or nearly all,” “most of them,” “some of them,” “none or hardly any.” The principals also had available to them another category—activity “not offered at school.” Table 6.2 shows the national percentages of students at schools whose principals reported that all or most of the students had opportunity to participate in these activities.

The results presented in Table 6.2 are generally consistent with those associated with the teachers’ answers. In nearly all countries (the exceptions were Cyprus, Greece, Indonesia, and the Republic of Korea), the principals reported that the majority of their target-grade students had participated in cultural activities such as theater, music, and cinema. In all but two participating countries (Cyprus and the Republic of Korea), the majority of target-grade students had, according to their principals, participated in sports events.

Student participation in national campaigns on specific issues (e.g., World No Tobacco Day) and activities in the local area related to the environment also appeared to be fairly widespread according to the principals’ reports. Across the participating countries, the principals furthermore reported that all or nearly all of their target-grade students had opportunity to participate in at least some of the school-directed activities carried out in the local community. However, the principals’ reports indicated that this engagement related more to general cultural activities than to civic-oriented ones.

The slight differences that we observed between the data obtained from the teacher questionnaire and those obtained from the school questionnaire probably related to the subjects the teachers taught. Some teachers, because of their subject specialties, may have had few, if any, opportunities to participate with their students in civic-related activities in the community. Alternatively, they may not have seen these activities as an appropriate form of school-related engagement.





Table 6.1: Teachers' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities

Country	Percentages of Teachers Reporting Having Taken Part with Their Target Grade Classes in ...									
	activities related to the environment and geared to the local area	human rights projects	activities related to underprivileged people or groups	cultural activities (e.g. theatre, 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>	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) ▽	
Chile	35 (2.3) ▼	15 (1.5) ▼	27 (2.0) ▽	50 (1.8) ▼	27 (1.8) ▽	34 (2.1) ▼	14 (1.7) ▼	49 (2.2) ▼	20 (1.4) ▲	
Chinese Taipei	19 (1.5) ▼	10 (0.8) ▼	23 (1.3) ▽	52 (1.4) ▼	17 (1.0) ▼	38 (1.5) ▼	16 (1.0) ▼	67 (1.1) ▽	19 (1.0) △	
Colombia	60 (1.7) ▲	43 (2.0) ▲	33 (1.7)	76 (1.9) △	59 (2.1) ▲	39 (1.7) ▼	33 (1.6)	82 (1.5) ▲	4 (0.7) ▽	
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) △	
Dominican Republic	75 (2.7) ▲	58 (3.3) ▲	52 (2.9) ▲	74 (2.4) △	75 (2.2) ▲	73 (3.2) ▲	55 (2.5) ▲	78 (2.5) △	2 (0.5) ▽	
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) △	
Guatemala	45 (2.0)	31 (2.3)	30 (2.2)	61 (2.8) ▽	42 (2.5) △	34 (1.7) ▼	35 (2.6)	78 (1.9) △	9 (1.7)	
Indonesia	75 (2.0) ▲	54 (2.0) ▲	73 (2.6) ▲	52 (2.4) ▼	43 (2.2) △	42 (2.3) ▽	44 (1.7) ▲	89 (1.2) ▲	3 (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) ▽	
Korea, Republic of	58 (1.8) △	13 (0.8) ▼	39 (1.6) △	57 (2.0) ▼	23 (1.2) ▼	43 (1.6) ▽	33 (1.7)	55 (1.5) ▼	15 (0.8) △	
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)	
Mexico	65 (1.9) ▲	47 (1.8) ▲	32 (2.7)	66 (1.8)	41 (2.4) △	55 (1.7) △	36 (1.9) △	74 (1.5) △	5 (0.5) ▽	
Paraguay	73 (2.5) ▲	35 (2.3) △	42 (2.7) △	80 (2.0) ▲	59 (2.8) ▲	59 (2.3) ▲	59 (2.0) ▲	89 (1.4) ▲	2 (0.7) ▽	
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)	
Russian Federation	66 (2.2) ▲	38 (1.9) △	43 (2.5) ▲	70 (1.8)	42 (2.2) △	70 (1.6) ▲	36 (2.3)	69 (1.7)	7 (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)	
Thailand †	94 (0.8) ▲	71 (1.5) ▲	66 (2.3) ▲	91 (1.3) ▲	79 (1.8) ▲	96 (0.7) ▲	87 (1.4) ▲	98 (0.4) ▲	0 (0.2) ▽	
ICCS average	49 (0.4)	30 (0.4)	32 (0.4)	68 (0.4)	36 (0.4)	49 (0.4)	32 (0.3)	70 (0.3)	10 (0.2)	

Table 6.1: Teachers' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Reporting Having Taken Part with Their Target Grade Classes in ...									
	activities related to the environment and geared to the local area	human rights projects	activities related to underprivileged people or groups	cultural activities (e.g., theatre, 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>	participating in sports events	none of these activities	
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)	
Hong Kong SAR	36 (1.7)	10 (1.0)	27 (1.4)	59 (1.7)	36 (1.8)	38 (1.7)	27 (1.4)	59 (1.6)	21 (1.4)	
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)	
New Zealand	36 (1.9)	20 (1.2)	32 (1.7)	49 (1.3)	29 (1.4)	40 (1.5)	17 (1.3)	68 (1.6)	15 (0.9)	
Norway	15 (2.6)	17 (2.7)	22 (2.6)	87 (1.5)	17 (2.1)	45 (4.9)	23 (3.8)	74 (4.4)	8 (1.0)	
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 ICCS average
- ▼ Significantly below ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▽ More than 10 percentage points below 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 6.2. Principals' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities (in national percentages of students)

Country	Percentages of Students Reported To Have Been Involved in ...										
	activities related to the environment and 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 initiatives 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>	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)			
Chile	40 (3.8) ▼	15 (2.8) ▼	35 (3.7)	57 (3.7) ▼	31 (3.5)	40 (4.1) ▼	9 (1.9) ▼	74 (3.5) ▼			
Chinese Taipei	34 (4.1) ▼	24 (3.9) ▼	31 (4.1)	53 (4.1) ▼	30 (4.1)	53 (4.8)	35 (4.3)	75 (3.6) ▼			
Colombia	57 (4.0)	40 (3.3)	16 (2.7) ▼	55 (3.4) ▼	36 (3.4)	41 (3.3) ▼	22 (3.2)	76 (3.3) ▼			
Cyprus	21 (0.2) ▼	19 (0.2) ▼	11 (0.1) ▼	41 (0.3) ▼	26 (0.2) ▼	19 (0.2) ▼	13 (0.2) ▼	46 (0.3) ▼			
Czech Republic †	74 (4.1) ▲	42 (5.0)	34 (4.7)	98 (1.0) ▲	51 (4.8) ▲	77 (4.1) ▼	29 (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) ▼			
Dominican Republic	66 (6.7) ▲	38 (5.3)	41 (4.7)	53 (6.2) ▼	52 (6.3) ▲	74 (4.3) ▲	30 (4.1)	77 (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) ▲	23 (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 (4.9) ▼			
Guatemala ¹	59 (4.6)	40 (4.8)	30 (4.1)	69 (4.3)	46 (4.8) ▲	44 (4.7) ▼	37 (4.7) △	90 (2.1) △			
Indonesia	67 (4.2) ▲	18 (3.1) ▼	47 (4.5) ▲	34 (4.1) ▼	17 (3.4) ▼	19 (3.6) ▼	34 (4.0)	79 (3.9)			
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)			
Korea, Republic of ¹	32 (3.6) ▼	22 (3.4) ▼	32 (3.9)	28 (3.8) ▼	16 (3.0) ▼	42 (3.8) ▼	24 (3.4)	38 (4.3) ▼			
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 (0.4) △			
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 (1.9) ▲	0 (0.0) ▼	75 (2.3) ▼			
Malta	42 (0.9) ▼	38 (0.9) △	48 (0.9) ▲	65 (1.0) ▼	19 (0.6) ▼	39 (0.9) ▼	13 (0.4) ▼	94 (0.1) ▲			
Mexico	66 (3.4) ▲	47 (3.7) ▲	32 (3.0)	54 (3.4) ▼	40 (3.6)	60 (3.2)	32 (3.0)	67 (3.5) ▼			
New Zealand†	46 (5.1)	40 (5.2)	54 (5.7) ▲	81 (4.2)	51 (4.5) ▲	62 (4.5)	17 (3.9) ▼	97 (0.6) ▲			
Norway †	38 (4.8) ▼	31 (4.1)	37 (4.5)	90 (2.8) ▲	21 (3.6) ▼	57 (5.2)	21 (4.1)	80 (3.3)			

Table 6.2. Principals' reports on participation of target-grade classes in community activities (in national percentages of students) (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Students Reported To Have Been Involved in ...									
	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 initiatives 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>	sports events		
Paraguay ¹	82 (3.0) ▲	49 (5.0) ▲	50 (4.2) ▲	84 (3.0) ▲	59 (4.3) ▲	61 (4.2)	53 (4.4) ▲	94 (2.0) ▲		
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) ▲		
Russian Federation	80 (3.1) ▲	36 (3.0)	49 (2.8) ▲	91 (1.9) ▲	42 (3.2) △	81 (2.8) ▲	32 (3.6)	95 (1.2) ▲		
Slovak Republic ²	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) ▲		
Thailand †	66 (4.3) ▲	45 (4.1) ▲	46 (4.7)	71 (3.5)	59 (4.1) ▲	82 (3.4) ▲	69 (4.4) ▲	92 (2.2) ▲		
ICCS average	50 (0.7)	35 (0.6)	37 (0.6)	74 (0.5)	34 (0.6)	58 (0.6)	27 (0.6)	82 (0.5)		
Countries not meeting sampling requirements										
Hong Kong SAR	38 (6.5)	14 (5.1)	34 (6.5)	67 (6.4)	34 (5.5)	45 (7.4)	29 (6.2)	87 (4.9)		
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 ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of international Desired Population.



As we documented in Chapter 5, opportunities for active civic participation in the wider community tended to be limited for the age group studied in ICCS. The student questionnaire, however, did ask students about their expected participation in informal political activities. One of the items relating to this question asked students about their willingness, in the future, to volunteer time to help people in the local community.

Table 6.3 shows the national percentages of students who reported that they would “certainly” or “probably” volunteer their time in this way. In almost all countries, majorities of students declared their willingness to volunteer. In Bulgaria, Colombia, Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Greece, Guatemala, Indonesia, Paraguay, the Russian Federation, and Thailand, the percentages were more than 10 percentage points above the international average. In Austria, Belgium (Flemish), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland, the rates were more than 10 percentage points below the international average.

These differences may be linked to differences in sociocultural contexts, differences in the diffusion of volunteer activities, and the presence of infrastructures and public activities designed to support disadvantaged people. We note, with interest, that the lowest percentages were found mainly in European countries with comparatively high socioeconomic levels and, in some cases, a widespread public welfare system.

In almost all of the ICCS countries, females were statistically significantly more likely than males to say they anticipated volunteering their time to help others. The countries where this difference was not apparent were Austria, Indonesia, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, and Thailand. In Belgium (Flemish), Denmark, England, Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Italy, New Zealand, and Switzerland, the differences between females and males were equal to or greater than 10 percentage points. There was no country where the percentage of expected volunteering for male students was higher than the percentage for females.

The local community context and students’ civic knowledge

The communities in which schools and homes are situated vary in their economic, cultural, and social resources, and in their organizational features. Communities that value community relations and facilitate active citizen engagement can offer schools and individuals much in terms of civic-related partnerships and involvement, and even more so if they are well resourced.

Students tend to acquire and develop civic-related knowledge and skills not only at school but also within their interpersonal relationships. As such, these processes are likely to be influenced by social and cultural stimuli arising from the local community, as well as by the abundance of cultural and social resources in the areas where schools are located (Jennings, Stoker, & Bowers, 2001).

The school questionnaire included a set of items asking principals about cultural and social resources existing at the local community level, such as public libraries, cinemas, theaters or concert halls as well as language schools, museums or art galleries, public gardens, religious centers, and sports facilities (swimming pools, tennis courts, basketball courts, football fields).

Table 6.4 shows the distributions of social and cultural resources (in national percentages of students) in the communities where the ICCS schools resided. We were not surprised to find significant differences in the distribution patterns across the ICCS countries. On average, the most prevalent resources were public libraries, playgrounds, public gardens or parks, religious centers, and sports facilities. The least frequently reported resources were cinemas, theaters or concert halls, language schools, and museums or art galleries.



Table 6.3: Students' expectations of volunteering time to help people in the local community overall and by gender

Country	Percentages of Students Who Will Certainly/Probably Volunteer Time to Help People in the Local Community				
	All students	Females	Males	Difference (males-females)*	
Austria	56 (1.1) ▼	57 (1.7)	54 (1.4)	-3 (2.2)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	51 (1.1) ▼	58 (1.4)	44 (1.7)	-13 (2.3)	
Bulgaria	81 (1.0) ▲	84 (1.2)	78 (1.4)	-6 (1.7)	
Chile	76 (0.9) △	80 (1.1)	72 (1.2)	-8 (1.5)	
Chinese Taipei	75 (0.8) △	80 (0.9)	70 (1.0)	-10 (1.2)	
Colombia	89 (0.6) ▲	91 (0.6)	85 (1.0)	-6 (1.0)	
Cyprus	77 (1.0) ▲	80 (1.1)	75 (1.5)	-5 (1.7)	
Czech Republic †	44 (0.9) ▼	48 (1.3)	40 (1.0)	-8 (1.6)	
Denmark †	36 (1.1) ▼	42 (1.4)	29 (1.4)	-13 (1.7)	
Dominican Republic	93 (0.6) ▲	94 (0.7)	92 (0.8)	-2 (0.9)	
England ‡	59 (1.0) ▽	66 (1.2)	51 (1.6)	-14 (2.1)	
Estonia	61 (1.2) ▽	66 (1.5)	56 (1.6)	-10 (2.0)	
Finland	29 (0.9) ▼	34 (1.3)	24 (1.2)	-10 (1.7)	
Greece	78 (0.8) ▲	82 (1.1)	75 (1.2)	-7 (1.5)	
Guatemala ¹	91 (0.6) ▲	93 (0.7)	88 (0.9)	-4 (1.0)	
Indonesia	96 (0.4) ▲	96 (0.5)	95 (0.6)	-1 (0.7)	
Ireland	68 (1.1)	78 (1.2)	59 (1.6)	-19 (1.8)	
Italy	69 (1.0) △	77 (1.4)	61 (1.3)	-17 (1.8)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	62 (0.9) ▽	66 (1.1)	59 (1.2)	-8 (1.5)	
Latvia	65 (1.3)	68 (1.4)	62 (1.7)	-6 (1.9)	
Liechtenstein	41 (2.5) ▼	43 (3.6)	40 (3.8)	-2 (5.1)	
Lithuania	69 (0.8) △	72 (1.0)	66 (1.3)	-6 (1.7)	
Luxembourg	54 (0.8) ▼	56 (1.2)	53 (1.3)	-3 (1.9)	
Malta	63 (1.4) ▽	60 (2.2)	65 (1.7)	5 (2.7)	
Mexico	85 (0.6) ▲	86 (0.7)	84 (0.7)	-2 (1.0)	
New Zealand †	60 (1.2) ▽	66 (1.8)	53 (1.7)	-12 (2.6)	
Norway †	51 (1.0) ▼	56 (1.8)	47 (1.4)	-9 (2.6)	
Paraguay ¹	87 (0.7) ▲	89 (0.9)	85 (1.0)	-4 (1.3)	
Poland	66 (1.1)	71 (1.5)	62 (1.5)	-9 (2.0)	
Russian Federation	86 (0.7) ▲	89 (0.9)	82 (0.9)	-8 (1.2)	
Slovak Republic ²	59 (1.2) ▽	63 (1.5)	55 (1.4)	-7 (1.7)	
Slovenia	72 (1.1) △	76 (1.3)	69 (1.6)	-7 (1.9)	
Spain	67 (1.0)	71 (1.4)	62 (1.2)	-10 (1.7)	
Sweden	47 (1.0) ▼	52 (1.3)	43 (1.5)	-9 (2.0)	
Switzerland †	44 (1.0) ▼	49 (1.7)	39 (1.7)	-10 (2.7)	
Thailand †	90 (0.5) ▲	89 (0.6)	91 (0.7)	1 (0.8)	
ICCS average	67 (0.2)	70 (0.2)	63 (0.2)	-7 (0.3)	

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	71 (1.2)	75 (1.5)	67 (1.5)	-8 (2.0)	
Netherlands	52 (2.3)	62 (2.9)	41 (2.2)	-22 (2.4)	

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below ICCS average

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < .05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.





Table 6.4: Principals' reports on availability of resources in local community (in national percentages of students)

Country	Percentages of Students at Schools Where Principals Report the Following Resources as Available in Local Community:																	
	Public library	Cinema	Theater or concert hall	Language school	Museum or art gallery	Playground	Public garden or park	Religious center	Sports facility	Public library	Cinema	Theater or concert hall	Language school	Museum or art gallery	Playground	Public garden or park	Religious center	Sports facility
Austria	85 (3.8)	49 (5.1)	50 (4.8)	32 (4.4) ▼	58 (4.2) △	94 (2.3) △	85 (3.5)	100 (0.0) △	98 (1.6)	85 (3.8)	49 (5.1)	50 (4.8)	32 (4.4) ▼	58 (4.2) △	94 (2.3) △	85 (3.5)	100 (0.0) △	98 (1.6)
Belgium (Flemish) †	96 (1.6) ▲	47 (4.3)	74 (3.3) ▲	38 (4.4)	53 (4.7)	65 (4.0) ▼	93 (2.0) △	98 (1.0) △	95 (1.8)	96 (1.6)	47 (4.3)	74 (3.3) ▲	38 (4.4)	53 (4.7)	65 (4.0) ▼	93 (2.0) △	98 (1.0) △	95 (1.8)
Bulgaria	92 (2.2) ▲	48 (4.1)	67 (2.9) ▲	67 (3.3) ▲	73 (2.9) ▲	89 (2.5)	94 (1.8) ▲	95 (1.7)	82 (3.1) ▼	92 (2.2)	48 (4.1)	67 (2.9) ▲	67 (3.3) ▲	73 (2.9) ▲	89 (2.5)	94 (1.8) ▲	95 (1.7)	82 (3.1) ▼
Chile	68 (3.6) ▼	33 (3.8)	39 (4.5) ▼	21 (3.2) ▼	27 (3.6) ▼	74 (3.3) ▼	85 (2.6)	96 (1.9)	79 (3.6) ▼	68 (3.6)	33 (3.8)	39 (4.5) ▼	21 (3.2) ▼	27 (3.6) ▼	74 (3.3) ▼	85 (2.6)	96 (1.9)	79 (3.6) ▼
Chinese Taipei	88 (2.8) △	36 (3.8)	36 (4.0) ▼	12 (2.7) ▼	35 (4.0) ▼	61 (4.4) ▼	91 (2.5) △	82 (3.2) ▼	92 (2.3)	88 (2.8)	36 (3.8)	36 (4.0) ▼	12 (2.7) ▼	35 (4.0) ▼	61 (4.4) ▼	91 (2.5) △	82 (3.2) ▼	92 (2.3)
Colombia	63 (3.6) ▼	31 (3.6)	28 (3.8) ▼	24 (3.3) ▼	17 (2.6) ▼	75 (3.3) ▼	75 (3.1) ▼	91 (2.2)	82 (2.8) ▼	63 (3.6)	31 (3.6)	28 (3.8) ▼	24 (3.3) ▼	17 (2.6) ▼	75 (3.3) ▼	75 (3.1) ▼	91 (2.2)	82 (2.8) ▼
Cyprus	59 (0.3) ▼	59 (0.3) ▲	60 (0.3) △	81 (0.2) ▲	47 (0.3) ▼	94 (0.1) △	76 (0.2) ▼	100 (0.0) △	95 (0.1)	59 (0.3)	59 (0.3) ▲	60 (0.3) △	81 (0.2) ▲	47 (0.3) ▼	94 (0.1) △	76 (0.2) ▼	100 (0.0) △	95 (0.1)
Czech Republic †	100 (0.0) ▲	75 (3.4) ▲	61 (4.1) ▲	50 (4.7)	77 (2.9) ▲	95 (1.8) △	91 (2.3) △	94 (2.1)	95 (1.6)	100 (0.0)	75 (3.4) ▲	61 (4.1) ▲	50 (4.7)	77 (2.9) ▲	95 (1.8) △	91 (2.3) △	94 (2.1)	95 (1.6)
Denmark †	88 (2.6) △	60 (4.4) ▲	51 (4.7)	36 (4.1)	63 (4.3) ▲	96 (1.8) △	81 (3.3)	96 (1.5)	100 (0.0)	88 (2.6)	60 (4.4) ▲	51 (4.7)	36 (4.1)	63 (4.3) ▲	96 (1.8) △	81 (3.3)	96 (1.5)	100 (0.0)
Dominican Republic	48 (6.0) ▼	11 (2.8)	15 (3.0) ▼	44 (5.5)	17 (3.3) ▼	75 (3.8) ▼	57 (5.2) ▼	91 (2.7)	80 (3.3) ▼	48 (6.0)	11 (2.8)	15 (3.0) ▼	44 (5.5)	17 (3.3) ▼	75 (3.8) ▼	57 (5.2) ▼	91 (2.7)	80 (3.3) ▼
England †	93 (2.7) ▲	48 (4.8)	60 (5.3)	31 (5.1) ▼	50 (5.5)	97 (1.9) △	96 (2.1) ▲	98 (1.4) △	98 (1.5)	93 (2.7)	48 (4.8)	60 (5.3)	31 (5.1) ▼	50 (5.5)	97 (1.9) △	96 (2.1) ▲	98 (1.4) △	98 (1.5)
Estonia	98 (1.1) ▲	49 (4.1)	60 (4.0) △	53 (3.8) △	64 (3.8) ▲	100 (0.4) ▲	96 (1.6) ▲	79 (3.7) ▼	99 (1.3)	98 (1.1)	49 (4.1)	60 (4.0) △	53 (3.8) △	64 (3.8) ▲	100 (0.4) ▲	96 (1.6) ▲	79 (3.7) ▼	99 (1.3)
Finland	98 (1.1) ▲	57 (3.6) △	58 (3.8) △	37 (3.9)	71 (3.5) ▲	97 (1.3) △	91 (1.9) △	98 (1.1) △	99 (0.6)	98 (1.1)	57 (3.6) △	58 (3.8) △	37 (3.9)	71 (3.5) ▲	97 (1.3) △	91 (1.9) △	98 (1.1) △	99 (0.6)
Greece	70 (3.8) ▼	56 (3.6) △	50 (3.6)	90 (2.8) ▲	50 (4.0)	92 (2.3) △	78 (3.7)	98 (1.1) △	93 (2.7)	70 (3.8)	56 (3.6) △	50 (3.6)	90 (2.8) ▲	50 (4.0)	92 (2.3) △	78 (3.7)	98 (1.1) △	93 (2.7)
Guatemala ¹	58 (4.0) ▼	23 (3.9) ▼	20 (3.4) ▼	19 (4.0) ▼	16 (3.2) ▼	45 (4.2) ▼	59 (4.5) ▼	88 (3.5)	83 (3.0)	58 (4.0)	23 (3.9) ▼	20 (3.4) ▼	19 (4.0) ▼	16 (3.2) ▼	45 (4.2) ▼	59 (4.5) ▼	88 (3.5)	83 (3.0)
Indonesia	38 (4.4) ▼	14 (2.3) ▼	23 (3.7) ▼	66 (3.9) ▲	21 (3.5) ▼	88 (3.0)	56 (4.3) ▼	97 (1.4) △	94 (2.1)	38 (4.4)	14 (2.3) ▼	23 (3.7) ▼	66 (3.9) ▲	21 (3.5) ▼	88 (3.0)	56 (4.3) ▼	97 (1.4) △	94 (2.1)
Ireland	94 (2.0) ▲	58 (4.6) △	57 (4.4)	33 (3.8) ▼	42 (4.4)	82 (3.7)	80 (3.5)	100 (0.0) △	98 (1.2)	94 (2.0)	58 (4.6) △	57 (4.4)	33 (3.8) ▼	42 (4.4)	82 (3.7)	80 (3.5)	100 (0.0) △	98 (1.2)
Italy	91 (2.2) △	63 (3.5) ▲	65 (3.6) ▲	40 (3.9)	46 (3.9)	86 (2.7)	89 (2.7) △	100 (0.0) △	97 (1.4)	91 (2.2)	63 (3.5) ▲	65 (3.6) ▲	40 (3.9)	46 (3.9)	86 (2.7)	89 (2.7) △	100 (0.0) △	97 (1.4)
Korea, Republic of ¹	70 (3.9) ▼	59 (3.6) ▲	49 (4.4)	15 (2.9) ▼	34 (4.0) ▼	82 (3.5)	83 (2.8)	91 (2.4)	80 (3.5) ▼	70 (3.9)	59 (3.6) ▲	49 (4.4)	15 (2.9) ▼	34 (4.0) ▼	82 (3.5)	83 (2.8)	91 (2.4)	80 (3.5) ▼
Latvia	95 (1.5) ▲	35 (3.8) ▼	32 (3.8) ▼	34 (3.8) ▼	59 (4.6) △	91 (2.8)	74 (4.1) ▼	85 (3.1) ▼	93 (2.2)	95 (1.5)	35 (3.8) ▼	32 (3.8) ▼	34 (3.8) ▼	59 (4.6) △	91 (2.8)	74 (4.1) ▼	85 (3.1) ▼	93 (2.2)
Liechtenstein	100 (0.0) ▲	78 (0.3) ▲	73 (0.3) ▲	85 (0.3) ▲	73 (0.3) ▲	100 (0.0) ▲	100 (0.0) ▲	100 (0.0) △	100 (0.0)	100 (0.0)	78 (0.3) ▲	73 (0.3) ▲	85 (0.3) ▲	73 (0.3) ▲	100 (0.0) ▲	100 (0.0) ▲	100 (0.0) △	100 (0.0)
Lithuania	84 (3.0)	32 (4.1) ▼	52 (3.9)	21 (3.3) ▼	54 (4.0)	90 (2.7)	80 (3.0)	89 (2.0) ▼	93 (2.2)	84 (3.0)	32 (4.1) ▼	52 (3.9)	21 (3.3) ▼	54 (4.0)	90 (2.7)	80 (3.0)	89 (2.0) ▼	93 (2.2)
Luxembourg	65 (1.6) ▼	86 (0.9) ▲	92 (0.9) ▲	62 (2.6) ▲	72 (1.4) ▲	100 (0.0) ▲	99 (0.0) ▲	97 (0.1) △	92 (0.9)	65 (1.6)	86 (0.9) ▲	92 (0.9) ▲	62 (2.6) ▲	72 (1.4) ▲	100 (0.0) ▲	99 (0.0) ▲	97 (0.1) △	92 (0.9)
Malta	51 (0.9) ▼	30 (0.6) ▼	37 (0.9) ▼	19 (0.6) ▼	35 (0.8) ▼	82 (0.9) ▼	79 (0.6) ▼	90 (0.4) ▼	83 (0.8)	51 (0.9)	30 (0.6) ▼	37 (0.9) ▼	19 (0.6) ▼	35 (0.8) ▼	82 (0.9) ▼	79 (0.6) ▼	90 (0.4) ▼	83 (0.8)
Mexico	74 (3.3) ▼	41 (3.0) ▼	35 (3.2) ▼	45 (3.2)	33 (3.3) ▼	71 (3.0) ▼	80 (2.8)	96 (1.4)	87 (2.2)	74 (3.3)	41 (3.0) ▼	35 (3.2) ▼	45 (3.2)	33 (3.3) ▼	71 (3.0) ▼	80 (2.8)	96 (1.4)	87 (2.2)
New Zealand †	97 (1.5) ▲	77 (3.1) ▲	82 (4.3) ▲	55 (5.4) ▲	64 (4.1) ▲	99 (0.7) ▲	99 (0.6) ▲	100 (0.0) △	99 (0.6)	97 (1.5)	77 (3.1) ▲	82 (4.3) ▲	55 (5.4) ▲	64 (4.1) ▲	99 (0.7) ▲	99 (0.6) ▲	100 (0.0) △	99 (0.6)
Norway †	89 (3.0) △	58 (4.4) △	66 (4.4) ▲	32 (4.3) ▼	60 (4.3) ▲	97 (1.6) △	97 (1.4) ▲	97 (1.6)	100 (0.0)	89 (3.0)	58 (4.4) △	66 (4.4) ▲	32 (4.3) ▼	60 (4.3) ▲	97 (1.6) △	97 (1.4) ▲	97 (1.6)	100 (0.0)
Paraguay ¹	46 (4.3) ▼	10 (2.5) ▼	23 (3.4) ▼	34 (4.0) ▼	28 (3.7) ▼	89 (2.8)	77 (3.4)	93 (1.7)	92 (2.7)	46 (4.3)	10 (2.5) ▼	23 (3.4) ▼	34 (4.0) ▼	28 (3.7) ▼	89 (2.8)	77 (3.4)	93 (1.7)	92 (2.7)
Poland	98 (1.3) ▲	49 (3.0)	20 (2.6) ▼	59 (3.2) ▲	53 (2.9)	87 (2.5)	74 (2.9) ▼	100 (0.0) △	98 (1.3)	98 (1.3)	49 (3.0)	20 (2.6) ▼	59 (3.2) ▲	53 (2.9)	87 (2.5)	74 (2.9) ▼	100 (0.0) △	98 (1.3)

Table 6.4: Principals' reports on availability of resources in local community (in national percentages of students) (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Students at Schools Where Principals Report the Following Resources as Available in Local Community:										
	Public library	Cinema	Theater or concert hall	Language school	Museum or art gallery	Playground	Public garden or park	Religious center	Sports facility		
Russian Federation	93 (1.8) ▲	56 (3.1) △	43 (3.2) ▽	40 (3.3)	60 (3.9) ▲	93 (1.7) △	69 (3.3) ▼	75 (2.8) ▼	92 (2.2)		
Slovak Republic ²	97 (0.8) ▲	65 (3.5) ▲	49 (4.4)	60 (3.1) ▲	66 (3.3) ▲	97 (1.2) △	83 (3.1)	99 (1.0) △	96 (1.6)		
Slovenia	92 (1.6) ▲	52 (3.6)	55 (3.5)	61 (3.8) ▲	59 (3.9) △	98 (1.0) ▲	69 (3.4) ▼	97 (1.5) △	92 (2.0)		
Spain	91 (2.3) △	52 (3.7)	65 (3.5) ▲	54 (3.7) ▲	47 (3.9)	92 (2.3) △	94 (2.1) ▲	99 (0.8) △	93 (2.2)		
Sweden	100 (0.1) ▲	63 (4.1) ▲	61 (4.0) ▲	51 (4.8)	49 (4.8)	94 (2.3) △	97 (1.6) ▲	94 (2.1)	97 (1.5)		
Switzerland †	92 (2.4) ▲	61 (5.2) ▲	60 (4.7) ▲	44 (5.6)	66 (5.1) ▲	99 (0.9) ▲	92 (2.6) △	99 (1.0) △	98 (1.3)		
Thailand †	60 (3.7) ▼	20 (2.7) ▼	19 (3.0) ▼	31 (3.6) ▼	29 (3.6) ▼	81 (3.7)	65 (3.4) ▼	97 (1.4)	75 (3.8) ▼		
ICCS average	81 (0.5)	48 (0.6)	50 (0.6)	44 (0.6)	49 (0.6)	87 (0.4)	83 (0.5)	94 (0.3)	92 (0.3)		
Countries not meeting sampling requirements											
Hong Kong SAR	88 (4.6)	77 (5.5)	59 (6.6)	44 (6.7)	33 (6.6)	87 (4.9)	96 (2.7)	93 (2.8)	100 (0.0)		
Netherlands	93 (4.6)	42 (7.8)	60 (7.6)	16 (7.1)	76 (7.7)	97 (3.5)	96 (3.6)	90 (5.3)	97 (3.5)		

National percentage

- ▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▼ More than 10 percentage points below ICCS average
- ▽ Significantly below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



To explore the relationship between the availability of cultural resources in the local community where schools were situated and student civic knowledge, we calculated national tertiles for schools with (according to the principals' reports) low, medium, or high average resource-availability scores. We then compared students' average test score averages across the tertile groups.¹

On average, across ICCS countries, there appeared to be a positive association between type and presence of resources in the community and level of student civic knowledge (see Table 6.5). However, when we looked at patterns within countries, we observed statistically significant positive relationships across the three categories of resource availability for three countries only—Mexico, Paraguay, and the Slovak Republic. The black triangle in Table 6.5 pointing to the right indicates that the medium-tertile group had not only a significantly higher average civic knowledge score than the lowest-tertile group but also a significantly lower average score than the highest-tertile group.

When, however, we compared only the lowest- and the highest-tertile groups, the average in the highest-tertile group was significantly higher than the average in the lowest-tertile group in another 16 countries (Bulgaria, Chile, Colombia, the Czech Republic, the Dominican Republic, Greece, Guatemala, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Poland, Sweden, and Thailand). In Malta, the average in the lowest-tertile group was significantly higher than the average in the highest-tertile group.

Because the school is part of the community it is located in, it tends to be affected by community-based issues and problems. Issues of social tension within the local community can influence students' social relationships and the quality of their social lives and everyday experiences, both outside and inside the school. Analyses of United States data have found associations between neighborhood contexts and civic knowledge (see Hart, Atkins, Markey, & Youniss, 2004; Wilkenfeld, 2009).

The ICCS school questionnaire included a set of items asking principals to what extent—"large," "moderate," "small"—issues of social tension existed in the school's wider community. The issues listed in the two questions were:

- Immigration;
- Poor-quality housing;
- Unemployment;
- Religious intolerance;
- Ethnic conflicts;
- Extensive poverty;
- Organized crime;
- Youth gangs;
- Petty crime;
- Sexual harassment;
- Drug abuse;
- Alcohol abuse.

Table 6.6 shows, in national percentages of students, the issues that principals identified as a "large" or "moderate" source of social tension in the local community. On average, unemployment, alcohol abuse, and poor-quality housing were the issues principals most frequently nominated. Less frequently chosen were religious intolerance, ethnic conflicts, and sexual harassment.



¹ The tertiles were based on scores from an IRT scale based on six of the resources (public library, cinema, theaters/concert hall, language school, museum/art gallery, public garden/park). The scale had a mean of 50, a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted country data, and a reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.80 for the combined international dataset.

Table 6.5: National averages for students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of schools with low, medium, or high availability of resources in local community

Country	Average Students' Civic Knowledge at Schools Where Principals' Perceptions of Availability of Resources in Local Community Are:		
	Low	Medium	High
Austria	494 (7.5)	503 (9.1)	512 (8.9)
Belgium (Flemish)†	514 (7.4)	510 (9.1)	515 (8.0)
Bulgaria	410 (10.7)	435 (10.4)	497 (7.2) ▷
Chile	461 (6.4)	481 (6.7)	497 (5.6) ▷
Chinese Taipei	550 (12.4)	543 (4.7)	572 (3.8)
Colombia	450 (4.0)	447 (7.2)	484 (5.3) ▷
Cyprus	448 (6.4)	455 (3.4)	453 (4.7)
Czech Republic †	498 (4.4)	504 (4.6)	518 (6.4) ▷
Denmark†	566 (6.3)	582 (4.3)	586 (7.8)
Dominican Republic	370 (4.3)	382 (3.8)	390 (5.0) ▷
England‡	524 (10.8)	527 (8.5)	523 (10.9)
Estonia	513 (7.9)	516 (8.4)	531 (7.6)
Finland	580 (3.7)	564 (6.1)	579 (3.9)
Greece	466 (10.3)	484 (6.6)	490 (6.7) ▷
Guatemala ¹	408 (8.0)	434 (4.0)	457 (10.7) ▷
Indonesia	402 (5.4)	437 (5.3)	448 (6.7) ▷
Ireland	515 (10.0)	544 (6.9)	545 (8.7) ▷
Italy	515 (7.0)	528 (4.2)	542 (4.9) ▷
Korea, Republic of ¹	562 (4.2)	566 (3.5)	566 (3.0)
Latvia	474 (13.2)	480 (5.2)	490 (5.6)
Liechtenstein	495 (6.9)	546 (13.5)	545 (4.2) ▷
Lithuania	508 (7.7)	500 (5.0)	508 (4.5)
Luxembourg	469 (3.7)	461 (18.4)	497 (5.1) ▷
Malta	491 (8.4)	521 (7.0)	456 (6.8) ◁
Mexico	415 (11.6)	439 (4.7)	467 (4.2) ▶
New Zealand‡	500 (10.7)	504 (16.9)	549 (13.4) ▷
Norway †	511 (9.2)	513 (5.5)	516 (5.5)
Paraguay ¹	373 (8.1)	410 (6.0)	447 (4.9) ▶
Poland	515 (7.3)	528 (7.2)	557 (8.4) ▷
Russian Federation	497 (8.0)	499 (11.6)	515 (4.9)
Slovak Republic ²	496 (8.7)	521 (5.6)	559 (8.1) ▶
Slovenia	505 (6.3)	516 (3.5)	520 (5.2)
Spain	494 (8.6)	506 (6.7)	513 (6.5)
Sweden	530 (6.2)	529 (4.4)	553 (6.7) ▷
Switzerland †	531 (10.0)	528 (9.0)	537 (9.4)
Thailand †	430 (6.0)	457 (7.4)	460 (5.9) ▷
ICCS average	486 (1.3)	497 (1.3)	511 (1.1) ▶

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	536 (15.4)	552 (14.2)	573 (11.3)
Netherlands	493 (19.1)	465 (16.3)	509 (14.5)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 6.6: Principals' perceptions of social tension in the community (in national percentages of students)

Country	Percentages of Students at Schools Where Principals Report the Following Issues of Social Tension in Local Community:					
	Immigration	Poor-quality housing	Unemployment	Religious intolerance	Ethnic conflicts	Extensive poverty
Austria	34 (4.6) △	16 (3.3) ▽	21 (3.6) ▼	13 (3.1)	15 (3.5) △	8 (2.3) ▼
Belgium (Flemish) †	22 (3.4)	11 (2.2) ▼	14 (2.7) ▼	7 (2.1)	8 (2.3)	7 (2.0) ▼
Bulgaria	31 (3.8)	24 (3.3)	53 (4.0) △	3 (1.1) ▽	3 (1.4) ▽	28 (3.2)
Chile	26 (3.5)	36 (4.3) ▲	75 (3.8) ▲	5 (1.3)	4 (1.4) ▽	53 (4.3) ▲
Chinese Taipei	6 (2.0) ▼	21 (3.2)	48 (3.7)	5 (2.1)	3 (1.4) ▽	19 (2.8) ▽
Colombia	43 (3.2) ▲	55 (4.0) ▲	89 (2.4) ▲	16 (2.7) △	9 (2.2)	60 (3.6) ▲
Cyprus	26 (0.2)	23 (0.2) ▽	22 (0.3) ▼	7 (0.1) ▽	12 (0.2) △	17 (0.2) ▽
Czech Republic †	15 (3.5) ▽	14 (3.1) ▼	54 (5.1)	4 (2.1)	16 (3.7) △	11 (3.1) ▼
Denmark †	13 (2.6) ▼	14 (3.0) ▼	16 (3.3) ▼	7 (2.2)	7 (2.1)	8 (2.3) ▼
Dominican Republic	60 (5.6) ▲	62 (4.3) ▲	84 (3.3) ▲	31 (6.7) ▲	25 (6.7) ▲	72 (3.9) ▲
England ‡	22 (4.4)	35 (4.4) △	43 (4.4)	14 (3.8)	11 (3.4)	30 (4.3)
Estonia	8 (2.1) ▼	19 (3.3) ▽	51 (4.9)	2 (0.8) ▽	3 (0.3) ▽	27 (3.2)
Finland	16 (2.6) ▽	6 (1.8) ▼	34 (2.8) ▼	7 (1.8)	4 (1.5) ▽	4 (1.5) ▼
Greece	26 (3.5)	14 (2.8) ▼	28 (4.1) ▼	3 (1.5) ▽	7 (2.1)	14 (2.7) ▼
Guatemala ¹	58 (4.6) ▲	66 (4.9) ▲	91 (2.7) ▲	36 (4.5) ▲	13 (3.2)	74 (3.9) ▲
Indonesia	7 (2.2) ▼	19 (3.4)	41 (4.7)	5 (1.9)	3 (1.8) ▽	33 (4.9)
Ireland	13 (2.6) ▼	13 (2.9) ▼	43 (4.3)	4 (1.8) ▽	5 (1.5) ▽	11 (2.9) ▼
Italy	37 (3.8) ▲	13 (2.6) ▼	42 (3.9)	4 (1.6) ▽	8 (2.0)	21 (3.2)
Korea, Republic of ¹	14 (2.5) ▼	24 (3.3)	40 (4.1)	4 (1.7)	1 (0.0) ▽	25 (3.7)
Latvia	11 (2.8) ▼	61 (4.6) ▲	67 (3.9) ▲	1 (0.7) ▽	1 (0.9) ▽	44 (4.4) ▲
Liechtenstein	33 (0.3) △	0 (0.0) ▼	11 (0.1) ▼	21 (0.2) ▲	33 (0.3) ▲	0 (0.0) ▼
Lithuania	16 (3.3) ▽	31 (3.8)	72 (3.6) ▲	0 (0.0) ▽	1 (0.8) ▽	24 (3.3)
Luxembourg	29 (2.8)	3 (0.2) ▼	14 (2.1) ▼	0 (0.0) ▽	0 (0.0) ▽	3 (0.1) ▼
Malta	17 (0.6) ▽	16 (0.7) ▽	16 (0.7) ▼	1 (0.0) ▽	0 (0.0) ▽	3 (0.1) ▼
Mexico	46 (3.5) ▲	49 (3.5) ▲	80 (2.7) ▲	16 (2.6) △	4 (1.4) ▽	50 (3.8) ▲
New Zealand †	17 (3.8) ▽	22 (4.2)	22 (4.1) ▼	3 (2.2) ▽	7 (2.6)	11 (2.6) ▼
Norway †	28 (4.5)	13 (2.8) ▼	13 (3.2) ▼	13 (3.4)	13 (3.1)	4 (2.0) ▼
Paraguay ¹	56 (4.7) ▲	54 (4.7) ▲	84 (2.8) ▲	10 (2.5)	4 (1.8) ▽	73 (4.2) ▲
Poland	19 (3.1)	42 (4.0) ▲	74 (3.5) ▲	6 (1.9)	2 (0.8) ▽	32 (3.7)
Russian Federation	19 (2.9)	42 (4.1) ▲	64 (3.6) ▲	5 (1.9)	1 (0.5) ▽	50 (4.0) ▲
Slovak Republic ²	11 (2.7) ▼	19 (3.0) ▽	53 (4.1)	0 (0.0) ▽	6 (1.9)	16 (3.2) ▽
Slovenia	15 (2.9) ▼	7 (2.3) ▼	46 (4.6)	4 (1.8) ▽	5 (1.9)	19 (3.3)
Spain	30 (4.2)	15 (3.2) ▼	44 (4.1)	3 (1.3) ▽	15 (3.0) △	8 (2.4) ▼
Sweden	18 (3.2) ▽	4 (1.6) ▼	15 (2.8) ▼	5 (1.8)	8 (2.2)	4 (1.1) ▼
Switzerland †	44 (4.7) ▲	13 (3.0) ▼	17 (2.9) ▼	11 (2.7)	21 (3.9) ▲	4 (1.5) ▼
Thailand †	13 (2.5) ▼	47 (4.4) ▲	49 (4.7)	3 (1.4) ▽	1 (1.0) ▽	47 (4.5) ▲
ICCS average	25 (0.6)	26 (0.6)	45 (0.6)	8 (0.4)	8 (0.4)	25 (0.5)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	26 (5.6)	45 (6.7)	70 (6.1)	4 (2.7)	6 (3.3)	58 (5.8)
Netherlands	19 (9.9)	10 (5.0)	11 (3.6)	3 (2.1)	1 (0.1)	4 (2.1)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 6.6: Principals' perceptions of social tension in the community (in national percentages of students) (contd.)

Percentages of Students at Schools Where Principals Report the Following Issues of Social Tension in Local Community:					
Organized crime	Youth gangs	Petty crime	Sexual harassment	Drug abuse	Alcohol abuse
7 (2.1) ▽	10 (2.8) ▽	11 (3.0) ▼	2 (1.2) ▽	7 (2.3) ▼	24 (4.2) ▼
1 (0.0) ▼	3 (1.2) ▼	5 (1.8) ▼	1 (0.0) ▽	7 (2.0) ▼	5 (1.8) ▼
8 (2.1) ▽	8 (2.3) ▼	12 (2.5) ▼	4 (1.5) ▽	4 (1.4) ▼	20 (3.0) ▼
23 (3.4) ▲	48 (3.9) ▲	60 (3.8) ▲	24 (3.5) ▲	62 (3.8) ▲	74 (3.9) ▲
10 (2.5)	13 (2.9)	12 (2.8) ▼	10 (2.5)	12 (2.5) ▼	10 (2.6) ▼
36 (3.3) ▲	45 (3.7) ▲	50 (3.7) ▲	29 (3.0) ▲	58 (3.5) ▲	63 (4.1) ▲
9 (0.2) ▽	22 (0.2) △	26 (0.2) △	7 (0.1)	12 (0.2) ▽	20 (0.3) ▼
11 (3.0)	15 (3.2)	34 (4.8) △	6 (2.2)	30 (4.2)	39 (4.9)
8 (2.4) ▽	8 (2.2) ▼	12 (2.6) ▼	0 (0.0) ▽	6 (1.7) ▼	13 (2.7) ▼
20 (3.4) △	35 (4.2) ▲	42 (5.1) ▲	19 (3.5) ▲	64 (4.5) ▲	60 (4.8) ▲
20 (4.1)	30 (4.6) ▲	43 (4.8) ▲	8 (3.0)	44 (5.0) ▲	51 (5.1) ▲
3 (1.0) ▼	7 (2.4) ▼	23 (3.7)	1 (0.7) ▽	10 (2.4) ▼	50 (4.1) ▲
1 (0.5) ▼	5 (1.5) ▼	6 (1.7) ▼	1 (0.5) ▽	5 (1.7) ▼	34 (3.5)
3 (1.6) ▽	10 (2.0) ▽	13 (2.0) ▼	3 (1.2) ▽	14 (2.7) ▽	13 (3.1) ▼
64 (4.7) ▲	63 (4.5) ▲	69 (4.3) ▲	41 (4.9) ▲	52 (5.0) ▲	66 (4.8) ▲
2 (1.2) ▼	4 (1.6) ▼	4 (1.8) ▼	3 (1.3) ▽	6 (2.1) ▼	7 (2.4) ▼
13 (3.1)	16 (3.5)	21 (3.8)	4 (1.9)	28 (4.3)	47 (4.5) ▲
18 (3.1)	16 (2.7)	26 (3.2)	4 (1.6) ▽	33 (3.6) ▲	39 (4.2)
5 (1.8) ▽	21 (3.1)	18 (2.8) ▽	7 (2.1)	3 (1.4) ▼	8 (1.8) ▼
6 (1.9) ▽	3 (1.4) ▼	14 (3.0) ▼	3 (1.4) ▽	3 (1.3) ▼	39 (5.0)
0 (0.0) ▼	10 (0.1) ▽	10 (0.1) ▼	0 (0.0) ▽	10 (0.1) ▼	19 (0.3) ▼
13 (2.9)	14 (3.0)	37 (4.0) ▲	2 (0.9) ▽	7 (2.1) ▼	39 (3.8)
2 (0.1) ▼	21 (2.1)	18 (2.2) ▽	0 (0.0) ▽	25 (2.2)	33 (2.2)
6 (0.1) ▽	5 (0.3) ▼	6 (0.2) ▼	7 (0.3)	13 (0.3) ▽	13 (0.3) ▼
34 (3.3) ▲	51 (3.6) ▲	41 (3.1) ▲	26 (2.9) ▲	40 (3.2) ▲	52 (3.3) ▲
13 (2.6)	26 (4.1)	29 (3.8)	8 (2.8)	34 (4.4) ▲	47 (4.9) ▲
9 (2.9)	19 (3.3)	33 (4.7)	7 (2.3)	27 (4.6)	28 (4.5)
19 (5.1)	26 (5.1)	34 (4.5) ▲	16 (5.0)	33 (5.0) ▲	51 (4.4) ▲
6 (2.0) ▽	9 (2.1) ▼	18 (3.1) ▽	1 (1.0) ▽	8 (2.2) ▼	43 (4.2)
13 (2.7)	7 (1.6) ▼	28 (3.1)	4 (1.3) ▽	17 (3.0)	47 (4.0) ▲
5 (1.4) ▽	19 (3.5)	23 (3.6)	0 (0.0) ▽	10 (2.6) ▼	30 (3.7)
7 (2.2) ▽	12 (2.9) ▽	27 (3.5)	0 (0.0) ▽	20 (3.4)	35 (4.2)
2 (1.7) ▼	10 (2.7) ▽	19 (3.4)	5 (1.9)	38 (4.0) ▲	45 (4.0) ▲
7 (2.1) ▽	12 (2.9) ▽	17 (3.0) ▽	2 (1.4) ▽	11 (2.7) ▼	13 (2.8) ▼
1 (1.0) ▼	17 (3.0)	17 (3.4) ▽	5 (2.1)	11 (3.0) ▼	21 (3.9) ▼
66 (3.8) ▲	40 (4.0) ▲	24 (3.5)	12 (3.1)	31 (3.7) △	54 (4.4) ▲
13 (0.4)	19 (0.5)	24 (0.5)	7 (0.4)	22 (0.5)	35 (0.6)
34 (7.4)	37 (6.8)	38 (6.0)	15 (5.3)	45 (6.9)	22 (6.0)
2 (1.8)	0 (0.0)	9 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	4 (3.2)	12 (5.4)



In order to explore the relationship between issues of social tension in the communities where the schools were located and student civic knowledge, we calculated national tertiles for schools with low, medium, or high average social-tension scores. We then compared the student test score averages across the tertile groups.²

Table 6.7 shows that, on average, across the ICCS countries, a negative association emerged between the presence of issues of social tension in the community and students' civic knowledge. When comparing differences between tertile groups within countries, we found significant differences across all three tertile groups in only Denmark and Liechtenstein. The black triangle pointing to the left in Table 6.7 indicates that the medium-tertile group had significantly lower averages than the lowest-tertile group as well as significantly higher averages than the highest-tertile group. Comparison of only the lowest- and the highest-tertile group revealed that students in the former tertile had significantly higher scores than students in the latter group in a majority of the participating countries. Guatemala was the only country where students in the highest-tertile group had significantly higher civic knowledge scores than students in the lowest-tertile group.

The school context

Students' participation in decision-making processes at school

Various learning situations intersect civic and citizenship education at school. These include leadership and management, everyday activities within the school, and the quality of relationships inside the school itself. What students experience daily in school influences their perception of school as a democratic environment (Dürr, 2004). Establishing and experiencing relationships and behaviors based on openness and mutual respect, contributing actively to school decision-making processes, and participating in formal and informal governance processes provide students with opportunities to practice a democratic lifestyle and to begin exercising appropriate autonomy (Reilly, Niens, & McLaughlin, 2005).

The CIVED results highlighted that students who participated in activities related to the running of their schools were the students most likely to gain the higher scores on the civic knowledge and engagement scales (Torney-Purta et al., 2001; Losito & D'Apice, 2003). It seems that students' participation in such activities not only facilitates the building of a democratic school environment but also gives students opportunity to develop skills and attitudes related to civics and citizenship. Furthermore, students in schools that actively encourage teachers and students to contribute to decisions relating to school governance appear to have a tendency to gain confidence in their ability to influence this and similar processes.

The student questionnaire used in ICCS included a set of items asking students about the extent to which they thought they could influence decision-making processes and practices at their respective schools. Students were asked to rate to what extent—"large", "moderate," "small," "not at all"—their opinions were taken into account when decisions were being made about:

- The way classes are taught;
- What is taught in classes;
- Teaching and learning materials;
- The timetable;
- Classroom rules;
- School rules.



² The tertiles were based on an IRT scale derived from these 12 items. The scale had a reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.88. It had a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted country data.

Table 6.7: Students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of schools with low, medium, or high average principals' perceptions of social tension in the community

Country	Average Students' Civic Knowledge at Schools Where Principals' Perceptions of Social Tension in the Community Are:		
	Low	Medium	High
Austria	500 (9.7)	520 (6.2)	488 (8.5)
Belgium (Flemish)†	518 (7.6)	523 (8.3)	500 (7.3)
Bulgaria	482 (8.0)	479 (11.7)	433 (11.3) ◁
Chile	506 (7.8)	488 (6.9)	466 (5.0) ◁
Chinese Taipei	567 (4.6)	559 (4.8)	547 (5.0) ◁
Colombia	473 (5.3)	463 (6.2)	453 (4.8) ◁
Cyprus	452 (5.0)	457 (3.8)	445 (4.7)
Czech Republic †	514 (6.6)	506 (5.7)	506 (5.5)
Denmark†	597 (6.1)	577 (5.4)	560 (5.9) ◀
Dominican Republic	387 (4.8)	382 (4.7)	375 (3.5)
England‡	554 (8.7)	518 (9.3)	508 (10.6) ◁
Estonia	545 (8.1)	525 (5.4)	495 (7.8) ◁
Finland	572 (5.0)	583 (5.6)	575 (3.5)
Greece	475 (10.6)	487 (5.5)	482 (7.3)
Guatemala ¹	413 (6.7)	441 (9.4)	444 (5.6) ▷
Indonesia	450 (7.7)	423 (6.6)	427 (5.8) ◁
Ireland	555 (7.0)	542 (7.2)	503 (10.7) ◁
Italy	544 (5.2)	530 (5.4)	518 (5.6) ◁
Korea, Republic of ¹	576 (4.3)	567 (3.1)	553 (3.3) ◁
Latvia	494 (5.4)	481 (5.2)	468 (9.3) ◁
Liechtenstein	584 (4.6)	533 (8.1)	449 (6.9) ◀
Lithuania	516 (4.9)	501 (5.3)	498 (4.6) ◁
Luxembourg	500 (6.5)	481 (6.1)	463 (7.4) ◁
Malta	508 (6.1)	504 (8.6)	461 (6.8) ◁
Mexico	472 (5.6)	446 (5.9)	441 (4.6) ◁
New Zealand‡	553 (15.0)	540 (10.7)	463 (11.2) ◁
Norway †	516 (7.6)	517 (6.0)	510 (6.0)
Paraguay ¹	426 (8.1)	427 (10.2)	420 (7.7)
Poland	543 (8.6)	533 (6.8)	536 (7.7)
Russian Federation	519 (7.3)	498 (7.8)	501 (8.1)
Slovak Republic ²	541 (9.0)	526 (6.6)	516 (6.4) ◁
Slovenia	516 (4.9)	517 (4.3)	513 (4.8)
Spain	512 (7.6)	513 (6.4)	489 (7.8) ◁
Sweden	548 (5.8)	536 (4.5)	529 (6.1) ◁
Switzerland †	561 (9.5)	533 (7.6)	513 (6.2) ◁
Thailand †	470 (7.7)	452 (5.8)	438 (7.0) ◁
ICCS average	513 (1.2)	503 (1.1)	486 (1.2) ◀

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	572 (14.8)	535 (15.3)	555 (8.0)
Netherlands	521 (14.6)	497 (19.8)	434 (21.4) ◁

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



The resulting six-item IRT scale measuring student perceptions of influence on decisions about schools had a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.86 for the international ICCS database based on equally weighted national samples. Figure 6.1 in Appendix E shows the item-by-score map for this scale.

Across countries, students with an average ICCS score of 50 were those most likely to report having at least a moderate influence on how classes are taught and what is taught in them, and on classroom and school rules. The average percentages of students who reported having a moderate or large influence ranged from 45 (influence on the timetable) to 61 percent (influence on classroom rules).

Table 6.8, which shows the national average scores for this scale, highlights differences between groupings of ICCS countries. The average scale scores for Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Mexico, Paraguay, the Russian Federation, and Thailand were three or more points (equal to about a third of an international standard deviation) higher than the ICCS average. Scores for the Czech Republic, Denmark, England, Finland, Ireland, the Republic of Korea, Liechtenstein, Poland, Slovenia, and Switzerland were, on average, three or more points lower than the ICCS average.

The gender differences relative to students' perceptions of their ability to influence decisions about school were small yet statistically significant in under half of the participating countries. This perception was higher among males than females in Belgium (Flemish), Bulgaria, Chinese Taipei, Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, England, Estonia, Finland, Greece, the Republic of Korea, Lithuania, Paraguay, the Slovak Republic, and Slovenia. In Austria and Indonesia, females were more likely than males to report ability to influence school decision-making. Differences in the remaining countries were not significant.

The teacher questionnaire included a similar set of items. Teachers were asked to rate to what extent ("large," "moderate," "small," "not at all") students' opinions were taken into account when decisions were made about:

- Teaching/learning materials;
- The timetable;
- Classroom rules;
- Schools rules.

The resulting four-item IRT scale measuring teachers' perceptions of student influence on decisions about school had a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.76 for the international ICCS database with equally weighted national samples. Figure 6.2 in Appendix E shows the item-by-score map for this scale.

The teachers most likely to think that students influenced, to at least a moderate extent, classroom and school rules but not teacher/learning material or timetables were those with an average scale score of 50. The percentages of teachers who considered that students had a moderate or large influence on school decision-making ranged from 34 percent (timetables) to 79 percent (classroom rules).

Table 6.9 shows the national average scale scores for teachers' perceptions of student influence on decisions about school. The highest average scale scores—more than three points above the ICCS average—were evident in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Lithuania, Paraguay, Poland, and Thailand. Chile, Cyprus, Finland, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Malta, the Slovak Republic, and Spain scored three or more points below the ICCS average.



Table 6.8: National scale score averages for students' perceptions of their influence on decisions about school overall and by gender

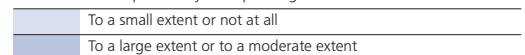
Country	All Students			Females		Males		Differences (males–females)*	30 40 50 60 70					
	Score	SE	Significance	Score	SE	Score	SE		Probability of responding					
Austria	47	(0.2)	▽	48	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	-1	(0.3)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	48	(0.3)	▽	47	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Bulgaria	50	(0.3)		49	(0.4)	50	(0.5)	1	(0.5)					
Chile	53	(0.2)	▲	53	(0.3)	54	(0.3)	0	(0.3)					
Chinese Taipei	52	(0.2)	△	52	(0.2)	52	(0.2)	1	(0.2)					
Colombia	56	(0.2)	▲	56	(0.2)	56	(0.2)	0	(0.2)					
Cyprus	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	1	(0.4)					
Czech Republic †	46	(0.2)	▼	46	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	0	(0.4)					
Denmark †	45	(0.2)	▼	45	(0.2)	45	(0.2)	0	(0.2)					
Dominican Republic	58	(0.2)	▲	58	(0.3)	59	(0.2)	1	(0.3)					
England ‡	46	(0.3)	▼	45	(0.3)	46	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Estonia	47	(0.2)	▽	46	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	2	(0.4)					
Finland	46	(0.2)	▼	45	(0.2)	47	(0.2)	2	(0.3)					
Greece	47	(0.3)	▽	47	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Guatemala ¹	57	(0.3)	▲	57	(0.4)	57	(0.3)	0	(0.3)					
Indonesia	59	(0.3)	▲	60	(0.3)	59	(0.3)	-1	(0.3)					
Ireland	44	(0.3)	▼	44	(0.4)	44	(0.5)	0	(0.6)					
Italy	51	(0.2)	△	51	(0.3)	51	(0.2)	-1	(0.3)					
Korea, Republic of ¹	43	(0.2)	▼	43	(0.2)	44	(0.2)	1	(0.3)					
Latvia	49	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.4)	49	(0.3)	0	(0.5)					
Liechtenstein	46	(0.4)	▼	45	(0.5)	46	(0.7)	0	(0.8)					
Lithuania	52	(0.2)	△	51	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	2	(0.4)					
Luxembourg	50	(0.1)	▽	50	(0.2)	50	(0.2)	0	(0.3)					
Malta	51	(0.2)	△	50	(0.3)	51	(0.4)	1	(0.5)					
Mexico	55	(0.1)	▲	55	(0.2)	55	(0.2)	0	(0.2)					
New Zealand †	47	(0.3)	▽	47	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Norway †	52	(0.2)	△	52	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	0	(0.3)					
Paraguay ¹	55	(0.2)	▲	55	(0.3)	56	(0.3)	1	(0.4)					
Poland	45	(0.2)	▼	45	(0.3)	45	(0.3)	0	(0.3)					
Russian Federation	57	(0.4)	▲	56	(0.5)	57	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Slovak Republic ²	49	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.3)	50	(0.4)	1	(0.4)					
Slovenia	47	(0.3)	▼	46	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	2	(0.4)					
Spain	48	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.4)	48	(0.4)	0	(0.4)					
Sweden	49	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	50	(0.2)	0	(0.3)					
Switzerland †	46	(0.3)	▼	46	(0.3)	46	(0.4)	0	(0.4)					
Thailand †	58	(0.1)	▲	59	(0.2)	58	(0.2)	0	(0.2)					
ICCS average	50	(0.0)		50	(0.1)	50	(0.1)	1	(0.1)					
Countries not meeting sampling requirements														
Hong Kong SAR	52	(0.2)		52	(0.2)	52	(0.3)	0	(0.3)					
Netherlands	49	(0.3)		49	(0.3)	49	(0.5)	1	(0.5)					

National average

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



Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

Table 6.9: National averages for teachers' perceptions of student influence on decisions about school

Country	Average Scale Score	30	40	50	60	70
Bulgaria	51 (0.4)			■		
Chile	46 (0.5) ▼			■		
Chinese Taipei	48 (0.2) ▽			■		
Colombia	55 (0.4) ▲				■	
Cyprus	45 (0.4) ▼			■		
Czech Republic †	49 (0.2) ▽			■		
Dominican Republic	61 (0.5) ▲					■
Estonia	49 (0.3) ▽			■		
Finland	46 (0.2) ▼			■		
Guatemala	52 (0.8) △				■	
Indonesia	53 (0.4) △				■	
Ireland ‡	44 (0.3) ▼			■		
Italy	49 (0.3) ▽			■		
Korea, Republic of	49 (0.3) ▽			■		
Latvia	53 (0.3) △				■	
Liechtenstein	44 (0.6) ▼			■		
Lithuania	55 (0.3) ▲				■	
Malta	45 (0.3) ▼			■		
Mexico	49 (0.4) ▽			■		
Paraguay	56 (0.6) ▲				■	
Poland	55 (0.2) ▲				■	
Russian Federation	50 (0.3)			■		
Slovak Republic ¹	46 (0.3) ▼			■		
Slovenia	51 (0.2) △			■		
Spain	44 (0.2) ▼			■		
Sweden †	50 (0.2)			■		
Thailand †	56 (0.4) ▲				■	
ICCS average	50 (0.1)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Austria	49 (0.4)			■		
Belgium (Flemish)	46 (0.4)			■		
Denmark	49 (0.3)			■		
England	48 (0.3)			■		
Hong Kong SAR	50 (0.3)			■		
Luxembourg	44 (0.7)			■		
New Zealand	47 (0.3)			■		
Norway	51 (0.3)			■		
Switzerland	41 (0.3)			■		

National average

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

■ average score +/- confidence interval

On average, teachers with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of reporting:

Some of them or none or hardly any
All or nearly all/most of them

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 we looked for an association across countries between students' average civic knowledge scores and tertile groups of schools based on low, medium, or high average scores denoting teachers' perceptions of student influence, we found that the prevalent association was a negative one (see Table 6.10). We found no significant linear associations across all three tertile groups in any of the countries when we looked at individual countries. However, our comparison of the lowest- and the highest-tertile groups suggested a negative association in 10 of the participating countries: Chile, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Republic of Korea, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Mexico, Paraguay, and Thailand. In these countries, the average in the lowest-tertile group was significantly higher than the average in the highest one.

Students' participation in classroom activities and their perceptions of classroom climate

Student learning in the area of civic and citizenship education is influenced by how this area of provision is taught and its purposes, as well as by students' experiences at school. Scholars have identified school climate and classroom climate as key factors influencing the development, within schools, of relationships based on respect and cooperation.

School climate refers to "the shared beliefs, the relationships between individuals and groups in the organization, the physical surroundings, and the characteristics of individuals and groups participating in the organization" (Van Houtte, 2005, p. 85). Within the context of civic and citizenship education, school climate can be referred to as "impressions, beliefs, and expectations held by members of the school community about their school as a learning environment, their associated behavior, and the symbols and institutions that represent the patterned expressions of the behavior" (Homana, Barber, & Torney-Purta, 2006, p. 3).

School climate also relates to the school culture and ethos that helps define the school as a social organization and distinguishes it from other schools (Stoll, 1999). School culture refers to the patterns of meaning, including norms, beliefs, and traditions, that the members of the school community share and that contribute to shaping their thinking and the way they act (Stolp, 1994).

Definitions of classroom climate focus mainly on the extent of cooperation evident during teaching and learning activities, on fairness of assessment methods, and on social support. A democratic classroom climate is taken to be one that seeks to implement democratic and liberal values in the classroom (Ehman, 1980; Hahn, 1999). According to Perliger, Canetti-Nisim, and Pedahzur (2006), a democratic classroom climate can help students understand the advantages of democratic values and practices and may have a positive effect on the assimilation of these values by students. Mintrop (2003) claims that a democratic and open climate also has the advantage of creating positive relationships within the classroom.

Several questions in the ICCS teacher and student questionnaires asked teachers and students to give their perceptions of aspects relating to classroom climate. One such question in the teacher questionnaire asked teachers to characterize relationships among the students in their respective classes. More specifically, teachers were asked to specify how many of their students ("all or nearly all," "most of them," "some of them," "none or hardly any"):

- Get on well with their classmates;
- Are well integrated into the class;
- Respect their classmates even if they are different;
- Have a good relationship with other students.



Table 6.10: Students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of schools with low, medium, or high average teacher perceptions of student influence on decisions about school

Country	Average Students' Civic Knowledge at Schools Where Teachers' Perceptions of Student Influence on Decisions about School Are:		
	Low	Medium	High
Bulgaria	465 (10.3)	469 (10.0)	464 (10.3)
Chile	500 (6.4)	473 (6.3)	470 (7.0) ◁
Chinese Taipei	564 (4.4)	554 (4.6)	552 (8.4)
Colombia	460 (6.7)	463 (4.8)	464 (6.4)
Cyprus	458 (4.1)	448 (3.0)	456 (5.3)
Czech Republic †	504 (5.8)	508 (5.3)	518 (7.1)
Dominican Republic	388 (3.3)	377 (3.8)	370 (5.9) ◁
Estonia	517 (6.9)	525 (6.6)	534 (11.4)
Finland	577 (4.2)	574 (3.8)	578 (5.0)
Guatemala	447 (4.9)	437 (9.3)	404 (8.7) ◀
Indonesia	436 (5.5)	437 (7.0)	420 (7.6)
Ireland ‡	532 (8.4)	531 (9.5)	536 (9.6)
Italy	536 (5.4)	521 (5.8)	535 (5.7)
Korea, Republic of	569 (3.0)	565 (3.4)	557 (4.0) ◁
Latvia	489 (5.1)	484 (5.9)	462 (10.4) ◁
Liechtenstein	539 (8.2)	562 (4.3)	476 (6.6) ◀
Lithuania	514 (4.5)	501 (6.1)	494 (5.2) ◁
Malta	506 (4.4)	458 (10.0)	504 (8.3)
Mexico	462 (4.5)	453 (4.4)	420 (8.9) ◀
Paraguay	433 (6.7)	425 (9.1)	405 (8.9) ◁
Poland	544 (6.1)	528 (8.3)	535 (9.5)
Russian Federation	500 (6.0)	509 (6.1)	511 (6.8)
Slovak Republic ¹	518 (7.5)	539 (8.7)	530 (8.3)
Slovenia	521 (4.3)	512 (5.1)	512 (4.9)
Spain	515 (7.0)	499 (7.5)	502 (6.7)
Sweden †	533 (4.9)	535 (6.9)	544 (6.7)
Thailand †	456 (5.9)	463 (8.2)	426 (7.7) ◀
ICCS average	499 (1.1)	494 (1.3)	488 (1.5) ◀

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Austria	522 (12.5)	485 (8.8)	497 (10.2)
Belgium (Flemish)	512 (9.6)	519 (7.9)	509 (8.7)
Denmark	584 (9.7)	570 (6.3)	585 (6.3)
England	516 (11.6)	528 (13.3)	517 (7.4)
Luxembourg	453 (6.9)	472 (5.1)	499 (9.0) ▶
New Zealand	525 (10.7)	529 (10.1)	516 (15.7)
Norway	510 (5.8)	527 (8.0)	510 (8.6)
Switzerland	521 (7.1)	538 (11.9)	533 (8.5)

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:

Hong Kong SAR not included in this table because of insufficient data.

() 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 resulting four-item IRT scale measuring teachers' perceptions of classroom climate was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. It had a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.87 for the international ICCS database with equally weighted national samples. Figure 6.3 (Appendix E) shows the item-by-score map for this scale.

Teachers with an average ICCS score of 50 were those likely to have reported that the statements applied to at least most of the students in their classes. The average percentages of teachers stating that most, nearly all, or all of their students demonstrated these behaviors ranged from 90 (respect their classmates even if they are different) to 96 percent (get on well with their classmates).

Table 6.11 shows the national average scale scores for teachers' perceptions of classroom climate at school. Teachers from the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, and Paraguay showed the most positive perceptions of classroom climate. Their average scale scores were more than three points above the ICCS average. National average scores of more than three points below the ICCS average were observed for Cyprus, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, and Slovenia.

Table 6.12, which presents the average student civic knowledge score by tertile groups of schools based on low, medium, or high average scores of teachers' perceptions of classroom climate, shows a positive association across countries between the student scores and the teacher scores. When comparing the three tertile groups at the individual country level, we found a positive association, which was statistically significant, between the adjacent tertile groups for Latvia and Liechtenstein. The black triangle pointing to the right in Table 6.12 indicates that the medium tertile had significantly higher averages than the lowest-tertile group, and significantly lower averages than the highest-tertile group. Our comparison of only the lowest- with the highest-tertile group showed significantly higher civic knowledge scores among students in the highest tertile in another eight participating countries—Bulgaria, Chile, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Malta, and Sweden. In Guatemala, the average score in the highest-tertile group for student civic knowledge was significantly lower than the average score in the lowest-tertile group.

The ICCS teacher questionnaire also asked teachers about student participation in class activities and to report how many students in their classrooms (“all or nearly all,” “most of them,” “some of them,” “none or hardly any”):

- Suggest class activities;
- Negotiate their learning achievement with the teacher;
- Propose topics/issues for classroom discussion;
- Freely state their own views on school problems;
- Know how to listen to and respect opinions even if different from their own;
- Freely express their opinion even if different from those of the majority;
- Feel comfortable during class discussion because they know their views will be respected;
- Discuss the choice of teaching/learning materials.

The resulting eight-item IRT scale measuring teachers' perceptions of student participation in class activities was standardized to have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was 0.80 for the international ICCS database with equally weighted national samples. Figure 6.4 (Appendix E) shows the item-by-score map for this scale. The percentages of teachers reporting that most of their students would do a particular activity ranged from 22 percent (negotiate the learning objectives with the teachers, discuss the choice of teacher/learning materials) to 70 percent (feel comfortable during class discussion because they know their views will be respected).



Table 6.11: National averages for teachers' perceptions of classroom climate

Country	Average Scale Score	30	40	50	60	70
Bulgaria	51 (0.5) △					
Chile	50 (0.5)					
Chinese Taipei	48 (0.2) ▽					
Colombia	50 (0.5)					
Cyprus	47 (0.3) ▼					
Czech Republic †	47 (0.4) ▼					
Dominican Republic	53 (0.6) ▲					
Estonia	48 (0.4) ▽					
Finland	49 (0.2) ▽					
Guatemala	53 (0.6) ▲					
Indonesia	59 (0.3) ▲					
Ireland ‡	52 (0.4) △					
Italy	51 (0.4) △					
Korea, Republic of	48 (0.3) ▽					
Latvia	47 (0.6) ▽					
Liechtenstein	50 (0.8)					
Lithuania	48 (0.5) ▽					
Malta	48 (0.4) ▽					
Mexico	50 (0.5)					
Paraguay	55 (0.5) ▲					
Poland	49 (0.3) ▽					
Russian Federation	51 (0.4) △					
Slovak Republic ¹	46 (0.4) ▼					
Slovenia	46 (0.3) ▼					
Spain	49 (0.4) ▽					
Sweden †	52 (0.3) △					
Thailand †	52 (0.4) △					
ICCS average	50 (0.1)					

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Austria	48 (0.4)					
Belgium (Flemish)	49 (0.3)					
Denmark	53 (0.5)					
England	52 (0.4)					
Hong Kong SAR	45 (0.4)					
Luxembourg	50 (0.6)					
New Zealand	50 (0.3)					
Norway	53 (1.0)					
Switzerland	50 (0.4)					

National average

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

■ average score +/- confidence interval

On average, teachers with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of reporting:

	Some of them or none or hardly any
	All or nearly all/most of them

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 6.12: Students' civic knowledge by national tertile groups of schools with low, medium, or high average teacher perceptions of classroom climate

Country	Average Students' Civic Knowledge at Schools Where Teachers' Perceptions of Classroom Climate Are:			
	Low	Medium	High	
Bulgaria	445 (10.2)	480 (9.7)	475 (9.8)	▷
Chile	470 (5.8)	483 (7.5)	496 (6.0)	▷
Chinese Taipei	555 (6.0)	553 (4.0)	566 (5.1)	
Colombia	456 (5.5)	464 (5.8)	470 (6.7)	
Cyprus	453 (5.0)	455 (4.0)	454 (3.8)	
Czech Republic †	498 (4.4)	504 (4.4)	534 (7.1)	▷
Dominican Republic	380 (4.1)	379 (4.4)	382 (5.7)	
Estonia	495 (8.1)	527 (6.4)	545 (9.0)	▷
Finland	567 (5.4)	579 (4.1)	582 (4.3)	▷
Guatemala	439 (4.5)	440 (8.7)	415 (8.4)	◁
Indonesia	439 (6.1)	422 (6.8)	437 (6.7)	
Ireland ‡	506 (10.1)	536 (7.2)	554 (7.9)	▷
Italy	528 (5.3)	535 (6.0)	529 (5.9)	
Korea, Republic of	560 (3.2)	569 (3.7)	568 (3.7)	
Latvia	461 (6.3)	480 (7.0)	497 (5.4)	▶
Liechtenstein	447 (6.6)	504 (7.9)	590 (4.7)	▶
Lithuania	501 (4.9)	514 (4.2)	490 (6.5)	
Malta	416 (7.5)	512 (5.0)	528 (9.8)	▷
Mexico	449 (4.5)	457 (3.7)	451 (12.4)	
Paraguay	431 (7.2)	419 (10.0)	412 (7.7)	
Poland	528 (8.0)	539 (7.0)	542 (7.7)	
Russian Federation	495 (4.8)	515 (6.2)	512 (9.5)	
Slovak Republic ¹	522 (7.5)	537 (9.5)	526 (7.1)	
Slovenia	511 (4.8)	518 (4.6)	519 (4.3)	
Spain	489 (8.3)	518 (6.1)	509 (7.6)	
Sweden †	525 (5.0)	536 (4.8)	554 (8.6)	▷
Thailand †	441 (7.2)	452 (8.8)	459 (6.0)	
ICCS average	482 (1.2)	497 (1.3)	504 (1.4)	▶

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Austria	476 (11.2)	519 (9.9)	508 (9.4)	▷
Belgium (Flemish)	479 (9.3)	528 (9.1)	530 (7.1)	▷
Denmark	555 (6.0)	592 (7.0)	592 (6.6)	▷
England	483 (8.4)	513 (6.5)	570 (9.4)	▶
Luxembourg	442 (5.4)	492 (10.0)	499 (6.0)	▷
New Zealand	502 (11.1)	517 (12.1)	561 (11.7)	▷
Norway	502 (5.8)	516 (5.3)	533 (11.1)	▷
Switzerland	514 (10.0)	530 (12.0)	548 (7.3)	▷

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:

Hong Kong SAR not included in this table because of insufficient data.

() 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.



Some notable differences emerged from our analysis of the teachers' responses (see Table 6.13). In Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Indonesia, Lithuania, Paraguay, and Thailand, the average national scores for teachers' reports on student participation in class activities were more than three points above the ICCS average. The countries at the opposite end of the international ranking in Table 6.13, namely, Chinese Taipei, the Czech Republic, Finland, Liechtenstein, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, and Spain, had average national scores three points or more below the ICCS average.

Because educational researchers and commentators often claim that democratic principles at schools foster the learning of democratic principles in general (see, for example, Mosher, Kenny, & Garrod, 1994; Pasek, Feldman, Romer, & Jamieson, 2008), the ICCS research team considered that the extent to which classrooms are open (receptive) to discussion is a factor with a potentially important influence on learning in this area. This notion has been the focus of many secondary analyses of CIVED data (Torney-Purta, 2009; Torney-Purta, Wilkenfeld, & Barber, 2008).

The first IEA study on civic education in 1971 (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975) found that "independence of opinion encouraged in the classroom" related positively to civic knowledge. The CIVED survey in 1999 included a set of items measuring students' perceptions of what happened in their civic education classes. Six of these items were used to measure an index of open climate for classroom discussion (Schulz, 2004a). The students' responses yielded significant gender differences, and the scale was found to be a positive predictor of civic knowledge and students' expectations to vote as an adult as well as students' perceptions of social and political alienation (Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, & Nikolova, 2002; Schulz, 2002; Torney-Purta, 2009; Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

The ICCS student questionnaire included a similar set of items. Students were asked to rate the frequency ("never," "rarely," "sometimes," "often") with which the following events occurred during regular lessons that included discussions of political and social issues:

- Teachers encourage students to make up their own minds;
- Teachers encourage students to express their opinions;
- Students bring up current political events for discussion in class;
- Students express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from those of most of the other students;
- Teachers encourage students to discuss the issues with people who have different opinions;
- Teachers present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class.

The resulting six-item scale measuring student perceptions of openness in classroom discussions had a satisfactory reliability of 0.76 for the international ICCS database with equally weighted national samples. Figure 6.5 in Appendix E presents an item-by-score map for this scale. It shows that, on average across countries, students reported that most of these events occurred at least sometimes. The percentages of students who said they often observed these events ranged from 11 (students bringing up current events in class) to 52 percent (teachers encourage students to express opinions).

The outcomes of our comparison of national scale score averages across the ICCS countries (Table 6.14) showed that, in most of these countries, students with average scores were likely to report that the events listed happened at least sometimes during discussions of political and social issues in any of their regular lessons. Countries with scale scores three or more points higher than the ICCS average were Denmark, England, Indonesia, Italy, and New Zealand. Malta and the Republic of Korea had the lowest national average scores.



Table 6.13: National averages for teachers' reports on student participation in class activities

Country	Average Scale Score		30	40	50	60	70
Bulgaria	51 (0.4) △				■		
Chile	49 (0.4) ▽				■		
Chinese Taipei	46 (0.3) ▼			■			
Colombia	53 (0.5) ▲				■		
Cyprus	50 (0.3)			■			
Czech Republic †	45 (0.3) ▼			■			
Dominican Republic	60 (0.8) ▲					■	
Estonia	48 (0.3) ▽			■			
Finland	46 (0.2) ▼			■			
Guatemala	55 (0.6) ▲					■	
Indonesia	53 (0.5) ▲					■	
Ireland ‡	48 (0.3) ▽			■			
Italy	52 (0.3) △				■		
Korea, Republic of	50 (0.3)				■		
Latvia	52 (0.4) △				■		
Liechtenstein	45 (0.8) ▼			■			
Lithuania	54 (0.3) ▲					■	
Malta	47 (0.4) ▽			■			
Mexico	51 (0.3) △				■		
Paraguay	56 (0.7) ▲					■	
Poland	48 (0.3) ▽			■			
Russian Federation	51 (0.5)				■		
Slovak Republic ¹	47 (0.2) ▼			■			
Slovenia	46 (0.2) ▼			■			
Spain	46 (0.3) ▼			■			
Sweden †	48 (0.3) ▽			■			
Thailand †	53 (0.4) ▲					■	
ICCS average	50 (0.1)						

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Austria	42 (0.3)			■			
Belgium (Flemish)	45 (0.3)			■			
Denmark	48 (0.4)				■		
England	49 (0.3)				■		
Hong Kong SAR	40 (0.3)		■				
Luxembourg	46 (0.9)			■			
New Zealand	48 (0.3)			■			
Norway	47 (0.9)			■			
Switzerland	43 (0.3)			■			

National average

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

■ average score +/- confidence interval

On average, teachers with a score in the range indicated by this color have more than a 50% probability of reporting:

	Some of them or none or hardly any
	All or nearly all/most of them

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 6.14: National scale score averages for students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussions overall and by gender

Country	All Students			Differences (males-females)*			30 40 50 60 70							
	Score	SE	Significance	Females	SE	Significance	Visual representation of scores and differences							
Austria	48	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.4)	46	(0.4)	-3	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Belgium (Flemish) †	49	(0.3)	▽	51	(0.4)	48	(0.3)	-3	(0.5)	[Visual representation]				
Bulgaria	48	(0.4)	▽	50	(0.4)	46	(0.4)	-4	(0.5)	[Visual representation]				
Chile	52	(0.3)	△	54	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	-3	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Chinese Taipei	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	-3	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Colombia	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	-1	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Cyprus	51	(0.3)	△	52	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	-3	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Czech Republic †	49	(0.2)	▽	51	(0.2)	47	(0.3)	-4	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Denmark †	55	(0.3)	▲	56	(0.3)	54	(0.4)	-2	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Dominican Republic	47	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	-2	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
England ‡	53	(0.3)	▲	54	(0.4)	52	(0.4)	-3	(0.5)	[Visual representation]				
Estonia	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	-3	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Finland	49	(0.2)	▽	50	(0.2)	49	(0.3)	-2	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Greece	51	(0.3)	△	52	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	-2	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Guatemala ¹	53	(0.2)	△	54	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	-2	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Indonesia	55	(0.3)	▲	56	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	-4	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Ireland	52	(0.3)	△	55	(0.3)	50	(0.4)	-4	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Italy	54	(0.3)	▲	56	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	-3	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Korea, Republic of ¹	38	(0.2)	▼	39	(0.3)	38	(0.3)	-1	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Latvia	51	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	-3	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Liechtenstein	48	(0.5)	▽	50	(0.7)	47	(0.7)	-3	(1.0)	[Visual representation]				
Lithuania	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	-4	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Luxembourg	48	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	47	(0.2)	-2	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Malta	46	(0.2)	▼	47	(0.4)	44	(0.3)	-3	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Mexico	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	-3	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
New Zealand †	53	(0.3)	▲	55	(0.4)	51	(0.4)	-4	(0.6)	[Visual representation]				
Norway †	52	(0.3)	△	53	(0.4)	51	(0.4)	-2	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Paraguay ¹	49	(0.3)	▽	50	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	-2	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Poland	51	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	-4	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Russian Federation	49	(0.3)	▽	51	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	-5	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Slovak Republic ²	50	(0.3)		52	(0.2)	48	(0.3)	-3	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
Slovenia	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	-4	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Spain	48	(0.2)	▽	50	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	-4	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Sweden	51	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	-3	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Switzerland †	48	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	47	(0.4)	-2	(0.4)	[Visual representation]				
Thailand †	51	(0.2)	△	53	(0.2)	49	(0.3)	-4	(0.3)	[Visual representation]				
ICCS average	50	(0.0)		51	(0.1)	49	(0.1)	-3	(0.1)	[Visual representation]				

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	53	(0.4)		54	(0.5)	52	(0.5)	-2	(0.5)	[Visual representation]				
Netherlands	49	(0.5)		49	(0.5)	48	(0.5)	-2	(0.5)	[Visual representation]				

National average

▲ More than 3 score points above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

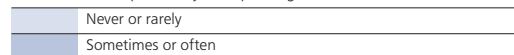
▼ More than 3 score points below ICCS average

▽ Significantly below 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:



Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) gender 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

There were noticeable gender differences in the students' perceptions of classroom climate. In all ICCS countries, females perceived classroom climate as more open than males did. On average, across countries, there was a three-point difference between the two gender groups.

Implementation and aims of civic and citizenship education at school

The national case studies in the IEA CIVED survey (Torney-Purta, Schwille, & Amadeo, 1999) showed that the status of civic and citizenship education and the priority given to it in schools were generally low across countries. Several studies since then (e.g., Birzea et al., 2004) show that even when civic and citizenship education is recognized as one of the most important aspects of the school, there is a gap between declarations of principle and implementation of civic-related policies as well as between policies and practices.

As we pointed out in Chapter 2, the approaches that countries take to civic and citizenship education vary (Cox et al., 2005; Eurydice, 2005). In education systems where schools can exercise a comparatively high level of autonomy in curriculum development and delivery, schools can generally decide which approach to use in relation to civic and citizenship education (Eurydice, 2007). It is therefore important to consider differences in approach within the individual school systems, even when legislation, regulations, and common curricula are set at the national level. We also need to be mindful that schools may take more than one approach to civic and citizenship education.

The ICCS school questionnaire included questions on how civic and citizenship education was implemented at the school level, how school principals perceived the importance of the aims of this area of education, and how the school assigned specific responsibilities for it.

In particular, the principals were asked to indicate which of the following applied to civic and citizenship education at their schools:

- Taught as a separate subject by teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education;
- Taught by teachers of subjects related to human and social sciences;
- Integrated into all subjects taught at the school;
- Taught as an extracurricular activity;
- Considered to be part of the outcomes of school experience as a whole;
- Not considered to be part of the school curriculum.

Table 6.15 sets out the different approaches (in percentages of students) that the participating schools adopted when delivering civic and citizenship education. As we anticipated, the results indicated that different approaches to civic and citizenship education may coexist within the same school.

In almost all of the ICCS countries, the majority of students were attending schools whose principals reported that, regardless of the specific approaches adopted, civic and citizenship education was regarded as part of the educational purpose of the school and as an outcome of the students' school experience as a whole (teaching activities, participation in school life, and relationships within the school and the classrooms).

The most widespread approach across the countries was that of entrusting the teaching of civic and citizenship education to teachers of subjects related to human and social sciences. In more than a third of the ICCS countries, the percentages of students who received this type of education from such teachers were equal to or greater than 90 percent.





Table 6.15: School approaches to teaching civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of students)

Country	Percentages of Students at Schools Where Principals Report that Civic and Civic Education Is ...							
	taught as a separate subject by teachers of civic and citizenship related subjects	taught by teachers of subjects related to human and social sciences	integrated into all subjects taught at school	an extracurricular activity	considered the result of school experience as a whole	not considered a part of the school curriculum		
Austria	23 (4.3) ▼	88 (2.3) ▲	44 (4.5) ▼	33 (5.1)	68 (4.8)	1 (1.0) ▼		
Belgium (Flemish) †	*	74 (4.2)	60 (4.0)	35 (3.9) ▲	85 (3.2) ▲	21 (3.4)		
Bulgaria	*	75 (3.4)	75 (3.5) ▲	41 (4.1) ▲	87 (2.9) ▲	26 (3.5)		
Chile	12 (2.0) ▼	93 (2.3) ▲	51 (4.5)	8 (2.1) ▼	66 (3.9)	29 (3.4) △		
Chinese Taipei	87 (2.7) ▲	37 (4.0) ▼	75 (3.5) ▲	50 (4.0) ▲	88 (2.5) ▲	6 (2.0) ▼		
Colombia	28 (3.6) ▼	90 (2.0) ▲	62 (3.6) △	14 (2.7) ▼	69 (3.3)	36 (4.0) ▲		
Cyprus	*	67 (0.3) ▽	46 (0.3) ▽	6 (0.1) ▼	68 (0.3) ▽	40 (0.3) ▲		
Czech Republic †	96 (1.2) ▲	55 (4.8) ▼	45 (5.5)	4 (1.8) ▼	82 (3.5) ▲	17 (3.2) ▽		
Denmark †	84 (2.9) ▲	92 (2.3) ▲	64 (4.3) △	2 (1.1) ▼	80 (3.6) △	14 (2.9) ▽		
Dominican Republic	49 (5.0)	85 (3.0) △	78 (3.8) ▲	17 (3.7)	68 (6.4)	44 (4.8) ▲		
England ‡	42 (5.0) ▼	61 (4.6) ▼	63 (5.5)	22 (4.5)	73 (4.7)	9 (3.3) ▼		
Estonia	65 (4.2) ▲	68 (4.4) ▽	65 (4.7) △	42 (4.3) ▲	56 (4.7) ▼	9 (3.0) ▼		
Finland	*	97 (1.3) ▲	54 (4.0)	10 (2.3) ▼	48 (3.9) ▼	6 (1.9) ▼		
Greece	9 (2.8) ▼	33 (4.7) ▼	39 (5.0) ▼	10 (2.8) ▼	61 (5.1)	60 (4.6) ▲		
Guatemala ¹	28 (3.7) ▼	95 (2.5) ▲	65 (4.1) ▲	29 (4.4)	69 (4.2)	55 (4.8) ▲		
Indonesia	92 (2.4) ▲	67 (4.1) ▽	62 (4.5)	6 (1.9) ▼	50 (4.4) ▼	9 (2.1) ▼		
Ireland	100 (0.0) ▲	49 (3.9) ▼	24 (3.8) ▼	2 (1.1) ▼	38 (4.2) ▼	6 (1.9) ▼		
Italy	16 (2.6) ▼	93 (2.1) ▲	64 (3.9) △	5 (1.7) ▼	77 (3.1) △	11 (2.7) ▼		
Korea, Republic of ¹	*	97 (1.6) ▲	79 (3.4) ▲	91 (2.3) ▲	89 (2.5) ▲	22 (3.4)		
Latvia	74 (4.0) ▲	95 (1.9) ▲	71 (4.0) ▲	92 (2.4) ▲	84 (2.9) ▲	30 (4.3)		
Liechtenstein	27 (0.3) ▼	100 (0.0) ▲	47 (0.3) ▽	10 (0.1) ▼	60 (0.4) ▼	32 (0.2) △		
Lithuania	*	67 (3.9) ▼	62 (4.2)	86 (2.6) ▲	91 (2.5) ▲	14 (2.8) ▽		
Luxembourg	6 (0.9) ▼	59 (2.1) ▼	30 (1.7) ▼	8 (0.9) ▼	72 (2.2)	75 (1.5) ▲		
Malta	76 (0.6) ▲	50 (0.9) ▼	32 (0.7) ▼	20 (1.0) ▽	75 (0.7) △	28 (0.8) △		
Mexico	65 (3.3) ▲	75 (2.8)	76 (3.2) ▲	8 (1.9) ▼	60 (3.3) ▽	55 (3.5) ▲		
New Zealand †	2 (1.5) ▼	91 (2.6) ▲	31 (4.8) ▼	10 (3.7) ▼	86 (3.1) ▲	20 (3.5)		
Norway †	71 (4.4) ▲	97 (1.5) ▲	41 (4.5) ▼	15 (3.3) ▽	59 (4.9) ▼	2 (1.4) ▼		
Paraguay ¹	79 (3.7) ▲	88 (2.9) ▲	72 (4.2) ▲	12 (2.9) ▼	70 (4.2)	23 (3.8)		

Table 6.15: School approaches to teaching civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of students) (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Students at Schools Where Principals Report that Civic and Civic Education Is ...						
	taught as a separate subject by teachers of civic and citizenship related subjects	taught by teachers of subjects related to human and social sciences	integrated into all subjects taught at school	an extracurricular activity	considered the result of school experience as a whole	not considered a part of the school curriculum	
Poland	82 (3.2) ▲	76 (3.6)	40 (4.1) ▼	4 (1.6) ▼	72 (3.9)	17 (3.2)	
Russian Federation	65 (3.5) ▲	90 (1.9) ▲	43 (3.7) ▼	76 (2.8) ▲	78 (2.9) △	14 (2.6) ▽	
Slovak Republic ²	93 (2.3) ▲	45 (5.0) ▼	45 (4.0) ▽	24 (3.5)	55 (3.9) ▼	20 (4.2)	
Slovenia	70 (3.9) ▲	70 (4.0)	53 (4.6)	2 (1.1) ▼	48 (4.4) ▼	8 (2.3) ▼	
Spain	40 (3.6) ▼	76 (3.4)	63 (3.9) △	3 (1.3) ▼	62 (4.5)	29 (4.2)	
Sweden	36 (4.1) ▼	95 (1.8) ▲	46 (4.2) ▽	17 (3.4) ▽	76 (3.5)	14 (3.3) ▽	
Switzerland †	19 (3.1) ▼	89 (2.9) ▲	19 (4.0) ▼	10 (2.7) ▼	61 (4.4) ▽	12 (3.2) ▼	
Thailand †	57 (4.8)	92 (2.3) ▲	82 (2.9) ▲	38 (4.4) ▲	81 (3.4) ▲	8 (2.2) ▼	
ICCS average	53 (0.6)	77 (0.5)	55 (0.7)	24 (0.5)	70 (0.6)	23 (0.5)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements							
Hong Kong SAR	*	83 (5.3)	82 (5.4)	62 (6.0)	89 (4.1)	5 (1.8)	
Netherlands	*	71 (7.7)	42 (10.2)	27 (6.0)	82 (7.5)	32 (7.3)	
National percentage							

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

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

Notes:

- * Not applicable.
- () 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



In Chinese Taipei, the Czech Republic, Indonesia, Ireland, Malta, Poland, and the Slovak Republic, the prevailing approach was to deliver civic and citizenship education as a separate subject, taught by teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education. Civic and citizenship education as an extracurricular activity was particularly widespread in Latvia, Lithuania, the Republic of Korea, and the Russian Federation.

In Colombia, Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Greece, Guatemala, Luxembourg, and Mexico high percentages of students were attending schools whose principals reported that civic and citizenship education was not regarded as part of the school curriculum for the target grade. However, this reporting may have reflected the principals' subjective perception of the importance of this subject area in the curriculum of their school; it does not necessarily mean that these schools had no provision whatsoever for teaching this subject.

The ICCS teacher questionnaire included a set of items asking teachers how they conceptualized civic and citizenship education, what they saw as its objectives, and how this subject area was being delivered in their schools. In particular, teachers were asked to identify, from among the following goals, what they considered to be the three most important aims 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 participation.

Table 6.16 records that the objectives the teachers considered most relevant to civic and citizenship education were those relating to the development of knowledge and skills such as promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions, developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution, promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities, and promoting students' critical and independent thinking. Among the objectives related to the development of students' sense of responsibility toward specific issues, the teachers in the schools of many of the participating countries chose "promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment" as an important aim of civic and citizenship education.

There were notable differences across the participating countries in teachers' perceptions of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education. The highest percentages of teachers who considered promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities as one of the three most important aims were found in Bulgaria, Chile, the Czech Republic, the Dominican Republic, Estonia, Guatemala, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Malta, Mexico, Paraguay, Poland, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, and Thailand. In contrast, in Cyprus, Finland, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden, the highest percentages were found for promoting students' critical and independent thinking. The aim most frequently chosen by most teachers in Chinese Taipei and Colombia was developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution.

Only minorities of teachers viewed supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia and preparing students for future political participation as



among the three most important objectives of civic and citizenship education. Over 10 percent of teachers in Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden chose the first of these two objectives. More than 10 percent of teachers in Colombia, Guatemala, the Republic of Korea, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Paraguay, and Poland considered the second objective to be one of the three most important aims.

A similar set of items was included in the school questionnaire so that the views of school principals regarding aims could be compared with those of teachers. The data reported in Table 6.17 show that school principals, like teachers, regarded the most relevant aims of civic and citizenship education to be those related to the development of knowledge and skills, especially promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities. In several countries, large percentages of principals identified promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment as an important aim of civic and citizenship education. In these countries, less credence was given to aims related to participation.

A high level of concordance was evident between the principals' and the teachers' opinions. The aims the principals cited as most relevant to civic and citizenship education were the same as those the teachers mentioned. But given these aims related mainly to the development of civic-related knowledge (citizens' rights and responsibilities and civic, political, and social institutions), it is interesting to view the extent to which the teachers felt prepared to teach topics or themes related to such knowledge.

The ICCS national context survey confirmed findings from previous studies (Birzea et al., 2004; Eurydice, 2005) showing that countries differ in the extent to which schools entrust their teachers with responsibility for civic and citizenship education. Extent of trust also seemed to be associated with the nature of the teachers' initial and in-service teacher education (see Chapter 2). When, in CIVED, teachers were asked about their professional development needs, many of the class teachers of civic education said they needed training related to subject-based content associated with this area of education (Losito & Mintrop, 2001).

The ICCS participating countries were offered, as part of the teacher questionnaire, an international option. This consisted of a set of questions administered only to target-grade teachers of subjects that the NRCs identified as directly related to civic and citizenship education. One of these questions asked teachers to indicate how confident they felt ("very confident," "quite confident," "not very confident," "not confident at all") about teaching the following topics:

- Human rights;
- Different cultures and ethnic groups;
- Voting and elections;
- The economy and business;
- Rights and responsibilities at work;
- The global community and international organizations;
- The environment;
- Emigration and immigration;
- Equal opportunities for men and women;
- Citizens' rights and responsibilities;
- The constitution and political systems;
- Media communication;
- Volunteering;
- Legal institutions and courts.



Table 6.16: Teachers' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of teachers)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Who Consider the Following Is 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 competences 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 participation	
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) ▽	
Chile	27 (1.7) ▽	32 (1.8) ▽	21 (1.4)	58 (1.4) ▲	59 (1.6)	16 (1.3)	51 (1.7)	23 (1.7) △	3 (0.5) ▽	8 (1.0)	
Chinese Taipei	28 (1.1) ▽	59 (1.3) ▲	4 (0.4) ▼	63 (1.1) ▲	53 (1.2) ▽	13 (0.8) ▽	58 (1.0) △	17 (1.0)	2 (0.3) ▽	1 (0.2) ▽	
Colombia	34 (1.9)	40 (1.7)	9 (1.0) ▼	73 (1.6) ▲	59 (1.7)	16 (1.3)	36 (1.7) ▼	16 (1.3) ▽	2 (0.6) ▽	12 (1.1) △	
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) ▽	
Dominican Republic	54 (3.9) ▲	42 (2.4)	11 (1.8) ▽	42 (2.5)	72 (2.3) ▲	12 (1.9)	40 (3.0) ▼	9 (1.4) ▽	8 (1.8)	8 (1.3)	
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) ▽	
Guatemala	36 (2.5)	41 (1.9)	17 (1.4) ▽	37 (2.4)	69 (2.5) △	27 (1.5) ▲	33 (2.1) ▼	13 (1.7) ▽	9 (1.1)	15 (1.6) △	
Indonesia	57 (2.2) ▲	22 (1.6) ▼	5 (0.6) ▼	42 (2.6)	75 (1.7) ▲	26 (1.7) ▲	37 (1.9) ▼	23 (1.3) △	8 (1.1)	5 (0.9) ▽	
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) ▽	
Korea, Republic of	42 (1.3) △	33 (1.1) ▽	27 (1.1) △	50 (1.8) △	65 (1.9) △	12 (0.9) ▽	19 (1.0) ▼	35 (1.2) ▲	1 (0.1) ▽	16 (1.0) △	
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) ▽	
Mexico	25 (1.4) ▽	47 (1.7) △	14 (1.2) ▽	58 (2.0) ▲	66 (1.6) △	15 (1.3)	45 (1.7) ▽	17 (1.8)	3 (0.5) ▽	9 (0.9)	
Paraguay	38 (3.0)	47 (2.4) △	10 (1.4) ▼	43 (2.9)	69 (2.0) △	18 (1.8)	47 (2.7)	9 (1.3) ▽	4 (0.8) ▽	14 (1.5) △	
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) △	
Russian Federation	16 (1.1) ▼	52 (1.4) ▲	33 (1.4) ▲	34 (1.2) ▽	76 (0.9) ▲	18 (0.9) △	39 (1.2) ▼	19 (1.6)	3 (0.6) ▽	9 (0.7) △	
Slovak Republic'	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) ▽	
Thailand †	57 (2.0) ▲	33 (1.5) ▽	10 (1.4) ▼	30 (1.9) ▼	78 (1.9) ▲	27 (2.4) ▲	38 (1.8) ▼	20 (1.8)	0 (0.1) ▽	6 (1.0)	
ICCS average	33 (0.4)	41 (0.4)	20 (0.3)	41 (0.4)	60 (0.3)	16 (0.2)	52 (0.3)	19 (0.3)	10 (0.3)	7 (0.2)	

Table 6.16: Teachers' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of teachers) (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Who Consider the Following Is an Important Aim of Civic and Citizenship Education ...									
	promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions	promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment	capacity to defend one's own point of view	developing students' skills and competences 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 participation
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)
Hong Kong SAR	45 (1.4)	48 (1.7)	8 (0.7)	15 (1.1)	64 (1.1)	32 (1.5)	59 (1.5)	24 (1.3)	2 (0.4)	2 (0.5)
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)
New Zealand	19 (1.4)	50 (2.0)	12 (1.0)	34 (1.4)	38 (1.5)	25 (1.4)	74 (1.4)	32 (1.5)	11 (0.9)	4 (0.7)
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 ICCS average
- ▼ Significantly below ICCS average
- △ Significantly above ICCS average
- ▶ More than 10 percentage points below 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.
- ‡ National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 6.17: Principals' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of principals)

Country	Percentages of Principals Who Consider the Following Is 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) ▽	
Chile	27 (4.1) ▼	35 (5.3)	13 (3.7)	49 (5.4) ▲	68 (5.8)	25 (4.9)	47 (4.7)	24 (4.9)	4 (0.4) ▽	11 (3.5)	
Chinese Taipei	34 (6.2)	39 (4.8)	3 (1.4) ▼	45 (6.8) ▲	75 (5.8) △	15 (4.6)	61 (6.3)	25 (5.8)	4 (0.4) ▽	3 (1.6) ▽	
Colombia	34 (4.9)	23 (3.8) ▽	10 (3.5)	73 (4.3) ▲	71 (4.5)	21 (4.0)	27 (4.7) ▼	20 (3.9)	0 (0.0) ▽	19 (3.8)	
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) ▲	
Dominican Republic	70 (5.8) ▲	35 (6.0)	12 (4.1)	30 (6.1)	91 (3.2) ▲	8 (3.3) ▽	31 (4.6) ▼	6 (2.9) ▼	4 (2.7)	11 (4.0)	
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) ▲	
Guatemala ¹	33 (5.4)	31 (4.2)	14 (3.7)	48 (5.4) ▲	79 (5.0) ▲	32 (5.6) ▲	44 (5.1) ▼	6 (2.3) ▼	1 (0.5) ▽	12 (3.2)	
Indonesia	58 (6.5) ▲	57 (5.8) ▲	4 (1.9) ▼	17 (5.0) ▼	78 (5.3) ▲	17 (3.6)	14 (3.8) ▼	34 (6.7) ▲	14 (5.1)	5 (3.2) ▽	
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) ▼	
Korea, Republic of ¹	54 (6.3) ▲	49 (7.2) ▲	21 (4.9)	43 (8.0)	80 (4.5) ▲	7 (2.1) ▼	9 (2.3) ▼	28 (5.2) ▲	2 (1.5) ▽	6 (1.9) ▽	
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) ▼	
Mexico	26 (5.2) ▼	42 (6.6) ▲	11 (3.3)	55 (5.8) ▲	81 (4.2) ▲	19 (5.3)	37 (5.7) ▼	11 (3.9)	1 (1.2) ▽	16 (5.0)	
New Zealand †	31 (4.8) ▼	39 (4.6)	4 (1.9) ▼	23 (4.0) ▼	54 (4.4) ▼	40 (4.1) ▲	72 (4.2) ▲	31 (3.9) ▲	4 (1.8) ▽	2 (1.4) ▽	
Norway †	54 (7.8) ▲	21 (5.9) ▼	8 (2.8) ▽	34 (7.7)	35 (6.4) ▼	22 (3.8)	64 (6.7)	22 (4.1)	31 (8.5) ▲	9 (3.9)	
Paraguay ¹	32 (4.5) ▽	41 (4.4) ▲	12 (3.4)	37 (5.3)	75 (4.4) △	17 (3.8)	57 (4.5)	6 (1.8) ▼	3 (2.0) ▽	19 (4.1)	

Table 6.17: Principals' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of principals) (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Principals Who Consider the Following Is 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 competences 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
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)
Russian Federation	22 (3.5) ▼	23 (4.6)	37 (4.5) ▲	25 (4.0) ▼	76 (3.9) ▲	17 (3.9)	43 (4.7) ▼	27 (3.9) △	3 (2.2)	25 (4.4) ▲
Slovak Republic ²	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) ▲
Thailand †	70 (4.2) ▲	27 (5.8)	12 (4.5)	19 (5.2) ▼	88 (4.5) ▲	27 (7.0)	36 (7.0) ▼	15 (3.3)	.3 (0.3) ▼	5 (2.1) ▼
ICCS average	42 (1.0)	31 (1.0)	15 (0.7)	33 (1.0)	66 (1.0)	18 (0.7)	55 (1.0)	18 (0.8)	8 (0.5)	12 (0.8)
Countries not meeting sampling requirements										
Hong Kong SAR	45 (6.1)	49 (5.9)	5 (2.5)	6 (3.0)	72 (5.5)	40 (5.6)	70 (5.4)	13 (3.6)	.0 (0.0)	.0 (0.0)
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 ICCS average

▼ Significantly below ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 6.18: Teachers' confidence in teaching civic and citizenship education

Country	Percentages of Teachers Who Are Confident or Very Confident in Teaching:						
	Human rights	Different cultural and ethnic groups	Voting and elections	The economy and business	Rights and responsibilities at work	The global community and international organizations	The environment
Bulgaria	89 (2.6)	90 (2.7) △	81 (3.3)	47 (4.5) ▼	90 (2.8)	80 (4.7)	89 (2.1)
Chile	94 (2.3)	92 (2.2) △	89 (3.1)	67 (4.1)	93 (2.4) △	86 (4.3) ▲	89 (3.1)
Chinese Taipei	92 (1.7)	90 (1.7) △	97 (1.3) ▲	78 (3.4) ▲	94 (1.8) △	81 (2.8) △	89 (2.2)
Colombia	98 (1.5) △	86 (3.3)	91 (2.8)	54 (3.8)	96 (0.9) △	69 (4.0)	95 (1.6) △
Cyprus	95 (2.7)	86 (4.2)	78 (5.2)	38 (5.9) ▼	84 (4.7)	73 (5.2)	92 (3.3)
Czech Republic †	96 (1.4) △	80 (3.0)	90 (1.9) △	62 (3.6)	87 (2.5)	80 (3.1)	90 (1.7)
Dominican Republic	93 (2.8)	88 (3.5)	85 (4.1)	62 (5.8)	90 (3.3)	64 (5.5) ▼	92 (3.1)
Finland	83 (1.8) ▽	73 (2.3) ▼	65 (1.9) ▼	50 (2.4) ▼	74 (2.1) ▼	53 (2.4) ▼	87 (1.4) ▽
Indonesia	96 (2.0) △	87 (2.6)	89 (2.6)	78 (3.4) ▲	91 (2.9)	80 (3.6)	95 (2.1)
Ireland ‡	94 (1.8)	78 (3.0)	86 (2.4)	69 (3.2) △	92 (1.4) △	88 (2.0) ▲	96 (1.2) △
Italy	98 (0.5) △	94 (0.8) ▲	87 (1.3)	39 (2.2) ▼	82 (1.9) ▽	86 (1.6) ▲	92 (1.2)
Korea, Republic of	67 (3.8) ▼	58 (3.4) ▼	75 (2.5) ▼	54 (4.0)	80 (2.3) ▽	52 (3.5) ▼	83 (2.1) ▽
Latvia	94 (1.9)	74 (3.2) ▼	83 (3.5)	65 (4.3)	86 (3.4)	64 (4.2) ▼	89 (3.2)
Liechtenstein	85 (7.5)	82 (7.4)	84 (7.5)	66 (9.6)	47 (9.6) ▼	77 (8.8)	82 (7.7)
Lithuania	89 (2.4)	88 (3.0)	82 (3.5)	57 (5.1)	81 (3.2)	91 (2.1) ▲	93 (1.9)
Malta	87 (3.2)	85 (2.9)	73 (3.9) ▼	40 (4.3) ▼	89 (3.0)	63 (4.6) ▼	95 (2.4)
Mexico	95 (1.9)	79 (3.9)	86 (3.5)	59 (4.4)	98 (1.1) ▲	62 (4.9) ▼	97 (1.7) △
Paraguay	97 (1.6) △	91 (3.1) △	96 (1.6) △	67 (5.1)	98 (1.5) ▲	81 (3.4)	100 (0.4) △
Poland	100 (0.0) △	89 (3.4)	97 (1.2) ▲	84 (3.7) ▲	87 (2.9)	90 (3.2) ▲	91 (2.4)
Russian Federation	98 (0.8) △	78 (2.5) ▽	95 (1.2) △	72 (3.1) ▲	93 (1.9) △	79 (2.3)	95 (1.5) △
Slovak Republic ¹	97 (1.1) △	76 (2.9) ▽	85 (2.7)	68 (4.0)	82 (3.0)	68 (3.8)	94 (2.0)
Slovenia	91 (1.8)	83 (1.5)	77 (1.7) ▽	32 (2.5) ▼	81 (1.9) ▽	63 (2.2) ▼	91 (1.2)
Spain	98 (1.3) △	94 (1.9) ▲	90 (2.7)	55 (4.3)	90 (2.3)	88 (2.7) ▲	91 (2.2)
Sweden †	99 (0.7) △	90 (1.8) △	97 (1.0) ▲	80 (2.9) ▲	85 (2.5)	93 (1.7) ▲	86 (2.2) ▽
Thailand †	88 (3.8)	84 (3.3)	95 (2.6) △	68 (4.3)	95 (2.6) △	67 (4.0) ▽	98 (1.1) △
ICCS average	93 (0.5)	84 (0.6)	86 (0.6)	60 (0.9)	87 (0.6)	75 (0.8)	92 (0.5)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Austria	94 (1.7)	78 (4.3)	96 (2.0)	55 (4.3)	65 (4.7)	79 (4.2)	73 (4.2)
Belgium (Flemish)	61 (2.7)	72 (2.8)	55 (2.2)	33 (2.3)	38 (2.3)	54 (2.7)	77 (2.4)
Denmark	93 (1.6)	86 (2.0)	83 (2.6)	54 (3.7)	72 (2.5)	74 (3.3)	76 (3.0)
England	83 (2.2)	80 (2.2)	73 (2.7)	51 (2.8)	72 (2.4)	70 (2.5)	87 (2.0)
Hong Kong SAR	63 (2.8)	66 (3.5)	67 (2.9)	46 (3.3)	78 (2.6)	56 (3.2)	79 (2.2)
New Zealand	96 (1.3)	97 (1.3)	91 (2.2)	57 (3.6)	89 (2.4)	87 (2.6)	94 (1.8)
Norway	96 (1.0)	85 (3.8)	94 (1.8)	71 (7.7)	83 (7.1)	84 (6.9)	95 (1.3)
Switzerland	85 (3.0)	73 (4.5)	91 (2.8)	59 (3.8)	50 (3.6)	72 (5.0)	85 (3.4)

National percentage

▲ More than 10 percentage points above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

▼ More than 10 percentage points below 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 6.18: Teachers' confidence in teaching civic and citizenship education (contd.)

Percentages of Teachers Who Are Confident or Very Confident in Teaching:						
Emigration and immigration	Equal opportunities for men and women	Citizens' rights and responsibilities	The constitution and political systems	Media communication	Volunteering	Legal institutions and courts
86 (3.0) △	88 (2.8)	87 (3.0) ▽	85 (3.3)	73 (4.2) ▼	57 (4.8) ▼	46 (5.5) ▼
92 (2.8) ▲	94 (2.5)	100 (0.3) △	88 (3.9) △	94 (2.0) △	71 (4.6)	68 (4.9)
62 (3.8) ▼	96 (1.3)	96 (1.4)	89 (2.0) △	90 (2.0)	83 (3.1) ▲	83 (3.1) ▲
78 (3.6)	99 (0.5) △	98 (0.9) △	87 (2.7) △	82 (2.7)	68 (4.3)	51 (4.6)
85 (3.6)	96 (2.1)	93 (3.0)	70 (5.6) ▼	91 (3.5)	90 (3.6) ▲	54 (5.2)
77 (3.4)	95 (1.5)	98 (1.1) △	87 (2.7) △	86 (2.5)	63 (3.5) ▽	72 (3.2) ▲
81 (4.0)	90 (3.6)	93 (3.0)	82 (4.1)	90 (3.4)	83 (3.9) ▲	40 (5.9) ▼
61 (2.2) ▼	91 (1.3)	90 (1.2) ▽	54 (2.0) ▼	77 (1.6) ▽	59 (2.1) ▼	51 (2.2) ▽
80 (3.5)	92 (2.4)	99 (0.4) △	85 (2.6)	91 (2.6)	71 (3.5)	79 (3.6) ▲
87 (2.1) △	93 (1.8)	96 (1.2)	80 (2.8)	88 (2.2)	81 (2.0) ▲	68 (3.6) △
94 (0.9) ▲	95 (1.0)	99 (0.4) △	94 (1.0) ▲	94 (1.0) △	78 (1.9) △	41 (2.6) ▼
34 (3.6) ▼	86 (2.3) ▽	90 (1.9) ▽	53 (4.0) ▼	82 (2.1) ▽	66 (2.8)	38 (3.8) ▼
80 (3.3)	92 (2.9)	96 (2.0)	79 (3.3)	97 (1.4) ▲	59 (5.4) ▼	61 (4.2)
65 (10.5) ▼	88 (6.3)	71 (9.2) ▼	77 (8.9)	74 (8.7) ▼	39 (10.5) ▼	37 (9.6) ▼
88 (2.8) △	85 (3.3) ▽	92 (2.3)	71 (4.2) ▽	59 (3.7) ▼	50 (4.1) ▼	55 (3.7)
84 (3.5)	94 (2.3)	88 (3.2) ▽	55 (4.7) ▼	82 (4.0)	85 (3.5) ▲	31 (4.6) ▼
92 (2.3) ▲	99 (0.6) △	99 (0.3) △	76 (4.7)	94 (2.0) △	77 (3.9) △	69 (3.8) △
94 (2.2) ▲	100 (0.2) △	99 (0.5) △	94 (2.5) ▲	96 (1.6) △	94 (2.7) ▲	59 (5.1)
93 (2.8) ▲	94 (2.5)	99 (0.5) △	97 (1.5) ▲	98 (0.8) ▲	82 (3.7) ▲	85 (3.4) ▲
73 (2.7) ▽	98 (0.7) △	98 (0.6) △	97 (1.0) ▲	94 (1.7) △	67 (3.8)	75 (3.6) ▲
54 (4.4) ▼	84 (3.0) ▽	95 (1.4)	83 (2.7)	88 (2.3)	50 (4.2) ▼	65 (3.3)
66 (2.1) ▼	92 (0.9)	93 (1.0)	72 (1.8) ▽	80 (1.7) ▽	73 (1.8)	40 (3.2) ▼
92 (2.1) ▲	99 (1.1) △	98 (1.2) △	84 (3.1)	91 (2.6)	78 (4.0) △	58 (4.3)
95 (1.3) ▲	96 (1.0) △	99 (0.7) △	94 (1.5) ▲	92 (2.3) △	56 (3.1) ▼	89 (2.7) ▲
74 (2.8)	94 (2.9)	95 (2.7)	80 (5.1)	73 (4.5) ▼	56 (4.0) ▼	73 (4.2) ▲
79 (0.7)	93 (0.5)	94 (0.5)	81 (0.7)	86 (0.6)	69 (0.8)	59 (0.9)

75 (4.1)	87 (3.0)	90 (3.3)	94 (2.4)	91 (2.5)	64 (5.1)	64 (4.3)
56 (2.9)	64 (2.4)	60 (2.3)	41 (2.1)	77 (2.3)	46 (2.2)	26 (2.1)
81 (2.9)	89 (1.9)	88 (1.6)	84 (2.3)	87 (2.0)	60 (3.2)	68 (2.3)
66 (2.7)	86 (2.1)	82 (2.4)	53 (2.9)	80 (2.0)	71 (2.2)	41 (3.0)
44 (3.0)	81 (2.1)	82 (2.1)	41 (3.0)	77 (2.9)	73 (3.0)	35 (2.6)
94 (1.7)	96 (1.4)	93 (1.9)	79 (3.4)	77 (3.7)	72 (4.1)	67 (3.7)
96 (1.5)	99 (0.6)	96 (1.8)	89 (2.6)	89 (6.9)	78 (7.5)	78 (7.7)
69 (4.8)	81 (3.1)	86 (3.2)	85 (3.2)	69 (4.9)	44 (4.1)	39 (5.0)



The differences across countries evident in Table 6.18 with respect to the national percentages of teachers who felt confident or very confident about teaching topics relating to civic and citizenship education may be a product of the countries' different approaches to this area of educational provision.

On average, teachers were most confident about teaching topics relating to citizens' rights and responsibilities (94%), human rights (93%), equal opportunities for men and women (93%), and the environment (92%). In all countries but three, the percentages for these topics did not fall below 85 percent. The exceptions were the Republic of Korea in relation to human rights and the environment, Liechtenstein in relation to the environment and citizens' rights and responsibilities, and Finland in relation to human rights.

On average, the topic that teachers across the participating countries felt least confident about was institutions and courts (59%). The only countries outside this trend were Chinese Taipei, Poland, and Sweden, where the percentage of teachers feeling confident about institutions and courts was just above 80 percent. Teachers also expressed, on average, lower levels of confidence with respect to the economy and business (60%) and volunteering (69%). Only two countries—Poland and Sweden—had percentages equal to or higher than 80 percent for the economy and business. Seven countries recorded percentages higher than 80 percent for volunteering. They were Chinese Taipei, Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Ireland, Malta, Paraguay, and Poland.

Teachers' relative lack of confidence in relation to topics such as the economy and business and legal institutions and courts may be because these require knowledge of subjects such as laws and economics that are not included in the school curriculum of many ICCS countries at the target-grade level. These subjects are also ones that teachers are very unlikely to encounter during their pre- or in-service teacher training. These "confidence" results are similar to those observed in CIVED. The teachers surveyed during that study who were responsible for teaching civics and citizenship also tended to express lower levels of confidence about teaching topics related to economics, legal institutions, and courts.

Summary of findings

ICCS collected data on school and community contexts through surveys of students, teachers, and school principals regarding different factors relevant to student learning in civic and citizenship education. These factors related to how civic and citizenship education was implemented in the school curriculum, how the aims of this area of education were viewed, how civic and citizenship education linked in with the local community, and how school and classroom climate related to student learning and to students' overall experience at school.

According to the teachers' and principals' reports, participation by the target-grade students in civic-related activities in the community was relatively widespread across the ICCS countries. The activities attracting the highest levels of participation were sports and cultural events. Participation in national campaigns relating to specific issues (such as World AIDS Day and World No Tobacco Day) along with activities in the local area focusing on the environment also appeared to be fairly widespread. Only minorities of teachers and principals reported student involvement in human rights projects or activities to help the underprivileged.

In many of the participating countries, students attending schools where principals identified the local community as relatively well resourced and with a low incidence of social problems were the students who attained the higher civic knowledge scores. However, the differences in scores between this group of students and students from less well-resourced and more problem-prone communities were only small to moderate.



Analysis of the relevant data showed that schools use different approaches to teaching civic and citizenship education, and that these approaches often have minimal connection to how this area of learning is defined in the curriculum of the particular education system. There was also evidence of different approaches to civic education coexisting within the same school. Generally, only minorities of ICCS students were attending schools where principals reported no specific provision for civic and citizenship education in the curriculum.

In terms of the aims of civic and citizenship education, most teachers regarded the development of knowledge and skills as the most important aim. Teachers tended to regard aims relating to students' active participation in school life and their future participation in political life as relatively less important. School principals shared the teachers' views with respect to the relative importance of the various aims.

Like their counterparts in the IEA CIVED survey of 1999, the ICCS teachers generally felt most confident about teaching topics related to citizens' rights and responsibilities and to human rights. They were less confident about teaching topics related to the economy and business and to legal institutions and courts.

The ICCS students reported that activities receptive of (open to) discussions of political and social issues occurred at least sometimes during their regular classroom lessons. As occurred in CIVED, noticeable gender differences emerged with respect to perception of an open classroom climate. Females were more likely than males to see their classrooms as open to discussions of political and social issues. Teachers' reports made apparent the considerable variation across countries in the extent to which students actively participated in specified classroom activities.



CHAPTER 7:

Influences of family background on some outcomes of civic and citizenship education

The influence of family background on educational outcomes such as achievement and attainment has been widely explored in research literature. Much of this material has focused on the association between student achievement in various areas of educational achievement (e.g., reading, mathematics, and science) and students' socioeconomic backgrounds (Sirin, 2005; Woessmann, 2004). However, an important but less extensive body of literature is also relevant. It is concerned with the influence of immigrant status and language use on student achievement (Kao, 2004; Kao & Thompson, 2003). One of the theories connecting these two bodies of research literature draws attention to the opportunities that young people have within their homes and communities to develop expertise in educational outcomes of interest (Bankston, 2004; Kahne & Spote, 2008; Marjoribanks, 2003). This view of family background incorporates the detailed aspects of family background that are evident in everyday interactions between parents and their children.

Research over the past decade has emphasized cross-national variation in the influence of family background on educational outcomes. Although the direction of the association between achievement and aspects of family background, such as socioeconomic status or immigrant status, is the same in most countries, the strength of that association differs considerably (Woessmann, 2004). A number of researchers suggest that this variation is associated with differences in the formation of educational aspirations and in the opportunities accorded to students across national school systems (Buchmann & Dalton, 2002; Goldenberg, Gallimore, Reese, & Garnier, 2001).

In the field of civic and citizenship education, research findings often emphasize the role that family background plays in developing positive attitudes toward engagement by and participation of young people in civic activity (Bengston, Biblarz, & Roberts, 2002; Grusec & Kuczynski, 1997; Janoski & Wilson, 1995; Renshon, 1975; Vollebergh, Iedema, & Raaijmakers, 2001). There is general consensus in the literature that family background plays an important role in the political development of adolescents (Sherrod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010). More specifically, the role of family background appears to be influential with respect to providing a more or less stimulating environment and in enhancing or diminishing the educational attainment and future prospects of adolescents—factors that, in turn, foster political involvement among individuals.

ICCS Research Question 6 asked, “What aspects of student personal and social background, such as gender, socioeconomic background, and language background, are related to student civic and citizenship knowledge about, and attitudes toward, civic and citizenship education.” We explore, in this chapter, the influence of key aspects of family background on students' civic knowledge and interest in politics and social issues. We discussed the influence of gender on civic knowledge in Chapter 3 and its association with attitudes and engagement in Chapters 4 and 5.

Our review of this influence involved comparing averages of civic knowledge scores across categories of indicator variables and estimating (single-level) regression models to obtain measures of effect sizes. We also conducted (single-level) multiple regression models in order to examine the combined influence and the net effects of family background variables on students' civic knowledge and interest in political and social issues.



Measuring and analyzing the influences of family background

Measuring family background in an international context is challenging (Buchmann, 2002). The first challenge is that of choosing which aspects of family background to measure. In ICCS, we focused on three aspects of family background that have an established background of use as predictors of educational outcomes: ethnic and cultural background, socioeconomic background, and home orientation with respect to political and social issues. The second challenge is choosing indicators. The ones we chose were cultural background (indicated by immigrant status and language spoken at home), socioeconomic background (indicated by parental occupational status, parental educational attainment, and home literacy resources), and home orientation toward political and social issues (indicated by the extent of reported parental interest in social and political issues and reported frequency with which parents spoke with their children about those matters).

We based immigrant status on the birthplace of the student¹ and his or her parents. We then used these data to form a trichotomous measure wherein students were classified as follows:

- Students with no immigrant background;
- Students who were born in the country but whose parents were born abroad; and
- Students who reported that they and their parents had been born in another country.²

We generated, on average, across the ICCS countries, valid data for 97 percent of participating students.

We indicated language background according to the students' reports of whether they and their family spoke the test language or another language as the main language at home. Valid data were generated for 99 percent of students.

To indicate socioeconomic background, we referenced parental occupational status, parental education, and the number of books in the home. We coded parental occupations, as reported by students, in response to constructed-response questions, according to the ISCO-88 classification (International Labour Organisation, 1990). We then transformed this classification into a score on the International Socio-economic Index (SEI) of occupational status (Ganzenboom, de Graaf, & Trieman, 1992). When students provided data for two parents, we used the highest SEI score as an indicator of parental occupational status.

The SEI scale is continuous and ranges from 16 to 90. For some analyses, we divided the SEI scale into three categories based on international cut-off points indicating "low occupational status" (below 40 score points), "medium occupational status" (40 to 59 score points), and "high occupational status" (60 score points or more). On average, across ICCS countries, we generated valid SEI scores for 96 percent of the participating students.

In order to measure the educational attainment of each parent, we used pre-defined categories denoting educational levels in each country. These categories were constructed with reference to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) and consisted of "ISCED 5A or 6," "ISCED 4 or 5B," "ISCED 3," "ISCED 2," "ISCED 1," and "Did not complete ISCED 1" (OECD, 1999; UNESCO, 2006). When students provided data for both their parents, we used the highest ISCED level as the indicator of parental educational attainment. On average, across the ICCS countries, we generated valid parental education data for 98 percent of students.



1 Students who were not proficient in the test language were excluded from the ICCS survey.

2 Students who were born abroad but had at least one parent born in the country of the test were treated as students with no immigrant background. Students with missing information for one parent were classified according to the data for the other parent. Students with no data on their own country of birth received a missing value for this variable.

For home literacy resources, we used students' reports of number of books (broken down into six categories) in the home. The categories were "0 to 10 books," "11 to 25 books," "26 to 100 books," "101 to 200 books," "201 to 500 books," and "more than 500 books." We generated valid data for 99 percent of the ICCS students. For some analyses, we generated a variable in which number of books in the home was scaled in units of 100 books.

We used two variables to indicate home orientation toward political and social issues. The first related to student reports of their parents' level of interest in social and political issues (response categories were "not interested at all," "not very interested," "quite interested," "very interested") and the second to students' reports of how frequently they spoke with their parents about political and social issues ("never or hardly ever," "monthly," "weekly," "daily or almost daily"). When conducting some analyses, we used a dichotomous variable of parental interest—"not interested at all or not very interested" and "quite interested or very interested." For reporting purposes, we collapsed frequency of talking with parents about social and political issues into three categories—"never or hardly ever," "monthly," and "at least weekly."

In this chapter, we report the association of each of these measures of family background with civic knowledge separately. We then report the results of the student-level regression analyses that we conducted in order to examine the combined influence and the net effects of these measures.³

Because we replicated each analysis for each participating country, we were able to compare the strength of the relationships between outcomes and background measures across the participating ICCS systems. The results allowed us not only to observe the general patterns but also to examine the extent to which the strength of the relationships varied among countries. We were also, through a combined analysis, able to consider the influences of family background on student interest in political and social issues.

Immigrant status, language use, and civic knowledge

International studies often confirm the influence of language and immigrant status on student performance in reading (see, for example, Elley, 1992; Stanat & Christensen, 2006) and mathematics (Mullis, Martin, Kennedy, & Foy, 2007). Students from immigrant families, especially those families recently arrived in a country, tend to lack proficiency in the language of instruction and to be unfamiliar with the cultural norms of the dominant culture. Also, ethnic minorities often have a lower socioeconomic status, which tends to correlate negatively with learning and engagement. There is also evidence that immigrant status and language have a unique impact on student literacy (Lehmann, 1996) and on some aspects of civic engagement (Sherrod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010).

Immigrant status

As we noted above, we based our analyses relating to immigrant status on a trichotomous measure that used student and parental places of birth. In addition to exploring the differences among the three categories ("students with no immigrant background," "students born in country but parents born abroad," "both students and parents born abroad"), we collapsed the latter two to form a variable with two categories (0 signified students with no immigrant background and 1 signified students with an immigrant background) as a predictor in our regression analyses.

³ The standard errors estimated in regression analyses are based on replication methods (jackknife) that allow for the clustered sample design of students sampled within schools. However, because no school or system-level variables were included in these analyses, we considered a hierarchical regression inappropriate.



In some countries, only very small percentages of students could be classified as having an immigrant background. We therefore report results only for those situations in which there were more than 50 students in this category.⁴ We did this to ensure that our report would not be based on small idiosyncratic groups of students that may not be typical of immigrant students in general. However, we used data from all participating countries to compute ICCS averages.

Table 7.1 shows that, on average across the ICCS countries, 92 percent of students could be classified as students without an immigrant background. Five percent were students whose parents had been born abroad and a further four percent were students who, along with their parents, had been born in another country. There was considerable variation across countries: Luxembourg had the highest percentage of students with an immigrant background—43 percent. These percentages included students born in the country but whose parents were born abroad as well as students who, and like their parents, had been born in another country. High percentages of students from immigrant families were also found in Liechtenstein, Switzerland, and New Zealand, with 34 percent, 24 percent, and 23 percent respectively. In contrast, several countries had very few students with an immigrant background.

Students from a non-immigrant background typically scored higher than students with an immigrant background on the civic knowledge scale. As is evident in Table 7.1, the ICCS average for the difference was 37 scale points and the effect was statistically significant in 21 out of the 36 countries. However, the difference accounted for an average of less than two percent of the within-country variance in student scores. There were also differences among the three categories of students. In general, non-immigrant students scored higher (the ICCS average was 505 points) than students with parents who had been born abroad (the ICCS average was 476 points). The latter group of students, in turn, scored higher than students who were born abroad (the ICCS average was 464 points).

Although the size of this difference varied across countries, in nearly all systems students without an immigrant background had scores that were either higher than or not significantly different from the scores of students from immigrant families. Among those countries with a sufficient number of immigrant students to provide a reliable estimate, the largest difference was 67 scale points in Denmark, followed by Mexico, where the difference was 62 scale points, and a number of systems where the difference was between 50 and 60 scale points.

Home language

Within the research literature, language background is a well-established predictor of achievement in a number of fields (Mullis, Martin, Kennedy, & Foy, 2007). Language background is believed to mediate the way students interpret and respond to assessments and to influence students' capacity to access what they have learned (e.g., about civics and citizenship) when taking a test in a language that may or may not be their mother tongue. Language background also often reflects students' cultural and ethnic backgrounds, variables known to influence achievement in the ways outlined above.

Table 7.2 shows the percentages of students who reported that they spoke the test language, or another language, at home. The table also shows the average civic knowledge scores for each group as well as the differences and the variance in civic knowledge scores that was explained by language use. Because civic knowledge scores were reported only for country sub-samples with more than 50 students, no comparisons were made for Chile, the Republic of Korea, and Poland.⁵



4 It was possible for countries to have more than 50 students in the overall category of immigrant background but fewer than 50 students in each of the sub-categories (parents born in another country or both parents and students born in another country). Consequently, the data we report may be for the overall category and the corresponding regression analyses, but not for the sub-categories.

5 For Luxembourg, the national language, Luxembourgish, was not coded in the same way as the test languages, which were German or French.

Table 7.1: Percentages of students in categories of immigrant background and its effect on civic knowledge

Country	Students with No Immigrant Background		Students Born in Country with Parents Born Abroad		Students Born in Another Country with Parents Born Abroad		Effect Of Immigrant Status (Native Students Versus Other Students) on Civic Knowledge	
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Difference in score points*	Variance explained
Austria	81 (1.5)	516 (4.0)	13 (1.0)	464 (6.9)	7 (0.8)	451 (9.5)	-57 (6.4)	5 (1.3)
Belgium (Flemish) †	89 (1.2)	520 (4.7)	6 (0.8)	477 (6.3)	5 (0.5)	482 (9.2)	-41 (7.0)	2 (0.8)
Bulgaria	99 (0.2)	469 (5.0)	0 (0.1)	^	0 (0.1)	^	^	^
Chile	99 (0.1)	484 (3.5)	0 (0.1)	^	0 (0.1)	^	^	^
Chinese Taipei	99 (0.1)	560 (2.4)	1 (0.1)	^	0 (0.1)	^	^	^
Colombia	99 (0.1)	463 (3.0)	0 (0.1)	^	0 (0.1)	^	^	^
Cyprus	93 (0.5)	457 (2.4)	1 (0.2)	^	6 (0.5)	427 (9.1)	-28 (8.1)	1 (0.4)
Czech Republic †	98 (0.3)	511 (2.3)	1 (0.2)	^	1 (0.2)	497 (14.5)	-15 (10.5)	0 (0.1)
Denmark †	91 (0.8)	584 (3.5)	6 (0.6)	516 (10.0)	3 (0.4)	520 (11.5)	-67 (8.3)	4 (0.9)
Dominican Republic	98 (0.3)	382 (2.4)	1 (0.2)	^	1 (0.2)	^	-29 (7.4)	0 (0.2)
England ‡	85 (1.9)	524 (4.0)	9 (1.3)	526 (10.4)	6 (0.9)	477 (13.8)	-18 (9.7)	0 (0.4)
Estonia	93 (0.5)	529 (4.7)	6 (0.5)	483 (11.7)	1 (0.2)	^	-44 (11.2)	1 (0.7)
Finland	98 (0.5)	579 (2.3)	1 (0.3)	^	1 (0.3)	^	-63 (11.0)	1 (0.6)
Greece	89 (1.0)	483 (4.4)	4 (0.4)	450 (9.8)	8 (0.8)	419 (10.7)	-54 (8.6)	3 (1.0)
Guatemala ¹	98 (0.4)	437 (3.8)	1 (0.3)	^	1 (0.1)	^	-9 (12.8)	0 (0.1)
Indonesia	99 (0.3)	435 (3.4)	0 (0.1)	^	1 (0.2)	^	-44 (10.5)	1 (0.3)
Ireland	88 (1.1)	541 (4.6)	1 (0.2)	^	11 (1.1)	493 (8.0)	-43 (7.7)	2 (0.7)
Italy	93 (0.8)	536 (3.3)	2 (0.2)	^	6 (0.6)	485 (10.4)	-46 (9.0)	2 (0.8)
Korea, Republic of ¹	100 (0.0)	566 (1.9)	0 (0.0)	^	0 (0.0)	^	^	^
Latvia	95 (0.7)	483 (3.9)	4 (0.6)	477 (11.7)	1 (0.2)	^	-8 (12.9)	0 (0.1)
Liechtenstein	66 (2.5)	552 (5.4)	17 (1.8)	489 (12.1)	17 (2.1)	520 (11.6)	-47 (10.4)	6 (2.5)
Lithuania	98 (0.2)	506 (2.8)	1 (0.2)	481 (13.4)	0 (0.1)	^	-24 (10.8)	0 (0.1)
Luxembourg	57 (1.1)	501 (2.5)	28 (1.2)	447 (5.4)	15 (0.6)	439 (4.5)	-56 (4.4)	9 (1.3)
Malta	98 (0.3)	492 (4.4)	1 (0.2)	^	1 (0.3)	^	^	^
Mexico	98 (0.2)	455 (2.8)	1 (0.2)	399 (13.9)	1 (0.1)	^	-62 (8.4)	1 (0.3)
New Zealand †	77 (1.5)	525 (5.0)	8 (0.6)	499 (7.6)	15 (1.2)	509 (9.1)	-19 (6.3)	1 (0.4)
Norway †	90 (1.4)	523 (3.6)	6 (1.0)	484 (7.6)	4 (0.6)	456 (11.0)	-51 (7.6)	3 (0.9)
Paraguay ¹	98 (0.4)	425 (3.4)	1 (0.3)	^	1 (0.2)	^	-2 (12.5)	0 (0.0)
Poland	99 (0.2)	537 (4.7)	1 (0.2)	^	0 (0.1)	^	^	^
Russian Federation	94 (0.5)	507 (3.7)	3 (0.3)	510 (11.2)	3 (0.4)	486 (10.9)	-9 (7.8)	0 (0.1)
Slovak Republic ²	99 (0.2)	530 (4.5)	0 (0.1)	^	0 (0.1)	^	^	^
Slovenia	90 (0.9)	520 (2.8)	8 (0.8)	489 (5.6)	2 (0.2)	460 (14.4)	-36 (5.6)	2 (0.5)
Spain	89 (1.2)	511 (4.1)	2 (0.3)	497 (12.7)	9 (1.1)	455 (8.9)	-48 (8.5)	3 (1.2)
Sweden	86 (1.2)	547 (3.5)	9 (0.9)	497 (6.7)	5 (0.5)	479 (8.5)	-56 (6.7)	4 (1.0)
Switzerland †	76 (1.7)	545 (4.1)	16 (1.4)	500 (5.7)	8 (0.7)	497 (7.8)	-46 (5.7)	6 (1.2)
Thailand †	99 (0.6)	454 (3.6)	1 (0.5)	^	0 (0.1)	^	-5 (14.7)	0 (0.0)
ICCS average	92 (0.2)	505 (0.6)	5 (0.1)	476 (2.5)	4 (0.1)	464 (3.5)	-37 (2.3)	2 (0.1)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	64 (1.7)	548 (5.7)	20 (1.0)	574 (6.6)	16 (1.6)	553 (9.9)	-17 (5.7)	1 (0.5)
Netherlands	87 (2.2)	498 (7.3)	9 (1.9)	445 (15.5)	4 (0.6)	483 (15.6)	43 (12.8)	2 (1.6)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

On average, across the ICCS countries, 13 percent of students spoke a language at home other than the language of the test.⁶ Across the countries, the average civic knowledge score of students who spoke a language other than the test language at home was 46 points (or nearly half of a standard deviation) lower than the average score of the other students. Home language accounted, on average, for about three percent of the within-country variance in civic knowledge scores. The largest difference was 103 scale points in Bulgaria followed by the Liechtenstein, where the difference was 98 scale points. In Malta, the direction of the difference was the reverse of the direction in other countries. In that country, students who spoke a language other than the test language at home recorded civic knowledge scores that were 21 scale points higher than the scores of the other students.

Summary of immigrant status and home language effects

We found significant associations between both of these variables and civic knowledge scores. In almost all of the participating countries, the civic knowledge scores of students without an immigrant background were either higher than or not significantly different from the scores of students from immigrant families. The average size of the difference was 37 scale points. In 28 countries, students who mainly spoke the test language at home scored significantly higher on the civic knowledge assessment than did other students. The average size of the difference was 46 scale points. No significant differences were evident in six countries; in one country, the difference was reversed.

Socioeconomic background and civic knowledge

Socioeconomic background is a construct that is usually viewed as being manifest in occupation, education, and wealth (Hauser, 1994). It is widely regarded internationally as an important correlate of a range of learning outcomes (Sirin, 2005; Woessmann, 2004). Caveats relating to the validity and cross-national comparability of socioeconomic background measures are typically imposed on researchers conducting international studies (Buchmann, 2002). In this report, we focus on the results of within-country analyses.

Our analyses of the relationship between socioeconomic background and civic knowledge were based on three indicators of this background: parental occupational status, parental educational attainment, and home literacy resources. We found moderate correlations between parental occupational status and parental educational attainment; the average within-country correlation coefficient between these two indicators was 0.50. The correlation between these two indicators and the index of home literacy resources was less strong. The average within-country correlation coefficients were 0.32 (home literacy resources with parental occupational status) and 0.34 (home literacy resources with parental educational attainment). These data suggest that the measure of home literacy resources is capturing something about family background that differs from what is denoted by parental occupational status and parental educational attainment.

Parental occupational status

Table 7.3 shows the percentages for each category of parental occupational status. On average, across countries, 36 percent of students had parents in occupations classified as low status, 40 percent medium status, and 23 percent high occupational status. Civic knowledge was strongly associated with parental occupational status in all countries. The difference, on average, between students with parents in the high occupational status category and students with parents in the low category was about 72 scale points. However, the extent of this difference varied considerably across the ICCS countries.



⁶ This is higher than the percentage of immigrant students because a number of countries had students who had been born in that country but who spoke a language other than the test language at home.

Table 7.2: Percentages of students in categories of home language and its effect on civic knowledge

Country	Test Language Not Spoken at Home		Test Language Spoken at Home		Effect of Language Use on Civic Knowledge	
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Difference in score points*	Variance explained
Austria	16 (1.2)	445 (5.6)	84 (1.2)	515 (3.7)	70 (5.5)	7 (1.2)
Belgium (Flemish) †	11 (1.3)	458 (7.1)	89 (1.3)	522 (4.5)	64 (7.6)	6 (1.3)
Bulgaria	12 (1.3)	376 (7.9)	88 (1.3)	479 (5.0)	103 (8.5)	10 (1.7)
Chile	1 (0.2)	^	99 (0.2)	484 (3.5)	^	^
Chinese Taipei	17 (1.0)	521 (4.8)	83 (1.0)	567 (2.6)	46 (5.2)	3 (0.8)
Colombia	1 (0.1)	463 (11.1)	99 (0.1)	462 (2.9)	-1 (10.9)	0 (0.0)
Cyprus	7 (0.5)	413 (7.2)	93 (0.5)	458 (2.4)	45 (6.9)	2 (0.5)
Czech Republic †	2 (0.2)	496 (12.8)	98 (0.2)	511 (2.3)	15 (12.3)	0 (0.1)
Denmark †	5 (0.5)	535 (9.7)	95 (0.5)	581 (3.6)	46 (9.4)	1 (0.4)
Dominican Republic	2 (0.3)	380 (11.7)	98 (0.3)	381 (2.4)	1 (11.6)	0 (0.0)
England ‡	8 (1.1)	483 (10.9)	92 (1.1)	523 (4.2)	40 (10.1)	1 (0.6)
Estonia	4 (0.5)	474 (11.3)	96 (0.5)	529 (4.5)	55 (11.6)	1 (0.6)
Finland	4 (0.6)	533 (10.5)	96 (0.6)	579 (2.3)	46 (9.6)	1 (0.5)
Greece	6 (0.7)	410 (11.4)	94 (0.7)	480 (4.3)	70 (11.0)	3 (1.0)
Guatemala ¹	5 (1.0)	381 (10.8)	95 (1.0)	438 (3.8)	57 (11.2)	3 (1.2)
Indonesia	63 (2.1)	433 (3.6)	37 (2.1)	433 (6.3)	0 (6.9)	0 (0.1)
Ireland	10 (1.2)	497 (10.9)	90 (1.2)	538 (4.6)	41 (10.8)	1 (0.7)
Italy	6 (0.6)	475 (10.3)	94 (0.6)	535 (3.3)	60 (10.3)	3 (1.0)
Korea, Republic of ¹	0 (0.1)	^	100 (0.1)	565 (1.9)	^	^
Latvia	9 (1.4)	440 (8.7)	91 (1.4)	486 (3.9)	47 (8.3)	3 (1.1)
Liechtenstein	15 (1.5)	451 (13.0)	85 (1.5)	548 (4.1)	98 (14.9)	14 (3.9)
Lithuania	4 (1.1)	469 (12.2)	96 (1.1)	507 (2.9)	38 (12.6)	1 (0.8)
Luxembourg	93 (0.5)	473 (2.4)	7 (0.5)	490 (6.8)	17 (7.2)	0 (0.2)
Malta	15 (0.8)	508 (6.1)	85 (0.8)	487 (5.0)	-21 (7.1)	1 (0.4)
Mexico	3 (0.8)	393 (14.9)	97 (0.8)	454 (2.7)	61 (15.3)	2 (0.9)
New Zealand †	9 (0.8)	465 (8.9)	91 (0.8)	523 (4.9)	58 (8.5)	2 (0.7)
Norway †	9 (1.1)	468 (7.4)	91 (1.1)	520 (3.5)	52 (7.5)	2 (0.8)
Paraguay ¹	38 (2.2)	383 (4.5)	62 (2.2)	449 (3.7)	66 (5.7)	13 (1.9)
Poland	1 (0.3)	^	99 (0.3)	537 (4.7)	^	^
Russian Federation	8 (1.8)	464 (5.6)	92 (1.8)	510 (3.9)	46 (5.9)	2 (0.7)
Slovak Republic ²	5 (1.1)	456 (16.2)	95 (1.1)	532 (4.4)	77 (16.5)	3 (1.6)
Slovenia	6 (0.6)	472 (7.8)	94 (0.6)	520 (2.6)	48 (7.6)	2 (0.6)
Spain	19 (1.5)	487 (9.5)	81 (1.5)	509 (4.3)	22 (9.8)	1 (0.8)
Sweden	11 (1.1)	485 (6.4)	89 (1.1)	545 (3.3)	60 (6.9)	4 (0.9)
Switzerland †	20 (1.3)	494 (4.9)	80 (1.3)	543 (4.5)	49 (7.3)	6 (1.6)
Thailand †	5 (0.9)	423 (9.8)	95 (0.9)	453 (3.7)	31 (9.5)	1 (0.4)
ICCS average	13 (0.2)	460 (1.8)	87 (0.2)	505 (0.7)	46 (1.9)	3 (0.2)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements						
Hong Kong SAR	6 (0.7)	548 (11.6)	94 (0.7)	554 (5.8)	6 (9.7)	0 (0.1)
Netherlands	11 (1.5)	480 (12.8)	89 (1.5)	497 (7.0)	17 (10.8)	2 (0.6)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 7.3: Percentages of students in categories of parental occupational status and its effect on civic knowledge

Country	Low Occupational Status (SEI below 40)		Medium Occupational Status (SEI 40 to 59)		High Occupational Status (SEI 60 and above)		Effect of SEI on Civic Knowledge	
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Difference in score points for one standard deviation in SEI*	Variance explained
Austria	32 (1.3)	473 (5.1)	48 (1.3)	513 (3.9)	20 (0.9)	548 (6.0)	31 (0.8)	9 (1.5)
Belgium (Flemish) †	27 (1.6)	478 (5.4)	47 (1.4)	516 (4.3)	26 (2.1)	554 (5.1)	30 (0.9)	12 (1.8)
Bulgaria	37 (1.7)	420 (5.0)	43 (1.1)	486 (5.0)	21 (1.4)	536 (6.9)	48 (1.3)	20 (2.2)
Chile	50 (1.6)	458 (3.5)	34 (1.1)	496 (3.8)	15 (1.1)	545 (4.4)	33 (0.5)	13 (1.5)
Chinese Taipei	40 (1.2)	536 (3.0)	44 (0.9)	569 (2.8)	16 (0.9)	610 (4.0)	31 (0.8)	9 (1.1)
Colombia	49 (1.5)	445 (3.2)	35 (1.0)	471 (3.1)	16 (1.0)	502 (5.0)	22 (0.7)	8 (1.1)
Cyprus	26 (0.9)	427 (3.6)	48 (0.9)	458 (3.0)	26 (0.9)	491 (3.6)	26 (0.4)	7 (0.9)
Czech Republic †	35 (1.0)	483 (2.6)	47 (0.9)	515 (2.6)	18 (0.9)	558 (4.8)	33 (0.7)	10 (1.2)
Denmark †	24 (1.1)	535 (4.9)	43 (0.8)	573 (3.6)	32 (1.2)	620 (4.1)	33 (0.7)	11 (1.2)
Dominican Republic	46 (1.3)	372 (2.7)	33 (1.0)	389 (3.4)	21 (1.1)	397 (4.1)	10 (0.7)	3 (0.8)
England ‡	29 (1.1)	477 (5.0)	44 (1.1)	524 (4.0)	27 (1.2)	576 (7.7)	42 (1.6)	15 (2.1)
Estonia	29 (1.4)	491 (4.9)	43 (1.4)	525 (4.4)	28 (1.6)	571 (6.3)	33 (0.5)	12 (1.9)
Finland	30 (1.1)	554 (3.2)	40 (0.9)	574 (2.7)	30 (1.1)	607 (3.9)	21 (0.7)	6 (1.1)
Greece	31 (1.3)	448 (4.8)	41 (1.2)	477 (4.4)	28 (1.4)	519 (6.5)	29 (1.1)	9 (1.6)
Guatemala ¹	63 (2.0)	420 (3.3)	30 (1.4)	456 (4.7)	7 (1.1)	499(14.4)	33 (1.0)	13 (3.4)
Indonesia	59 (1.3)	421 (3.1)	24 (1.1)	452 (5.2)	17 (0.9)	454 (6.0)	16 (0.5)	5 (1.5)
Ireland	29 (1.2)	495 (6.0)	45 (0.9)	541 (4.6)	27 (1.1)	577 (4.2)	34 (1.2)	11 (1.5)
Italy	38 (1.6)	498 (3.9)	43 (1.1)	542 (3.0)	19 (1.1)	576 (4.3)	31 (0.5)	12 (1.3)
Korea, Republic of ¹	24 (0.8)	543 (3.9)	48 (0.8)	567 (2.1)	27 (0.9)	591 (2.9)	20 (1.1)	5 (0.9)
Latvia	32 (1.3)	462 (4.7)	41 (1.0)	486 (4.2)	26 (1.3)	504 (5.4)	16 (0.7)	4 (1.1)
Liechtenstein	22 (1.9)	465 (9.1)	47 (2.9)	539 (6.6)	31 (2.3)	577 (6.7)	42 (0.9)	20 (3.8)
Lithuania	34 (1.4)	480 (3.0)	39 (1.0)	508 (3.0)	27 (1.5)	538 (4.1)	25 (0.4)	9 (1.3)
Luxembourg	41 (1.0)	438 (3.5)	40 (0.9)	488 (2.7)	19 (0.5)	537 (3.2)	38 (0.6)	16 (1.3)
Malta	43 (1.4)	469 (5.5)	36 (1.0)	500 (5.6)	21 (1.2)	534 (6.0)	28 (1.1)	9 (1.7)
Mexico	58 (1.2)	437 (2.7)	23 (0.7)	462 (3.3)	19 (1.0)	489 (5.0)	21 (0.3)	7 (1.3)
New Zealand †	26 (1.0)	468 (4.9)	45 (1.1)	527 (5.3)	29 (1.1)	564 (6.9)	37 (0.8)	11 (1.7)
Norway †	18 (1.1)	475 (4.8)	42 (1.3)	503 (3.9)	40 (1.5)	551 (4.3)	31 (0.8)	10 (1.4)
Paraguay ¹	54 (1.6)	404 (3.6)	28 (1.4)	442 (4.8)	17 (1.0)	474 (7.2)	28 (0.5)	12 (1.9)
Poland	34 (1.4)	503 (4.4)	43 (1.1)	542 (4.9)	22 (1.3)	589 (5.9)	36 (0.9)	12 (1.6)
Russian Federation	27 (1.1)	479 (4.7)	50 (1.0)	507 (4.0)	24 (1.1)	541 (5.2)	25 (0.7)	8 (1.4)
Slovak Republic ²	35 (1.4)	499 (4.7)	48 (1.0)	538 (4.7)	18 (1.3)	572 (5.4)	33 (0.6)	11 (1.6)
Slovenia	27 (1.1)	488 (3.4)	39 (1.1)	516 (3.8)	33 (1.2)	546 (3.5)	24 (0.6)	8 (1.1)
Spain	43 (1.8)	477 (4.4)	34 (1.3)	519 (4.0)	23 (1.4)	544 (4.7)	27 (0.6)	11 (1.3)
Sweden	25 (1.4)	498 (3.8)	42 (1.1)	535 (3.5)	33 (1.4)	580 (4.5)	34 (0.7)	12 (1.6)
Switzerland †	27 (1.4)	495 (4.6)	45 (1.5)	530 (3.7)	28 (2.3)	574 (4.0)	30 (1.0)	13 (1.6)
Thailand †	68 (1.4)	439 (3.3)	24 (1.0)	477 (6.1)	9 (0.7)	501 (8.3)	25 (1.0)	8 (1.7)
ICCS average	36 (0.2)	471 (0.7)	40 (0.2)	507 (0.7)	23 (0.2)	543 (1.0)	29 (0.1)	10 (0.3)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	37 (1.7)	552 (7.7)	45 (1.2)	559 (5.7)	18 (1.4)	568 (8.0)	7 (1.0)	0 (0.5)
Netherlands	29 (2.3)	473 (10.8)	41 (1.6)	492 (6.7)	29 (2.0)	517(10.4)	18 (0.8)	4 (2.0)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

To assess the influence of parental occupational status on civic knowledge, we estimated regression models that had highest parental occupation as a predictor. We computed the predictor variable by transforming the original SEI scores to a metric in which 0 corresponded to the mean and 1 to the standard deviation for the combined ICCS database with equally weighted national samples.

On average, one standard deviation unit in the SEI scale was associated with 29 scale points on the civic knowledge scale. (The regression coefficients can be interpreted as indicators of the socioeconomic equity in the distribution of civic knowledge.) The effects ranged from 10 scale points to 48 scale points and were statistically significant in all countries. Systems in which the effects of parental occupational status on civic knowledge were relatively large (more than 40 points or one standard deviation on the SEI scale) included Bulgaria, England, and Liechtenstein. Countries with relatively weaker effects of SEI on civic knowledge (fewer than 20 points) were the Dominican Republic, Indonesia, and Latvia.

Parental occupational status accounted, on average, for 10 percent of the within-country variance in the scores on the civic knowledge scale. However, there were considerable differences in the extent of this variance across countries. It ranged from 3 percent (in the Dominican Republic) to 20 percent (Bulgaria and Liechtenstein).

Parental educational attainment

Table 7.4 shows the percentages of each category of parental educational attainment as reported by students. On average, across countries, the parents of 18 percent of the students had attained ISCED Levels 1 or 2 (elementary or lower-secondary education), 34 percent had attained ISCED Level 3 (upper secondary), 18 percent had attained ISCED Levels 4 or 5B (post-secondary), and 29 percent had attained ISCED Levels 5A or 6 (tertiary).

Strong associations between civic knowledge and parental educational attainment were evident in all countries. On average, there was a difference of 81 scale points between students with parents who had attained ISCED Levels 5A or 6 and students with parents who had attained ISCED Levels 1 or 2. (Here, we used the weighted average of the two lower groups as the reference value.) The relationship between parental educational attainment (ISCED) group and the international average civic knowledge scores was regular and close to linear.

Overall, there was a strong association between student civic knowledge and parental educational attainment. On average, the civic knowledge of students whose parents were in the highest educational attainment category (ISCED 5A/6) was 532 points and that of students whose parents were in the lowest educational attainment category (ISCED 1) was 437 points. The difference of 95 points was equal to just under one international standard deviation.

Table 7.4 also shows the estimated difference in civic knowledge scores for each year of parental educational attainment. This estimation required us to regress civic knowledge on the approximate years of schooling associated with each level, an approach that provides a better comparison of the effects of parental educational attainment because it takes into account the distributions across ISCED categories. The average effect across ICCS countries was nine scale points for each year of parental education. However, we observed considerable differences across countries in the magnitude of this effect. The largest effects were evident in Poland (14 scale points) and a group of countries made up of Bulgaria, Chinese Taipei, and Sweden (13 scale points). The smallest effects were found in the Dominican Republic (two scale points), and in Colombia and Indonesia (four scale points each).

Parental educational attainment (in approximate years of education) accounted for an average of just under seven percent of the within-country variance in civic knowledge scores. This variance ranged from 2 percent in the Czech Republic, the Dominican Republic, and Indonesia to 17 percent in Bulgaria.





Table 7.4: Percentages of students in categories of parental educational attainment and its effect on civic knowledge

Country	ISCED Level 1 (Elementary/Primary)		ISCED Level 2 (Lower Secondary)		ISCED Level 3 (Upper Secondary)		ISCED Level 4/5B (Post Secondary)		ISCED Level 5A/6 (Tertiary Education)		Effect of Years of Parental Education on Civic Knowledge	
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Difference in score points for one year of education*	Variance explained
Austria	1 (0.2)	^	7 (0.7)	437 (8.6)	60 (1.0)	503 (4.5)	11 (0.5)	499 (5.1)	21 (1.0)	539 (5.9)	9 (0.9)	6 (1.3)
Belgium (Flemish) †	2 (0.3)	438 (13.3)	2 (0.3)	470 (9.6)	24 (1.2)	498 (4.7)	40 (1.5)	516 (5.0)	32 (2.3)	537 (6.0)	8 (0.9)	6 (1.4)
Bulgaria	2 (0.4)	^	10 (1.0)	364 (8.4)	39 (1.5)	458 (4.1)	9 (0.6)	472 (7.8)	40 (1.7)	508 (6.8)	13 (1.0)	17 (2.3)
Chile	4 (0.5)	436 (8.7)	18 (1.2)	442 (5.8)	46 (1.2)	474 (3.7)	15 (0.8)	509 (4.0)	17 (1.0)	543 (4.5)	9 (0.7)	13 (1.7)
Chinese Taipei	2 (0.2)	504 (11.1)	11 (0.6)	518 (4.5)	48 (1.1)	543 (2.6)	17 (0.6)	582 (3.8)	21 (1.1)	603 (4.5)	13 (0.9)	9 (1.2)
Colombia	22 (1.4)	440 (3.6)	17 (0.8)	448 (3.5)	23 (0.8)	463 (3.7)	6 (0.4)	497 (5.5)	32 (1.4)	478 (4.1)	4 (0.4)	4 (0.7)
Cyprus	3 (0.3)	386 (7.9)	9 (0.6)	414 (6.3)	36 (0.9)	442 (3.1)	15 (0.7)	462 (4.6)	38 (0.9)	477 (4.0)	9 (0.7)	6 (1.0)
Czech Republic †	0 (0.0)	^	1 (0.1)	^	67 (1.0)	504 (2.2)	5 (0.3)	510 (7.1)	27 (0.9)	531 (4.2)	8 (1.1)	2 (0.5)
Denmark †	1 (0.2)	^	4 (0.4)	510 (8.8)	21 (0.9)	552 (4.2)	51 (1.0)	583 (3.2)	23 (1.1)	617 (6.0)	12 (0.9)	7 (1.1)
Dominican Republic	15 (0.9)	369 (3.6)	11 (0.9)	379 (4.6)	45 (1.5)	375 (2.6)	8 (0.6)	383 (5.2)	21 (1.6)	401 (4.9)	2 (0.4)	2 (0.6)
England †	1 (0.2)	^	7 (0.7)	473 (8.5)	39 (1.4)	517 (4.3)	18 (1.1)	511 (6.3)	35 (1.4)	558 (7.7)	10 (1.5)	5 (1.1)
Estonia	0 (0.0)	^	5 (0.5)	474 (7.2)	36 (1.5)	513 (4.1)	18 (0.8)	525 (6.1)	42 (1.7)	546 (6.2)	9 (1.2)	4 (1.1)
Finland	2 (0.3)	511 (13.2)	5 (0.4)	536 (7.4)	38 (0.9)	561 (2.5)	23 (0.9)	590 (3.2)	33 (1.1)	599 (4.3)	9 (0.8)	6 (1.1)
Greece	3 (0.5)	455 (11.7)	8 (0.7)	442 (7.5)	35 (1.2)	451 (4.6)	19 (0.8)	489 (5.5)	34 (1.5)	507 (5.7)	8 (0.9)	6 (1.2)
Guatemala ¹	46 (1.8)	409 (3.2)	17 (0.7)	435 (3.5)	14 (1.1)	467 (4.9)	4 (0.3)	445 (7.1)	19 (1.6)	471 (9.7)	6 (0.7)	12 (2.5)
Indonesia	28 (1.4)	423 (3.5)	25 (0.9)	419 (3.5)	30 (1.1)	439 (4.2)	3 (0.3)	457 (9.0)	14 (1.0)	460 (7.6)	4 (0.7)	4 (1.4)
Ireland	3 (0.3)	459 (12.4)	7 (0.5)	504 (10.4)	29 (1.1)	508 (5.5)	35 (1.0)	550 (4.5)	27 (1.1)	566 (5.1)	11 (1.1)	7 (1.2)
Italy	3 (0.4)	457 (11.8)	28 (1.4)	500 (4.9)	42 (1.2)	540 (3.2)	7 (0.5)	525 (7.7)	20 (1.3)	567 (4.4)	7 (0.6)	8 (1.3)
Korea, Republic of ¹	1 (0.2)	^	3 (0.3)	530 (9.5)	42 (1.0)	551 (2.4)	11 (0.5)	559 (4.4)	43 (1.0)	583 (2.3)	7 (0.6)	4 (0.6)
Latvia	0 (0.2)	^	4 (0.6)	439 (9.2)	27 (1.3)	462 (4.7)	32 (1.1)	480 (4.4)	36 (1.6)	506 (5.1)	9 (1.0)	5 (1.2)
Liechtenstein	3 (0.9)	^	19 (2.3)	515 (11.5)	45 (2.9)	537 (5.7)	13 (1.7)	^	20 (2.1)	575 (8.3)	9 (1.5)	8 (2.9)
Lithuania	1 (0.2)	^	6 (0.6)	460 (7.5)	34 (1.4)	486 (3.1)	30 (1.0)	508 (3.0)	30 (1.7)	537 (3.8)	10 (0.8)	8 (1.2)
Luxembourg	16 (0.6)	422 (4.5)	11 (0.5)	441 (6.9)	33 (0.8)	483 (3.0)	21 (0.7)	491 (3.6)	19 (0.5)	523 (3.9)	8 (0.5)	11 (1.3)
Malta	3 (0.5)	418 (17.0)	39 (1.4)	471 (6.5)	18 (1.3)	498 (5.6)	15 (0.8)	504 (8.4)	25 (1.1)	520 (5.7)	7 (1.1)	6 (1.7)
Mexico	19 (1.1)	423 (4.1)	34 (1.2)	436 (2.5)	17 (0.7)	461 (3.8)	6 (0.4)	462 (5.3)	24 (1.2)	487 (4.9)	6 (0.5)	8 (1.4)
New Zealand †	1 (0.3)	^	6 (0.5)	468 (7.8)	20 (1.0)	515 (6.2)	37 (1.0)	521 (5.1)	36 (1.3)	552 (7.5)	12 (1.5)	4 (0.9)
Norway †	1 (0.1)	^	2 (0.4)	445 (11.4)	20 (1.0)	485 (4.7)	25 (1.0)	515 (4.6)	51 (1.5)	537 (4.1)	12 (1.1)	7 (1.1)

Table 7.4: Percentages of students in categories of parental educational attainment and its effect on civic knowledge (contd.)

Country	ISCED Level 1 (Elementary/Primary)		ISCED Level 2 (Lower-Secondary)		ISCED Level 3 (Upper-Secondary)		ISCED Level 4/5B (Post-Secondary)		ISCED Level 5A/6 (Tertiary Education)		Effect of Years of Parental Education on Civic Knowledge	
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Difference in score points for one year of education*	Variance explained
Paraguay ¹	30 (1.4)	396 (4.4)	20 (0.9)	402 (5.0)	21 (0.8)	429 (4.3)	10 (0.6)	449 (6.4)	19 (1.0)	474 (5.5)	6 (0.5)	11 (1.5)
Poland	0 (0.0)	^	1 (0.2)	^	62 (1.7)	518 (3.9)	10 (0.6)	554 (6.9)	27 (1.6)	579 (6.3)	14 (1.3)	8 (1.3)
Russian Federation	1 (0.2)	^	10 (0.5)	479 (5.9)	4 (0.5)	481 (10.4)	42 (1.0)	497 (3.3)	44 (1.2)	526 (5.0)	8 (0.8)	3 (0.7)
Slovak Republic ²	0 (0.0)	^	2 (0.4)	437 (18.6)	59 (1.5)	519 (4.5)	13 (0.7)	526 (6.6)	27 (1.5)	558 (5.3)	9 (1.0)	5 (1.2)
Slovenia	0 (0.1)	^	4 (0.4)	464 (9.6)	34 (1.2)	501 (3.2)	28 (1.1)	518 (4.3)	35 (1.5)	537 (4.7)	7 (0.9)	4 (1.2)
Spain	10 (0.7)	467 (7.1)	24 (1.3)	477 (4.6)	20 (1.0)	503 (4.8)	12 (0.6)	513 (4.7)	34 (1.8)	537 (4.5)	7 (0.5)	9 (1.2)
Sweden	1 (0.2)	^	4 (0.4)	481 (8.3)	21 (1.0)	510 (4.9)	22 (0.8)	542 (4.5)	52 (1.5)	558 (4.2)	13 (1.2)	6 (1.1)
Switzerland †	5 (0.5)	466 (8.7)	15 (1.1)	503 (5.0)	43 (1.5)	528 (4.0)	15 (1.0)	543 (5.4)	23 (1.6)	566 (4.7)	8 (0.7)	9 (1.4)
Thailand †	42 (1.2)	438 (3.6)	16 (0.7)	437 (4.4)	17 (0.8)	448 (4.4)	12 (0.5)	468 (6.0)	14 (1.0)	500 (7.6)	5 (0.7)	6 (1.6)
ICCS average	7 (0.1)	437 (3.8)	11 (0.1)	461 (1.4)	34 (0.2)	492 (0.7)	18 (0.1)	508 (1.0)	29 (0.2)	532 (0.9)	9 (0.2)	7 (0.2)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	7 (0.5)	546 (12.1)	34 (1.3)	545 (7.0)	37 (1.1)	553 (6.1)	7 (0.6)	562 (7.0)	15 (1.2)	574 (7.8)	3 (1.0)	1 (0.5)
Netherlands	4 (1.1)	447 (17.5)	5 (0.9)	464 (10.6)	26 (1.9)	484 (9.0)	50 (2.1)	496 (7.7)	14 (1.9)	529 (13.5)	6 (1.4)	3 (1.3)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Home literacy resources

As shown in Table 7.5, on average, across countries, 11 percent of students had 10 or fewer books in their homes, 19 percent had between 11 and 25 books, and 32 percent had between 26 and 100 books. Nineteen percent had between 101 and 200 books, 12 percent had between 201 and 500 books, and 7 percent had more than 500 books in their homes.

Strong associations emerged between home literacy resources and civic knowledge scores. The difference, on average, between students with more than 500 books in their homes and students with 10 or fewer books in their homes was about 88 scale points (see Table 7.5).

Across the ICCS countries, there was, on average, a difference of 12 scale points for every 100 books in the home. The differences between the top two categories were, however, smaller than the differences between other adjacent categories. The largest effects were 26 scale points for every 100 books in Paraguay, 18 scale points for every 100 books in England, and 17 scale points for every 100 books in Denmark and Ireland. No significant effects were found in Indonesia and the Dominican Republic. Although these two countries tended to have low levels of books in the home, there were other countries with similar levels of home literacy resources in which significant effects emerged.

Home literacy resources accounted for an average of six percent of the within-country variance in civic knowledge scores. This statistic ranged from none of the variance in Indonesia and 1 percent of the variance in Thailand and Guatemala to 13 percent of the variance in England and 15 percent of the variance in Luxembourg.

Summary of socioeconomic background effects

All three aspects of socioeconomic background that we investigated were moderately associated with civic knowledge. The strongest effect was for parental occupational status, which accounted for an average of 10 percent of the within-country variance (the equivalent of a correlation coefficient of 0.33) in scores on the civic knowledge scale. Parental educational attainment accounted for an average of seven percent of the within-country variance, while home literacy resources accounted for an average of six percent of this variance.

Home orientation with respect to political and social issues

There is evidence that young people with parents who are interested in civic issues or who engage their children in political discussions tend to have higher levels of civic knowledge and engagement (Lauglo & Øia, 2006; Richardson, 2003). Given this evidence, the ICCS researchers asked students to what extent their parents were interested in political and social issues and how frequently they spoke with their parents about these issues. The index of parental interest that we created used the higher of the two values for mother and father. We found moderate relationships between these two indicators and civic knowledge: the average of the within-country correlation coefficients was 0.31.

Parental interest in political and social issues

On average across the ICCS countries, the percentages in each category of reported parental interest in political and social issues (“not interested at all,” “not very interested,” “quite interested,” “very interested”) were 3, 26, 48, and 23 percent (see Table 7.6). Students who said their parents were interested in social and political issues attained the higher scores on the civic knowledge assessment. Table 7.6 also records the mean civic knowledge scores for each of four categories of parental interest in social and political issues. Here we can see that, on average, each successive category was associated with a higher average civic knowledge score. The increase from one category to the next was not, however, uniform.

The categories were not evenly spaced in terms of their association with civic knowledge. The difference in ICCS average scores between the first (“not interested at all”) and second (“not



very interested”) categories was 41 points. Between the second and third (“quite interested”) categories, the difference was 26 points, and between the third and top (“very interested”) categories, the score difference was just one point. This pattern differed, however, across the national samples. In some countries, students who said their parents were very interested had lower civic knowledge scores than those who said their parents were quite interested. In other countries, the highest civic knowledge scores were found in the category denoting the highest level of interest.

These results indicate that parents may convey their lack of interest in social and political issues to their children, and that this lack may be reflected, in turn, in the children’s knowledge of and interest in civics and citizenship. However, having very interested parents seemed to have no greater impact on the ICCS students’ civic knowledge scores than having parents who appeared quite interested.

Because of the non-linear association between students’ civic knowledge and parental interest in social and political issues in many of the ICCS countries, we used a dichotomous indicator variable with two values when assessing the strength of the association in a regression analysis. The predictor variable indicating parental interest in political and social issues had a value of 0 for students who reported that both parents were not interested or not very interested and a value of 1 for students who said that at least one parent was quite interested or very interested in political and social issues.

On average, the effect of this indicator on civic knowledge was equal to 29 scale score points and was statistically significant in all countries. However, parental interest in social and political issues accounted for just two percent of the variance in civic knowledge scores within countries. The highest percentage of variance explained by parental interest was observed in Denmark and Greece (5%) followed by Austria, the Czech Republic, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway, and Spain (4%). In contrast, in the Dominican Republic, Mexico, and Thailand, this predictor explained almost none of the variance in civic knowledge.

Talking with parents about political and social issues

Table 7.7 shows the percentages in each category of the frequency with which students talked with their parents about political and social issues. The response categories were “never or hardly ever,” “monthly,” and “weekly or daily.” The international average distribution across these categories was 49, 26, and 24 percent. The country in which weekly or daily conversations about political and social issues was most frequently reported was Italy (38 percent) followed by Thailand (37 percent).

Students who said they spoke relatively frequently with their parents about social and political issues scored higher on the civic knowledge assessment than students who reported otherwise. From the mean civic knowledge scores for each of the four categories of parental interest in social and political issues recorded in Table 7.7, we can see that, although, on average, each successive category was associated with a higher average civic knowledge score, the increase from one category to the next was not uniform.

Students who spoke on a weekly or daily basis with their parents about political and social issues gained the highest scores on the civic knowledge scale.⁷ The international average civic knowledge score for this group was 526 scale points. However, there was a gap of 19 scale points (i.e., down to 507 on the scale) between this high-scoring group and the students who spoke only monthly with their parents about political and social issues. And there was a further gap of 20 scale points between this second group and the students who never spoke with their parents about these issues (487 on the scale).

⁷ There was almost no difference on the original response categories in the international averages of the civic knowledge scores of those who spoke daily about these matters with their parents (527 scale points) and those who spoke on a weekly basis (526 scale points).





Table 7.5: Percentages of students in categories of home literacy resources and its effect on civic knowledge

Country	Books Level 1 (0 to 10 Books)		Books Level 2 (11 to 25 Books)		Books Level 3 (26 to 100 Books)		Books Level 4 (101 to 200 Books)		Books Level 5 (201 to 500 Books)		Books Level 6 (More than 500 Books)		Difference in score points per 100 books*	Variance explained
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge		
Austria	8 (0.6)	421 (7.3)	14 (0.9)	458 (7.0)	29 (0.9)	499 (4.5)	22 (0.8)	524 (4.3)	15 (0.8)	543 (5.4)	11 (0.7)	544 (8.3)	13 (1.3)	8 (1.5)
Belgium (Flemish) †	14 (0.9)	475 (5.7)	22 (0.9)	500 (5.5)	36 (1.1)	520 (4.3)	15 (0.8)	530 (6.2)	9 (0.9)	551 (8.4)	4 (0.5)	546 (11.8)	10 (1.5)	4 (1.2)
Bulgaria	16 (1.3)	367 (5.9)	18 (1.0)	427 (6.1)	29 (1.3)	481 (4.8)	18 (0.9)	510 (5.5)	12 (0.8)	541 (8.3)	9 (0.6)	502 (8.6)	16 (1.5)	9 (1.3)
Chile	16 (1.1)	444 (4.4)	30 (0.9)	468 (4.0)	34 (1.0)	496 (3.3)	12 (0.6)	513 (5.2)	5 (0.4)	525 (6.4)	2 (0.3)	514 (12.5)	13 (1.8)	3 (0.8)
Chinese Taipei	11 (0.6)	492 (4.6)	17 (0.6)	532 (3.5)	34 (0.8)	560 (2.6)	18 (0.5)	580 (3.5)	12 (0.5)	600 (4.9)	8 (0.4)	595 (6.0)	11 (0.9)	5 (0.8)
Colombia	24 (1.4)	431 (3.7)	32 (0.8)	454 (2.9)	29 (0.9)	479 (3.2)	9 (0.6)	492 (4.8)	3 (0.4)	514 (8.2)	2 (0.2)	486 (11.5)	13 (1.9)	3 (0.8)
Cyprus	8 (0.6)	405 (6.1)	16 (0.8)	431 (4.4)	32 (1.1)	454 (3.4)	22 (0.8)	467 (3.6)	12 (0.6)	491 (4.6)	10 (0.6)	463 (8.0)	6 (1.1)	2 (0.6)
Czech Republic †	5 (0.4)	456 (5.9)	12 (0.6)	459 (3.9)	38 (0.9)	499 (2.5)	24 (0.7)	523 (3.0)	15 (0.6)	553 (3.8)	7 (0.5)	566 (8.1)	15 (1.1)	10 (1.2)
Denmark †	9 (0.6)	517 (6.0)	15 (0.7)	537 (4.1)	33 (1.0)	565 (3.9)	21 (0.7)	597 (3.9)	15 (0.7)	624 (5.4)	7 (0.6)	640 (8.6)	17 (0.9)	10 (1.2)
Dominican Republic	37 (1.3)	368 (2.6)	36 (1.4)	386 (2.9)	17 (0.8)	393 (5.1)	5 (0.5)	388 (5.3)	2 (0.3)	405 (10.2)	2 (0.3)	376 (10.2)	2 (1.4)	0 (0.2)
England †	11 (0.8)	434 (6.5)	15 (0.8)	472 (5.0)	29 (0.9)	511 (4.4)	19 (1.0)	535 (5.2)	15 (0.9)	584 (6.7)	10 (0.9)	581 (11.8)	18 (1.5)	13 (2.1)
Estonia	3 (0.4)	459(13.5)	9 (0.8)	478 (7.8)	31 (1.0)	514 (4.9)	25 (0.8)	535 (4.8)	21 (1.1)	556 (6.4)	10 (0.8)	544 (10.0)	8 (1.3)	4 (1.0)
Finland	6 (0.4)	523 (7.4)	12 (0.6)	544 (4.3)	37 (1.1)	566 (2.7)	23 (0.8)	589 (4.3)	17 (0.8)	616 (3.6)	5 (0.6)	607 (9.0)	12 (1.2)	6 (1.2)
Greece	5 (0.5)	434 (8.9)	15 (0.7)	441 (6.0)	35 (1.0)	468 (5.4)	22 (0.7)	490 (5.5)	13 (0.8)	514 (6.3)	9 (0.8)	500 (8.2)	9 (1.1)	3 (0.7)
Guatemala ¹	29 (1.3)	412 (3.9)	34 (0.9)	431 (3.2)	24 (1.3)	456 (6.6)	7 (0.5)	461 (8.7)	3 (0.3)	456 (9.2)	2 (0.3)	449 (15.7)	8 (1.9)	1 (0.6)
Indonesia	14 (0.9)	436 (5.6)	38 (1.0)	426 (3.8)	34 (0.8)	438 (3.5)	8 (0.4)	442 (4.9)	3 (0.3)	437 (7.7)	3 (0.4)	419 (10.1)	0 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
Ireland	10 (0.9)	458 (7.4)	16 (0.9)	487 (6.4)	31 (1.0)	525 (4.6)	21 (0.9)	564 (5.0)	15 (0.8)	587 (5.5)	7 (0.6)	584 (7.3)	17 (1.3)	10 (1.2)
Italy	9 (0.7)	467 (7.3)	18 (0.9)	498 (5.1)	31 (0.8)	531 (3.8)	21 (0.7)	545 (3.9)	13 (0.7)	565 (4.9)	7 (0.6)	581 (5.9)	13 (0.9)	8 (1.0)
Korea, Republic of ¹	6 (0.4)	499 (6.0)	11 (0.4)	529 (3.9)	30 (0.8)	554 (2.7)	23 (0.6)	571 (2.3)	21 (0.6)	588 (2.9)	9 (0.5)	615 (4.5)	12 (0.7)	9 (1.0)
Latvia	7 (0.8)	462(10.4)	13 (0.8)	453 (5.4)	36 (1.1)	473 (4.8)	22 (1.0)	493 (5.2)	15 (0.8)	506 (5.7)	7 (0.7)	513 (7.3)	9 (1.0)	4 (1.0)
Liechtenstein	6 (1.2)	^	10 (1.4)	^	34 (2.7)	520 (7.7)	24 (2.3)	545 (9.3)	16 (2.2)	582 (9.5)	11 (1.7)	^	13 (2.3)	9 (2.6)
Lithuania	7 (0.5)	471 (5.7)	19 (0.9)	469 (3.8)	39 (0.8)	500 (3.2)	20 (0.8)	529 (3.6)	10 (0.6)	551 (5.1)	5 (0.5)	536 (7.4)	12 (1.2)	6 (1.0)
Luxembourg	9 (0.5)	409 (5.0)	12 (0.6)	425 (5.6)	28 (1.0)	453 (3.4)	19 (0.6)	483 (3.4)	17 (0.5)	520 (3.3)	15 (0.5)	532 (3.5)	16 (0.8)	15 (1.1)
Malta	6 (0.8)	413(12.2)	13 (0.9)	440 (7.5)	34 (1.3)	485 (5.9)	24 (1.2)	513 (6.6)	15 (0.9)	526 (5.2)	8 (0.6)	515 (8.2)	11 (1.5)	5 (1.1)
Mexico	25 (0.9)	436 (3.2)	33 (0.6)	441 (2.8)	27 (0.6)	466 (3.2)	10 (0.6)	471 (5.8)	4 (0.3)	487 (8.6)	2 (0.3)	475 (11.5)	9 (1.6)	2 (0.7)
New Zealand †	8 (0.6)	446 (7.5)	14 (0.6)	473 (7.2)	32 (1.1)	507 (4.6)	22 (1.0)	542 (6.1)	16 (0.8)	562 (8.7)	9 (0.7)	558 (12.1)	13 (1.8)	6 (1.6)
Norway †	5 (0.5)	448 (8.9)	9 (0.7)	460 (6.4)	32 (1.0)	500 (3.8)	24 (0.8)	527 (4.5)	19 (0.9)	550 (5.3)	11 (0.8)	560 (7.4)	13 (1.0)	8 (1.2)

Table 7.5: Percentages of students in categories of home literacy resources and its effect on civic knowledge (contd.)

Country	Books Level 1 (0 to 10 Books)		Books Level 2 (11 to 25 Books)		Books Level 3 (26 to 100 Books)		Books Level 4 (101 to 200 Books)		Books Level 5 (201 to 500 Books)		Books Level 6 (More than 500 Books)		Difference in score points per 100 books*	Variance explained
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge		
Paraguay ¹	39 (1.7)	391 (4.0)	30 (1.0)	420 (3.9)	20 (1.2)	465 (4.9)	8 (0.6)	480 (7.1)	3 (0.4)	485 (10.4)	1 (0.2)	^	26 (3.5)	7 (1.3)
Poland	4 (0.4)	470 (10.1)	13 (0.8)	494 (5.8)	36 (1.0)	525 (4.5)	22 (0.7)	542 (5.1)	15 (0.9)	585 (6.5)	10 (0.8)	577 (9.2)	13 (1.3)	7 (1.3)
Russian Federation	4 (0.5)	468 (10.0)	15 (0.9)	469 (5.9)	35 (0.8)	494 (4.3)	24 (0.8)	526 (4.2)	14 (0.7)	543 (5.5)	8 (0.6)	529 (6.3)	10 (1.1)	5 (0.9)
Slovak Republic ²	6 (0.7)	447 (10.1)	15 (0.9)	484 (6.1)	41 (1.2)	525 (4.9)	21 (0.9)	559 (5.2)	12 (0.7)	570 (6.3)	5 (0.6)	575 (7.6)	15 (1.4)	8 (1.2)
Slovenia	7 (0.6)	465 (6.9)	17 (0.8)	484 (3.8)	40 (1.2)	515 (3.2)	19 (0.8)	536 (4.7)	11 (0.8)	555 (5.6)	7 (0.7)	529 (9.5)	8 (1.4)	3 (0.9)
Spain	6 (0.6)	441 (7.7)	13 (0.8)	458 (5.7)	35 (1.2)	500 (4.2)	23 (0.8)	523 (4.2)	14 (0.8)	539 (5.2)	9 (0.7)	540 (8.1)	11 (1.1)	6 (1.2)
Sweden	4 (0.4)	451 (8.0)	10 (0.6)	485 (4.9)	32 (0.9)	519 (4.5)	22 (0.8)	547 (3.8)	19 (0.7)	573 (4.8)	12 (0.7)	594 (6.3)	15 (1.0)	10 (1.4)
Switzerland †	7 (0.6)	473 (6.0)	13 (1.0)	490 (5.8)	34 (1.2)	522 (3.7)	22 (0.9)	552 (5.2)	15 (0.8)	561 (4.5)	9 (0.9)	569 (8.8)	11 (1.2)	7 (1.4)
Thailand †	19 (0.8)	433 (4.2)	37 (1.0)	447 (3.6)	30 (0.7)	462 (4.3)	8 (0.5)	467 (6.4)	4 (0.3)	471 (9.6)	2 (0.2)	469 (13.7)	6 (2.0)	1 (0.5)
ICCS average	11 (0.1)	446 (1.3)	19 (0.1)	467 (0.9)	32 (0.2)	498 (0.7)	19 (0.1)	519 (0.9)	12 (0.1)	539 (1.1)	7 (0.1)	535 (1.7)	12 (0.2)	6 (0.2)
Countries not meeting sampling requirements														
Hong Kong SAR	19 (1.1)	522 (9.2)	22 (0.9)	552 (7.3)	33 (1.0)	561 (5.6)	12 (0.7)	569 (8.1)	9 (0.7)	579 (8.7)	5 (0.6)	544 (16.7)	3 (2.0)	0 (0.4)
Netherlands	12 (1.8)	439 (10.7)	19 (2.1)	460 (9.1)	33 (1.9)	497 (6.8)	17 (1.6)	516 (11.3)	12 (1.3)	532 (11.0)	8 (1.2)	524 (14.3)	11 (2.5)	5 (2.3)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 7.6: Percentages of students in categories of parental interest in political and social issues and its effect on civic knowledge

Country	Very Interested		Quite Interested		Not Very Interested		Not Interested at All		Difference in score points by parental interest (very or quite interested vs. others)*	Variance explained
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge		
Austria	32 (1.0)	519 (5.4)	49 (1.0)	508 (4.4)	17 (0.7)	477 (6.3)	2 (0.3)	387 (9.5)	46 (5.6)	4 (0.2)
Belgium (Flemish) †	19 (0.9)	529 (6.9)	54 (1.1)	519 (4.5)	22 (1.0)	500 (5.0)	4 (0.5)	468 (9.0)	26 (4.0)	2 (0.2)
Bulgaria	19 (0.8)	451 (7.4)	52 (1.2)	486 (5.4)	25 (1.1)	460 (5.4)	4 (0.4)	393 (11.3)	26 (4.6)	1 (0.1)
Chile	20 (0.7)	489 (5.3)	35 (0.8)	500 (3.9)	42 (0.9)	472 (3.4)	3 (0.3)	428 (9.4)	28 (3.2)	3 (0.2)
Chinese Taipei	10 (0.4)	564 (5.5)	38 (0.7)	569 (3.0)	48 (0.8)	554 (2.8)	4 (0.3)	518 (7.0)	17 (3.0)	1 (0.1)
Colombia	30 (0.8)	464 (3.6)	25 (0.8)	482 (4.1)	41 (1.0)	459 (3.0)	5 (0.4)	413 (5.6)	18 (2.9)	1 (0.2)
Cyprus	27 (0.7)	458 (4.6)	45 (1.0)	467 (3.3)	25 (0.8)	442 (3.5)	3 (0.3)	398 (9.9)	27 (4.4)	2 (0.2)
Czech Republic †	12 (0.7)	536 (6.5)	49 (0.7)	522 (2.3)	34 (0.9)	492 (2.6)	4 (0.3)	457 (6.8)	37 (3.2)	4 (0.3)
Denmark †	18 (0.7)	607 (6.0)	58 (0.9)	585 (3.7)	23 (1.0)	542 (3.6)	1 (0.1)	^	51 (4.4)	5 (0.2)
Dominican Republic	29 (1.3)	380 (3.4)	15 (0.8)	396 (5.1)	41 (1.6)	385 (2.9)	15 (0.6)	362 (4.6)	6 (3.0)	0 (0.1)
England †	19 (1.1)	549 (9.7)	50 (0.9)	531 (5.0)	25 (1.0)	503 (4.1)	5 (0.5)	467 (10.4)	39 (6.3)	3 (0.2)
Estonia	16 (1.0)	541 (7.8)	51 (1.2)	536 (4.4)	31 (1.2)	508 (5.0)	2 (0.3)	458 (12.2)	32 (4.2)	3 (0.1)
Finland	14 (0.7)	591 (6.3)	59 (0.9)	582 (2.6)	25 (0.8)	562 (3.4)	2 (0.2)	514 (12.1)	26 (3.9)	2 (0.3)
Greece	26 (1.0)	499 (5.3)	46 (0.9)	486 (4.9)	23 (0.9)	450 (5.3)	4 (0.4)	401 (10.4)	48 (4.4)	5 (0.3)
Guatemala ¹	32 (1.0)	433 (4.8)	26 (0.8)	452 (5.7)	40 (1.1)	430 (3.3)	3 (0.3)	372 (10.6)	15 (4.5)	1 (0.2)
Indonesia	33 (0.9)	434 (4.2)	49 (0.9)	438 (3.6)	16 (0.7)	423 (4.3)	2 (0.3)	391 (9.2)	18 (3.9)	1 (0.1)
Ireland	30 (1.0)	558 (5.4)	51 (1.0)	535 (4.5)	16 (0.9)	510 (6.5)	3 (0.4)	462 (13.2)	41 (6.3)	3 (0.1)
Italy	29 (1.0)	545 (4.7)	54 (0.8)	531 (3.4)	15 (0.6)	508 (5.8)	1 (0.2)	^	31 (5.2)	2 (0.2)
Korea, Republic of ¹	29 (0.6)	578 (3.0)	61 (0.6)	563 (2.0)	9 (0.4)	540 (4.7)	1 (0.1)	^	32 (5.0)	1 (0.2)
Latvia	25 (1.2)	489 (5.4)	58 (1.2)	485 (4.3)	16 (1.0)	465 (5.8)	1 (0.2)	^	23 (5.6)	1 (0.1)
Liechtenstein	29 (2.3)	548 (6.9)	50 (2.8)	541 (5.7)	19 (2.0)	501 (12.5)	2 (0.7)	^	45 (13.6)	4 (0.4)
Lithuania	20 (0.7)	515 (4.4)	64 (0.9)	509 (3.0)	15 (0.8)	484 (4.6)	1 (0.1)	^	26 (4.2)	1 (0.1)
Luxembourg	24 (0.7)	497 (4.3)	47 (1.0)	485 (1.9)	26 (1.0)	451 (4.6)	3 (0.3)	418 (13.0)	41 (5.3)	4 (0.4)
Malta	23 (1.1)	492 (6.8)	48 (1.4)	502 (5.1)	24 (1.2)	478 (6.6)	4 (0.5)	424 (9.2)	29 (6.1)	2 (0.2)
Mexico	23 (0.6)	443 (4.0)	21 (0.8)	473 (5.4)	51 (0.9)	452 (2.8)	5 (0.4)	409 (5.5)	9 (3.9)	0 (0.1)
New Zealand †	24 (1.0)	533 (7.4)	55 (1.0)	526 (5.0)	18 (0.8)	499 (6.3)	3 (0.4)	459 (14.2)	35 (5.2)	2 (0.2)
Norway †	22 (1.0)	537 (6.2)	55 (1.3)	526 (3.5)	21 (1.0)	484 (4.5)	1 (0.3)	^	47 (4.5)	4 (0.3)
Paraguay ¹	25 (1.0)	419 (5.1)	21 (0.9)	453 (4.9)	47 (0.9)	422 (4.5)	7 (0.5)	387 (6.2)	17 (5.8)	1 (0.1)
Poland	23 (0.9)	550 (6.6)	61 (1.0)	536 (4.4)	14 (0.8)	522 (7.1)	2 (0.3)	486 (16.2)	22 (5.6)	1 (0.1)

Table 7.6: Percentages of students in categories of parental interest in political and social issues and its effect on civic knowledge (contd.)

Country	Very Interested		Quite Interested		Not Very Interested		Not Interested at All		Difference in score points by parental interest (very or quite interested vs. others)*	Variance explained
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge		
Russian Federation	26 (1.0)	506 (6.0)	52 (1.0)	515 (4.2)	20 (0.8)	489 (4.0)	2 (0.2)	461 (11.7)	25 (4.5)	1 (0.2)
Slovak Republic ²	11 (0.8)	536 (8.1)	48 (1.2)	543 (5.1)	37 (1.3)	513 (4.1)	3 (0.4)	478 (13.3)	32 (4.5)	3 (0.3)
Slovenia	14 (0.7)	533 (6.5)	55 (1.1)	525 (3.0)	27 (1.0)	500 (3.7)	3 (0.4)	458 (8.9)	31 (4.6)	3 (0.5)
Spain	18 (0.8)	517 (5.5)	46 (0.9)	519 (4.2)	33 (1.2)	487 (4.7)	3 (0.3)	442 (11.1)	35 (3.8)	4 (0.2)
Sweden	17 (0.8)	557 (5.9)	51 (1.1)	546 (3.3)	29 (1.2)	524 (4.3)	3 (0.3)	473 (11.1)	29 (4.5)	2 (0.3)
Switzerland †	24 (0.9)	552 (5.8)	55 (1.1)	534 (4.3)	20 (1.0)	510 (4.1)	2 (0.2)	482 (14.1)	31 (5.6)	2 (0.2)
Thailand †	31 (1.0)	453 (4.6)	57 (0.9)	454 (3.7)	11 (0.7)	443 (4.7)	1 (0.2)	^	14 (4.1)	0 (0.1)
ICCS average	23 (0.2)	511 (1.0)	48 (0.2)	510 (0.7)	26 (0.2)	484 (0.8)	3 (0.1)	443 (2.1)	29 (0.9)	2 (0.0)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements										
Hong Kong SAR	16 (0.7)	566 (7.5)	54 (1.0)	558 (5.8)	26 (1.0)	544 (7.0)	4 (0.5)	509 (12.6)	21 (5.1)	1 (0.1)
Netherlands	15 (1.4)	516 (9.0)	52 (1.7)	502 (8.5)	31 (2.0)	475 (7.4)	3 (0.6)	^	35 (7.2)	3 (0.4)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table 7.7: Percentages of students in categories of talking with parents about political and social issues and its effect on civic knowledge

Country	Never or Hardly Ever		Monthly (or at Least Once a Month)		Weekly or Daily		Average difference in score points for one category*	Variance explained
	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic knowledge		
Austria	43 (0.9)	482 (4.7)	29 (0.9)	509 (4.4)	28 (1.0)	534 (5.7)	26 (2.8)	5 (1.0)
Belgium (Flemish) †	71 (0.9)	505 (5.1)	16 (0.7)	528 (5.7)	14 (0.7)	545 (6.5)	20 (2.5)	3 (0.8)
Bulgaria	55 (1.2)	461 (4.7)	21 (0.9)	488 (5.7)	24 (1.1)	476 (7.8)	10 (3.2)	1 (0.4)
Chile	48 (1.1)	468 (3.5)	24 (0.7)	487 (4.3)	28 (1.0)	508 (4.8)	20 (1.9)	4 (0.7)
Chinese Taipei	48 (0.8)	543 (2.8)	27 (0.7)	563 (3.5)	25 (0.7)	587 (3.4)	22 (1.8)	4 (0.6)
Colombia	48 (1.0)	459 (2.8)	24 (0.9)	465 (3.5)	27 (0.7)	475 (4.0)	8 (1.5)	1 (0.3)
Cyprus	55 (1.1)	445 (2.8)	23 (0.8)	461 (4.4)	22 (0.8)	476 (4.8)	16 (2.4)	2 (0.6)
Czech Republic †	58 (0.8)	498 (2.5)	27 (0.7)	520 (2.9)	15 (0.8)	545 (5.4)	23 (2.2)	4 (0.7)
Denmark †	49 (1.2)	546 (3.7)	24 (0.8)	587 (3.7)	27 (1.1)	629 (4.6)	41 (2.4)	12 (1.3)
Dominican Republic	60 (1.1)	382 (2.7)	20 (0.7)	387 (3.6)	20 (0.8)	387 (4.4)	3 (2.1)	0 (0.2)
England ‡	59 (1.4)	502 (3.8)	21 (0.9)	529 (6.7)	20 (1.1)	564 (9.3)	30 (3.8)	5 (1.3)
Estonia	56 (1.3)	510 (4.3)	28 (1.0)	532 (5.5)	16 (1.0)	570 (7.2)	28 (3.2)	5 (1.1)
Finland	66 (1.1)	564 (2.4)	23 (0.9)	593 (3.6)	11 (0.8)	622 (4.6)	29 (2.1)	6 (0.8)
Greece	52 (1.0)	464 (4.4)	24 (0.7)	486 (5.7)	24 (0.8)	492 (6.7)	15 (2.6)	2 (0.5)
Guatemala ¹	34 (1.1)	441 (4.1)	35 (0.8)	434 (3.5)	31 (1.1)	435 (5.6)	-3 (2.3)	0 (0.2)
Indonesia	40 (1.0)	424 (3.5)	25 (0.7)	437 (3.9)	35 (0.9)	443 (4.4)	10 (1.7)	2 (0.5)
Ireland	52 (1.0)	512 (4.6)	23 (0.9)	548 (5.4)	25 (0.9)	572 (6.3)	31 (2.7)	7 (1.1)
Italy	40 (1.2)	508 (3.5)	23 (0.7)	535 (4.3)	38 (1.2)	553 (4.1)	22 (2.2)	5 (0.9)
Korea, Republic of ¹	32 (0.7)	542 (2.4)	34 (0.6)	564 (2.3)	34 (0.7)	589 (2.6)	24 (1.4)	6 (0.7)
Latvia	33 (1.2)	465 (4.9)	35 (1.1)	479 (4.4)	32 (1.2)	503 (4.8)	19 (2.4)	4 (0.9)
Liechtenstein	43 (2.3)	512 (6.8)	29 (2.7)	530 (8.1)	28 (2.5)	563 (7.7)	25 (5.5)	5 (2.2)
Lithuania	41 (1.0)	495 (3.3)	36 (0.9)	505 (3.2)	23 (0.7)	525 (4.3)	14 (2.0)	2 (0.5)
Luxembourg	53 (0.8)	457 (3.0)	24 (0.8)	482 (4.2)	23 (0.7)	506 (4.2)	25 (1.9)	4 (0.7)
Malta	50 (1.3)	478 (5.0)	25 (1.2)	491 (5.9)	25 (1.1)	514 (7.2)	17 (3.5)	2 (0.9)
Mexico	59 (0.8)	448 (2.6)	24 (0.6)	454 (3.9)	17 (0.5)	468 (4.9)	9 (2.0)	1 (0.3)
New Zealand †	46 (1.2)	502 (4.8)	25 (0.7)	524 (5.3)	29 (1.0)	542 (8.1)	20 (3.2)	2 (0.8)
Norway †	52 (1.3)	496 (3.6)	25 (0.8)	529 (4.4)	22 (1.0)	547 (6.4)	27 (3.1)	5 (1.1)
Paraguay ¹	53 (1.1)	423 (3.6)	23 (0.8)	426 (5.0)	24 (0.8)	447 (6.1)	11 (3.1)	1 (0.6)
Poland	39 (1.1)	516 (5.0)	32 (0.9)	534 (5.2)	29 (1.0)	569 (6.0)	26 (2.6)	5 (0.9)
Russian Federation	45 (1.3)	491 (3.5)	36 (0.9)	521 (4.5)	19 (0.9)	522 (6.1)	18 (2.8)	3 (0.7)
Slovak Republic ²	48 (1.1)	518 (4.5)	30 (0.9)	531 (5.4)	22 (0.8)	551 (6.0)	16 (2.7)	2 (0.7)
Slovenia	66 (1.1)	506 (2.8)	22 (0.9)	524 (5.1)	12 (0.8)	559 (5.6)	25 (2.8)	4 (0.9)
Spain	57 (1.1)	490 (4.1)	21 (0.8)	516 (4.7)	21 (0.7)	536 (5.9)	23 (2.3)	5 (0.9)
Sweden	59 (1.2)	520 (3.3)	23 (0.9)	555 (4.7)	18 (0.9)	575 (5.4)	29 (3.0)	5 (1.1)
Switzerland †	44 (1.3)	515 (4.5)	28 (1.3)	537 (4.0)	29 (1.1)	554 (5.1)	20 (2.6)	4 (1.0)
Thailand †	25 (0.8)	439 (4.1)	38 (0.7)	451 (3.7)	37 (1.0)	463 (4.1)	12 (1.8)	1 (0.4)
ICCS average	49 (0.2)	487 (0.7)	26 (0.2)	507 (0.8)	24 (0.2)	526 (1.0)	20 (0.4)	4 (0.1)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	38 (1.3)	535 (7.1)	33 (1.0)	554 (6.4)	29 (1.1)	575 (6.5)	20 (3.6)	3 (0.9)
Netherlands	63 (2.1)	477 (7.6)	20 (1.3)	515 (8.2)	17 (1.3)	524 (12.5)	26 (4.9)	5 (1.6)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

The country with the strongest association between talking with parents and civic knowledge was Denmark, where the average difference per category was 41 score points. The next largest associations were in Ireland and England (average differences per category of 31 and 30 scale points respectively), followed by Finland and Estonia (average differences per category of 29 and 28 scale points respectively). The smallest average differences per category were observed in (descending order) the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Bulgaria, and Colombia.

On average, frequency of talking with parents about social and political issues accounted for about four percent of the variance in civic knowledge scores within countries. The countries with the highest percentages of variance in civic knowledge explained by this variable were Denmark (12%) and Ireland (7%). In Finland and Korea, this variable explained six percent of the variance. In two countries, the Dominican Republic and Guatemala, this predictor explained almost none of the variance in civic knowledge.

Combined influences of family background

We used multiple regression analyses to investigate the combined effects of the following three blocks of family background measures on civic knowledge:⁸

- Immigrant status/language used at home;
- Socioeconomic background (parental occupational status, parental educational attainment, and home literacy resources); and
- Home orientation with respect to political and social issues (parental interest in political and social issues and frequency of discussion with parents about political and social issues).

In addition to reporting the combined effects, we investigated the net effects of each variable (i.e., the effect after allowing for the effects of other variables). We coded the predictor variables as follows:

- *Immigrant background*: Students who were born abroad or born in the country of test but whose parents had been born abroad were assigned a code of 1; all other students were assigned a code of 0.
- *Language spoken at home*: Students who spoke the test language at home were coded as 1; those who spoke a language other than the test language at home were coded as 0.
- *Parental occupational status*: Occupational status (SEI) scores were standardized to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 across equally weighted ICCS countries.
- *Parental educational attainment*: This variable, which was based on ISCED levels, was transformed into number of years of education completed.
- *Home literacy resources*: Number of books in the home was converted to units of 100 books.
- *Parental interest in political and social issues*: Students reporting at least one parent as quite interested or very interested were coded as 1. Students reporting both parents as not interested or not very interested were coded as 0.
- *Frequency of talking with parents about political and social issues*: This was transformed into a three-category variable based on never or hardly ever (coded as 0), monthly or at least once a month (coded as 1), and weekly or daily (coded as 2).

The regression coefficients and the percentages of variance explained are shown in Table 7.8. (Both types of statistic provide important perspectives on the family background variables associated with civic knowledge.) When presenting our analyses of the effects of individual



⁸ The standard errors for these single-level regression analyses were obtained using the jackknife replication method, which allows estimation of correct sampling errors for data from cluster sample designs.

variables, we present the regression coefficients. However, when reviewing the percentages of the variance explained, we focus on the three blocks of related variables—immigrant language background, socioeconomic background, and home orientation.

We excluded from our analysis cases with missing values on any of the variables in the model. This process led to an average international exclusion rate of 12 percent of students; across countries, the percentages ranged from 6 to 28 percent.

Regression coefficients

The coefficients from the regression analysis shown in Table 7.8 indicate, for each country, the net effect (i.e., after controlling for the influence of concomitant influences in the model) of each of the seven family-background variables on civic knowledge. In this section, we focus on the international average values for the coefficients. (The same approach can, and should, be applied separately to the results for each country.)

The average coefficients for the effects of immigrant/language background indicated that, other influences being equal, the civic knowledge score for students who had an immigrant background was 16 points lower than the score for all other students. Those students who spoke the test language at home had, on average, a civic knowledge score 28 points higher than the score of students who spoke another language at home.

When we considered socioeconomic background, the average coefficients showed that, other things being equal, one standard deviation on the parental occupational status scale was associated with a difference of 18 civic knowledge scale points, each year of parental education was associated with three scale points, and each 100 books in the home was associated with six scale points.

In terms of home orientation toward political and social issues, the average coefficients indicated, other things being equal, a 10-point difference in civic knowledge scores between students who thought that at least one parent was quite or very interested in political and social issues and students who thought that their parents were not interested or not very interested in these issues. In addition, and again assuming that other things were equal, we found a 13-point difference in civic knowledge associated with each frequency category relating to talking about political and social issues with parents (i.e., never or hardly ever, monthly, and weekly or daily). It is worth reiterating that these are net effects, that is, the effects apparent after allowance has been made for the effects of the other factors included in the analysis.

Percentage of variance explained

In a regression model, the variance in the criterion variable can be explained by the combined effect of more than one predictor or block of predictors. It is thus possible to estimate how much of the explained variance is attributable uniquely to each of the predictors or blocks of predictors, and how much of this variance is explained by these predictors or blocks of predictors in combination. We carried out this estimation by comparing the variance explanation of three additional regression models (each without one of the three blocks of predictors) with a model that had all predictors in combination.⁹

On average, the combination of these family background measures accounted for 17 percent of the variance in student civic knowledge scores within an education system. This statistic varied between 4 (Dominican Republic) and 28 percent (Liechtenstein and Bulgaria); across countries, the higher the total percentage of variance explained, the stronger the influence of family background on civic knowledge.



⁹ The differences between each of the comparison models with the full model provide an estimate of the unique variance attributable to each block of variables. The difference between the sum of block variances and the explained variance by all predictors provides an estimate of the common variance attributable to more than one block of variables.

Table 7.8 also shows diagrammatically the percentage of variance uniquely contributed by each block of variables. On average, less than two percent of within-country variance in civic knowledge was attributable to the block of variables associated with immigrant background and home language. This percentage was greatest (5%) for Liechtenstein. In several countries—Austria, Belgium (Flemish), Bulgaria, Paraguay, and Switzerland—somewhat higher percentages of variance were also explained by this block.

On average, about 10 percent of within-country variance in civic knowledge was attributable to the block of socioeconomic variables. This percentage was greatest in Bulgaria (16%), England (16%), Chile (15%), and Guatemala (15%). The lowest proportions of variance uniquely explained by socioeconomic background were found in the Dominican Republic (3%), Indonesia (5%), and Greece (6%).

The block of variables concerned with home orientation toward political and social issues contributed, on average, about two percent of the within-country variance in civic knowledge scores. The extent to which this block contributed to the variance was highest in Denmark and lowest in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Mexico, and Thailand.

Of the three blocks of family background measures investigated, the most consistent predictor of civic knowledge was socioeconomic background. On average, socioeconomic background uniquely accounted for 10 percent of the variance in civic knowledge compared to only two to three percent for each of the other two blocks of predictors (i.e., home orientation and immigrant or language background).

Across the ICCS countries, four percent, on average, of the variance in civic knowledge was attributable to the three blocks of family-background factors acting in combination. This combined contribution was greatest in Liechtenstein (11%) and Luxembourg (12%); it was very low in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Indonesia, and Thailand.

Influences of family background on students' interest in political and social issues

In Chapter 5, we described the ICCS scale reflecting student interest in politics and social issues and its average scores for participating countries. The scale had a metric with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted ICCS countries.

As in the previous multiple regression model, we excluded cases with missing values on any of the variables in the model. On average, exclusion amounted to 13 percent of the cases. Exclusion percentages across the ICCS participating countries ranged from 6 to 34 percent.

Table 7.9 reports the results of a multiple regression analysis of this scale on the seven predictor variables grouped into three blocks of family background variables: immigrant language background, socioeconomic background, and home orientation with respect to political and social issues.

Regression coefficients

The results presented in Table 7.9 show very little association between students' interest in politics and social issues with immigrant or language background or with socioeconomic background. In general, immigrant students expressed slightly greater interest in politics and social issues than non-immigrant students. The average difference was one scale point (i.e., 0.1 of a standard deviation), but the magnitude differed among countries. If we leave aside the case of Korea, where there were very few immigrant students, we can see that the net effect was greatest in Colombia, Cyprus, Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Sweden, and Switzerland. In these countries, the difference was approximately three points or 0.3 of a standard deviation. Differences with respect to the effects of the language spoken at home were even smaller (again leaving aside the result for Korea).





Table 7.8: Regression model for students' civic knowledge predicted by family background variables

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients*											Proportion of unique variance explained by each factor and of variance explained by more than one predictor block
	Immigrant background (0=no immigrant background; 1=immigrant background)	Test language (0=other language; 1=test language)	Parental occupation (standardized SEI score)	Parental education (years)	Number of books at home (in hundreds)	Parental interest (0=not or not very interested; 1=quite or very interested)	Discussions with parents about political or social issues (0=never; 1=monthly; 2=weekly or daily)	Percentage of explained variance				
Austria	-13.9 (7.4)	35.0 (7.8)	15.0 (2.5)	2.6 (0.9)	6.8 (1.1)	20.5 (4.9)	17.7 (2.4)	21 (1.9)				
Belgium (Flemish) †	3.9 (7.2)	52.2 (8.5)	21.1 (2.3)	1.7 (0.9)	4.4 (1.4)	5.4 (3.2)	18.1 (2.3)	20 (2.1)				
Bulgaria	10.2 (21.3)	60.0 (7.7)	28.2 (2.9)	4.6 (0.9)	6.2 (1.1)	12.0 (4.0)	8.7 (2.6)	28 (2.6)				
Chile	-1.7 (11.4)	53.8 (13.7)	19.5 (1.7)	5.2 (0.7)	4.2 (1.5)	3.2 (2.8)	13.8 (1.7)	20 (2.1)				
Chinese Taipei	-10.6 (19.0)	22.8 (4.6)	16.9 (2.0)	5.7 (0.8)	5.3 (0.9)	1.7 (2.6)	13.6 (1.6)	16 (1.5)				
Colombia	-54.8 (17.2)	8.2 (11.5)	15.6 (1.8)	1.3 (0.4)	7.7 (1.9)	6.1 (2.8)	4.0 (1.4)	10 (1.5)				
Cyprus	1.7 (9.4)	34.7 (8.7)	16.4 (1.9)	5.1 (0.7)	2.6 (0.9)	12.2 (3.9)	11.1 (2.4)	13 (1.4)				
Czech Republic †	16.2 (12.7)	25.9 (15.5)	24.6 (2.0)	-2.4 (1.0)	10.5 (1.0)	16.4 (2.6)	12.9 (1.9)	18 (1.6)				
Denmark †	-45.8 (9.4)	-19.1 (9.9)	15.8 (2.1)	3.2 (1.0)	8.2 (0.9)	15.6 (4.1)	29.2 (2.5)	24 (1.6)				
Dominican Republic	-39.4 (10.2)	-18.7 (9.7)	7.7 (1.6)	1.2 (0.5)	1.1 (1.4)	5.3 (3.2)	1.3 (2.3)	4 (1.1)				
England †	-4.0 (8.7)	20.6 (9.1)	27.7 (3.3)	0.5 (1.3)	11.2 (1.3)	17.7 (5.6)	16.7 (2.8)	25 (3.0)				
Estonia	-33.8 (8.8)	36.9 (11.1)	26.5 (2.3)	1.1 (1.0)	4.8 (1.1)	10.6 (3.9)	18.1 (3.0)	19 (2.3)				
Finland	-14.7 (13.1)	43.8 (10.5)	9.8 (1.9)	5.1 (0.9)	6.9 (1.2)	1.8 (4.3)	20.3 (2.4)	15 (1.5)				
Greece	-15.8 (9.0)	30.9 (11.9)	16.3 (2.9)	2.8 (0.9)	2.9 (1.0)	32.7 (4.4)	5.5 (2.5)	14 (1.7)				
Guatemala ¹	-29.0 (11.0)	43.7 (9.8)	19.6 (3.8)	3.6 (0.4)	0.7 (1.5)	6.8 (3.5)	-3.9 (2.0)	20 (4.1)				
Indonesia	-32.4 (11.4)	-6.5 (6.2)	11.6 (1.8)	2.0 (0.6)	-2.2 (1.2)	4.9 (3.6)	7.5 (1.6)	8 (1.9)				
Ireland	-25.0 (6.8)	21.4 (7.5)	20.1 (2.9)	3.6 (1.0)	9.6 (1.2)	10.0 (5.6)	21.5 (2.4)	21 (1.9)				
Italy	-6.2 (10.9)	32.6 (11.9)	18.1 (1.9)	2.3 (0.6)	6.6 (0.7)	5.6 (4.9)	14.4 (2.1)	19 (1.7)				
Korea, Republic of ¹	-133.1 (41.2)	43.1 (23.2)	9.2 (1.8)	3.0 (0.6)	8.2 (0.7)	4.7 (4.9)	17.0 (1.5)	15 (1.4)				
Latvia	-1.8 (9.8)	38.7 (8.8)	8.7 (2.3)	5.3 (1.1)	5.5 (0.9)	1.1 (5.8)	16.0 (2.5)	13 (1.7)				
Liechtenstein	-14.7 (10.3)	49.5 (17.1)	26.0 (5.6)	0.7 (1.7)	5.5 (2.0)	6.8 (12.5)	8.7 (5.6)	28 (4.3)				

Table 7.8: Regression model for students' civic knowledge predicted by family background variables (contd.)

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients*										Proportion of unique variance explained by each factor and of variance explained by more than one predictor block
	Immigrant background (0=no immigrant background; 1=immigrant background)	Test language (0=other language; 1=test language)	Parental occupation (standardized SEI score)	Parental education (years)	Number of books at home (in hundreds)	Parental interest (0=not or not very interested; 1=quite or very interested)	Discussions with parents about political or social issues (0=never; 1=monthly; 2=weekly or daily)	Percentage of explained variance			
Lithuania	-18.5 (10.4)	19.7 (10.4)	14.7 (2.0)	5.1 (0.8)	7.0 (1.0)	7.8 (4.1)	10.0 (2.1)	16 (1.8)			
Luxembourg	-21.0 (4.4)	10.7 (5.8)	20.4 (2.3)	1.4 (0.6)	6.8 (0.6)	14.0 (4.4)	11.0 (1.7)	24 (1.7)			
Malta	-11.4 (20.5)	-0.1 (6.6)	21.5 (2.5)	2.4 (1.1)	5.6 (1.4)	14.5 (6.8)	13.9 (3.0)	14 (2.1)			
Mexico	-47.0 (9.1)	27.2 (9.4)	9.9 (1.6)	3.5 (0.4)	3.7 (1.3)	-2.2 (3.2)	8.3 (2.0)	11 (1.6)			
New Zealand †	-4.8 (5.7)	49.5 (10.8)	26.1 (3.1)	4.6 (1.3)	8.1 (1.3)	17.5 (5.7)	11.7 (2.7)	18 (2.0)			
Norway †	-24.4 (12.7)	9.3 (12.3)	16.7 (2.3)	4.7 (1.1)	7.8 (0.9)	19.5 (4.7)	15.8 (2.5)	20 (2.1)			
Paraguay ¹	23.8 (12.7)	36.9 (4.7)	12.2 (2.9)	2.5 (0.6)	12.0 (2.4)	6.0 (5.5)	9.6 (2.1)	21 (2.5)			
Poland	13.8 (13.8)	55.7 (17.9)	24.2 (2.7)	3.6 (1.2)	6.2 (1.1)	3.0 (5.6)	17.5 (2.3)	17 (1.8)			
Russian Federation	-2.5 (7.5)	36.3 (6.6)	18.3 (2.1)	2.9 (0.8)	5.1 (1.0)	10.5 (4.5)	13.6 (2.7)	14 (1.6)			
Slovak Republic ²	-2.5 (19.3)	50.3 (12.2)	24.3 (2.7)	-0.1 (1.1)	8.7 (1.1)	14.2 (4.1)	9.7 (2.5)	17 (2.1)			
Slovenia	-14.8 (6.5)	17.1 (8.4)	17.1 (1.8)	2.2 (1.1)	3.0 (1.3)	13.8 (4.2)	18.4 (2.7)	14 (1.6)			
Spain	-24.7 (7.0)	17.8 (8.0)	14.7 (2.0)	2.9 (0.5)	4.5 (1.0)	11.3 (3.7)	16.1 (2.2)	20 (1.9)			
Sweden	-11.0 (10.0)	27.0 (11.5)	20.7 (2.3)	4.4 (1.2)	8.6 (1.0)	2.8 (4.2)	19.8 (3.0)	21 (2.0)			
Switzerland †	-10.9 (5.7)	28.3 (8.6)	16.7 (2.7)	2.6 (0.8)	3.8 (1.1)	13.4 (6.6)	12.5 (2.3)	21 (2.2)			
Thailand †	22.5 (15.8)	18.1 (9.2)	17.8 (2.4)	2.5 (0.6)	1.9 (1.2)	3.4 (3.7)	8.5 (1.8)	11 (2.1)			
ICCS average	-16.1 (2.3)	28.1 (1.8)	18.0 (0.4)	2.9 (0.2)	5.8 (0.2)	9.7 (0.8)	13.0 (0.4)	17 (0.3)			
Countries not meeting sampling requirements											
Hong Kong SAR	30.3 (5.2)	10.7 (8.8)	5.8 (3.7)	1.7 (0.8)	2.5 (1.6)	2.4 (4.8)	15.5 (3.3)	4.9 (1.2)			
Netherlands	-40.9 (12.9)	-9.5 (7.3)	10.9 (4.6)	1.4 (1.7)	7.1 (1.9)	20.4 (6.7)	17.0 (4.8)	14.2 (3.2)			

■ Variance uniquely explained by immigration/language factors
 ■ Variance uniquely explained by parental interest and levels of discussions with parents
 ■ Variance uniquely explained by parental occupation, parental education, and number of books
 □ Variance explained by all factors

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
- () Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because some 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 7.9: Regression model for students' interest in political and social issues predicted by family background variables

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients*											Proportion of unique variance explained by each factor and of variance explained by more than one predictor block	
	Immigrant background (0=no immigrant background; 1=immigrant background)	Test language (0=other language; 1=test language)	Parental occupation (standardized SEI score)	Parental education (years)	Number of books at home (in hundreds)	Parental interest (0=not or not very interested; 1=quite or very interested)	Discussions with parents about political or social issues (0=never; 1=monthly; 2=weekly or daily)	Percentage of explained variance					
Austria	0.9 (0.7)	-0.3 (0.7)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	4.4 (0.5)	4.2 (0.2)	22 (1.5)					
Belgium (Flemish) †	1.8 (0.9)	-2.3 (0.9)	-0.6 (0.3)	0.0 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.1)	5.0 (0.5)	4.2 (0.2)	18 (1.4)					
Bulgaria	-1.3 (3.5)	-0.4 (0.7)	-0.3 (0.2)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	4.3 (0.4)	3.1 (0.2)	15 (1.5)					
Chile	-0.6 (1.7)	1.1 (1.8)	-0.4 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	4.3 (0.3)	3.0 (0.2)	15 (1.0)					
Chinese Taipei	-0.8 (1.4)	-0.1 (0.4)	0.5 (0.2)	0.2 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	3.4 (0.2)	3.6 (0.2)	18 (1.0)					
Colombia	3.1 (1.5)	-2.8 (1.5)	-0.9 (0.2)	0.0 (0.0)	0.0 (0.2)	4.2 (0.2)	2.7 (0.2)	13 (1.1)					
Cyprus	2.6 (1.1)	-0.1 (1.2)	-0.2 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	4.3 (0.5)	3.7 (0.2)	12 (1.1)					
Czech Republic †	0.9 (1.0)	0.2 (1.1)	0.1 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	3.8 (0.3)	4.7 (0.2)	25 (1.2)					
Denmark †	2.0 (0.5)	-1.5 (0.7)	0.5 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	3.2 (0.3)	5.4 (0.2)	33 (1.4)					
Dominican Republic	1.9 (1.4)	1.4 (1.2)	-0.3 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	-0.2 (0.1)	2.9 (0.4)	2.1 (0.2)	6 (0.8)					
England ‡	1.7 (0.8)	-2.3 (0.9)	0.3 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	5.8 (0.5)	4.0 (0.3)	27 (2.2)					
Estonia	1.4 (0.7)	0.5 (0.7)	-0.2 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	4.0 (0.4)	3.5 (0.2)	22 (1.4)					
Finland	1.7 (1.5)	-1.0 (1.4)	0.1 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	5.2 (0.4)	5.2 (0.3)	25 (1.6)					
Greece	0.1 (0.8)	-0.6 (1.0)	0.2 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	3.9 (0.5)	3.6 (0.2)	16 (1.3)					
Guatemala ¹	0.3 (1.1)	0.1 (0.6)	-0.9 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.0)	0.2 (0.2)	3.6 (0.4)	2.1 (0.2)	13 (1.4)					
Indonesia	-0.6 (0.9)	0.3 (0.3)	0.0 (0.1)	0.0 (0.0)	0.1 (0.1)	3.1 (0.4)	1.6 (0.2)	9 (1.1)					
Ireland	3.0 (0.8)	0.0 (0.9)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	5.3 (0.5)	4.6 (0.2)	24 (1.3)					
Italy	0.9 (1.0)	-0.5 (1.1)	0.1 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	3.7 (0.4)	2.8 (0.2)	13 (1.1)					
Korea, Republic of [†]	-7.7 (2.8)	5.2 (2.1)	0.2 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	3.3 (0.5)	3.6 (0.2)	18 (0.9)					
Latvia	2.8 (1.1)	-0.5 (0.8)	0.0 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	3.3 (0.6)	3.1 (0.2)	14 (1.7)					
Liechtenstein	-0.8 (1.1)	-3.3 (1.6)	0.7 (0.6)	0.2 (0.2)	0.4 (0.3)	4.3 (1.6)	2.9 (0.6)	21 (4.4)					
Lithuania	0.8 (0.7)	-0.9 (0.8)	0.0 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	4.5 (0.6)	3.6 (0.2)	17 (1.5)					
Luxembourg	3.3 (0.5)	0.4 (0.6)	0.0 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	4.1 (0.4)	3.8 (0.2)	17 (1.3)					
Malta	2.5 (1.6)	-0.1 (0.6)	0.1 (0.3)	0.0 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	4.2 (0.6)	3.3 (0.3)	14 (2.0)					
Mexico	2.1 (0.9)	-1.2 (0.9)	-0.4 (0.2)	-0.2 (0.0)	-0.2 (0.2)	4.0 (0.3)	2.2 (0.2)	10 (0.9)					
New Zealand †	2.4 (0.6)	-1.3 (0.7)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.0 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	5.5 (0.6)	4.2 (0.3)	23 (1.9)					
Norway †	2.2 (1.4)	-1.6 (1.4)	0.8 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	4.3 (0.6)	5.0 (0.2)	25 (1.9)					
Paraguay [†]	0.8 (1.0)	-1.0 (0.4)	-0.4 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	-0.2 (0.2)	3.5 (0.4)	2.4 (0.3)	11 (1.4)					
Poland	2.1 (1.9)	-1.7 (1.6)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	4.8 (0.5)	4.4 (0.2)	22 (1.4)					

Table 7.9: Regression model for students' interest in political and social issues predicted by family background variables (contd.)

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients*										Proportion of unique variance explained by each factor and of variance explained by more than one predictor block
	Immigrant background (0=no immigrant background; 1=immigrant background)	Test language (0=other language; 1=test language)	Parental occupation (standardized SEI score)	Parental education (years)	Number of books at home (in hundreds)	Parental interest (0=not or not very interested; 1=quite or very interested)	Discussions with parents about political or social issues (0=never, 1=monthly, 2=weekly or daily)	Percentage of explained variance			
Russian Federation	0.4 (0.6)	-2.0 (0.7)	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	3.1 (0.4)	3.4 (0.2)	18 (1.5)			
Slovak Republic ²	-2.5 (1.9)	1.4 (0.8)	-0.2 (0.2)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	4.4 (0.4)	3.6 (0.2)	19 (1.4)			
Slovenia	0.2 (0.8)	0.8 (0.9)	-0.5 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	3.7 (0.4)	5.3 (0.3)	17 (1.4)			
Spain	2.1 (0.7)	0.9 (0.5)	-0.4 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	-0.2 (0.1)	3.6 (0.4)	3.6 (0.2)	15 (1.4)			
Sweden	2.7 (0.8)	-1.1 (1.0)	0.2 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	4.5 (0.4)	5.9 (0.3)	30 (1.8)			
Switzerland †	2.7 (0.7)	-0.1 (0.8)	-0.4 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	4.7 (0.7)	3.6 (0.2)	21 (1.8)			
Thailand †	1.1 (0.7)	0.2 (0.6)	-0.2 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.0)	0.2 (0.1)	2.7 (0.5)	1.7 (0.1)	7 (0.8)			
ICCS average	1.0 (0.2)	-0.4 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.0)	0.0 (0.0)	0.1 (0.0)	4.1 (0.1)	3.6 (0.0)	18 (0.3)			
Countries not meeting sampling requirements											
Hong Kong SAR	1.5 (0.4)	0.7 (0.9)	-0.2 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	3.3 (0.5)	3.8 (0.3)	18 (1.6)			
Netherlands	2.1 (1.2)	-1.2 (0.8)	0.0 (0.3)	0.2 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	3.6 (0.7)	3.9 (0.3)	20 (1.5)			

■ Variance uniquely explained by immigration/language factors
 ■ Variance uniquely explained by parental interest and levels of discussions with parents
 □ Variance uniquely explained by parental occupation, parental education, and number of books
 □ Variance explained by all factors

Notes:

- * Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
- () Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because some 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



On average, the net influence of language background on students' interest in politics and social issues was small, averaging 0.4 scale points. However, in Liechtenstein, the net influence of language spoken at home was three points, and in Belgium (Flemish), England, and the Russian Federation, the net difference was two scale points (or 0.2 of a standard deviation), with students speaking another language at home reporting higher levels of interest.

Socioeconomic background had a much smaller influence on student interest in politics and social issues than it did on civic knowledge. For all three variables in this block, the average regression coefficients (indicating the net effects of the variables) were close to zero. Although some statistically significant coefficients for the three variables emerged in several countries, none of these coefficients was of notable magnitude.

The data also showed, across ICCS countries, moderate effects of home orientation with respect to political and social issues. On average, the net cross-national effect for parental interest in politics and social issues on students' interest in politics and social issues was four points. In other words, the difference in interest between students who reported at least one of their parents as being quite or very interested in political and social issues was a little less than half a standard deviation. The effect was greatest (a little under six points) in England and New Zealand.

Variance explained

As shown in Table 7.9, the combination of these family background measures accounted for, on average, 18 percent of the within-country variance in students' interest in politics and social issues. The countries in which a great deal of the within-country variance was explained by family background were Denmark (33%), Sweden (30%), and England (27%), as well as the Czech Republic, Finland, and Norway, (all 25%). Family background explained relatively little of the variance in student interest in the Dominican Republic (6%), Thailand (7%), and Indonesia (9%).

Table 7.9 also shows graphically the percentage of variance uniquely explained by each block of variables. On average, less than one percent of within-country variance in student interest in social and political issues could be attributed to the two blocks of variables associated with cultural background or socioeconomic background.

The block of variables associated with home orientation toward political and social issues accounted for an average of about 15 percent of the within-country variance in student interest in social and political issues. This percentage was greatest for Denmark, Finland, and Sweden. Only small percentages of variance were uniquely explained by these combined variables in the Dominican Republic (6%) and Thailand (7%).

On average, across the ICCS countries, less than two percent of the variance in student interest in social and political issues was attributable to blocks of factors in combination. Thus, in most countries, the influence of home orientation with respect to social and political issues operated uniquely and relatively independently of either immigrant and language background or socioeconomic background.

Summary of findings

Our examination of ICCS data indicated that aspects of family background influence civic knowledge. The aspect of family background most strongly and consistently associated with civic knowledge was socioeconomic background. However, the strength of this association varied considerably across countries. In some countries, there was relatively little difference



in the civic knowledge scores of students from enriched socioeconomic backgrounds and of students from less-advantaged socioeconomic backgrounds. In other countries, the differences associated with socioeconomic background were considerably larger. There were also associations between civic knowledge and home orientations toward social and political issues and between civic knowledge and immigrant background.

Our analyses of these data from ICCS also showed that immigrant/language or socioeconomic background had little influence on students' interest in politics and social issues. The influence of home orientation toward social and political issues on this area of interest was, however, relatively high.

There is much more to be understood about how interactions in homes shape students' interests. The findings of our analyses suggest that parental interest in and discussion about political and social issues plays an important role in this shaping. Our findings also show that this effect is mainly independent of any concomitant influences of socioeconomic background.

Differences in the effects of family background on the cognitive and affective outcomes assessed in ICCS may be linked not only to the ways in which students learn civics and citizenship in schools but also to broader aspects of social participation. Putnam (1993, p. 185) sees social capital as the "key to making democracy work." His view builds on Coleman's (1988) concept of social capital as a construct generated by the relational structure of interactions inside and outside the family that facilitates learning outcomes and participation in a society.



CHAPTER 8:

Explaining variation in learning outcomes

The research questions that we address in this chapter are 5 and 6:

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

Our work in relation to this chapter involved combining, in multivariate models, background factors reflecting the participating students' learning contexts as well as variables denoting students' civic-related attitudes. We conducted this work as part of our effort to explain variations in students' civic knowledge scores and in students' expected electoral participation and expected active political participation on reaching adulthood.

In previous chapters, we described a large number of different civic outcomes among students and learning contexts. We also explored some of the bivariate relationships between variables, and we used multivariate regression models to review the influence of home background. However, combining a wider range of individual and context variables in order to explore to what extent they relate to civic knowledge and engagement is also important. We accordingly offer the analyses presented in this chapter as a starting point for future research directed at further exploration of some of the main factors associated with students' civic knowledge, expected electoral participation, and expected active political participation.

Civic knowledge

Prior research on factors associated with civic knowledge

Numerous national and international studies report analyses of factors that influence students' civic knowledge. The first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971 found gender (male), socioeconomic background, and open classroom climate to be positive predictors of civic knowledge (Torney, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975).

General literacy plays a crucial role in acquiring knowledge related to civic and citizenship. Chall and Henry (1991) note that considerably more than a minimum level of literacy is required for understanding documents such as constitutions or for locating information in sources such as newspapers. Their claim receives support from the findings of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in the United States, a program that regularly tests samples of students at Grades 4, 8, and 12 (ages approximately 9, 13, and 17 years) in various subject areas and topics, including civics and citizenship. Use of English at home also has a significant influence on test performance (Niemi & Junn, 1998), a finding that is consistent with the proposition that proficiency in reading is important for understanding political communication.

Lutkus and Weiss (2007) showed, for the United States, positive associations between civic knowledge and higher parental education and family income. Their work confirmed earlier findings by Niemi and Junn (1998) of differences in civic knowledge between students from high-socioeconomic backgrounds and students from low-socioeconomic backgrounds. Hart, Atkins, Markey, and Youniss (2004) found that neighborhoods with high percentages of adolescents recorded low levels of civic knowledge but high participation in volunteer activities (see also Torney-Purta, Wilkenfeld, & Barber, 2008). Analyses of CIVED data showed effects of school context on civic knowledge, such as average school home literacy or average



perceptions of open classroom climate (Schulz, 2002). These analyses also showed interaction effects between neighborhood contexts and school environment on levels of civic knowledge. Here, school aggregate levels of confidence in student participation had significant effects on civic knowledge only in poor neighborhoods (Wilkenfeld, 2009).

In their analysis of 1988 NAEP data, Niemi and Junn (1998) introduced an “exposure-selection model.” They postulated that, in order to acquire civic knowledge, students need to be exposed to relevant information in this field and must be motivated to learn this information. The indicators of exposure that Niemi and Junn identified consisted mainly of home-environment and school-related factors, such as curriculum, course work, and recency of study. The two authors saw individual factors—among them planning for college, participation in mock-elections, and liking studying government-related matters—as indicators of selection of information. The two researchers also found, after controlling for other variables in a multiple regression model, that taking classes in which civic topics were studied and participating in role-playing elections or mock trials had positive effects on students’ civic knowledge.

Using data from the IEA Civic Education Study in 1999 (CIVED), and with the aim of predicting determinants of civic knowledge, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, and Schulz (2001) estimated multivariate models for each participating country by regressing scores on several indicators of home background, school, and individual (student) characteristics. Gender (female) had a moderate negative effect in 11 countries, and frequency of watching news on television had a significant positive effect in about half of the countries. Spending evenings outside the home was negatively associated with civic knowledge in all but four countries. Levels of expected further education and home literacy, perceptions of openness in classroom discussions, and student interest in public affairs programs on television also emerged as predictors of civic knowledge scores. Amadeo, Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Husfeldt, and Nikolova’s (2002) regression analysis of civic knowledge with data from the CIVED survey of upper-secondary students largely confirmed these results. Amadeo et al.’s analysis also showed that interest in politics served as a positive predictor in a number of countries.

Further secondary analyses of CIVED data revealed different patterns of effects depending on the characteristics of each national context. Schulz (2002) used multilevel analyses to predict civic knowledge and to identify regional patterns of associations. These analyses largely confirmed findings from earlier studies but also revealed variations in school-level and student-level effects among countries. When Torney-Purta, Richardson, and Barber (2005) reviewed the link between teacher factors and civic knowledge, they found evidence that teachers’ experience and confidence had an influence, but only in some of the countries included in the analysis. The study by Torney-Purta and colleagues also highlighted differences between countries with respect to teacher preparation and civic education.

A model for explaining civic knowledge

An underlying assumption of the analysis model for civic knowledge that we present here is that acquisition of civic knowledge is influenced by contextual factors relating to different levels (e.g., community, school/classroom, home environment) and operating as either antecedents or processes (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). Whereas antecedents (factors such as gender, socioeconomic background, and school resources) set the constraints for student learning about civic-related issues and how that learning takes place, factors directly related to the learning process (classroom instruction, student activities) are also important elements of context potentially influencing the development of civic-related knowledge and understanding.

The model that we developed is underpinned by several key theories and perspectives. One is the ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), which proposes that multiple systems



interacting with one another influence young people's cognitive development. Contacts with family, school, peer group, and neighborhood all contribute to the development of adolescents' knowledge and understanding and act as agents of socialization. Another assumption within this theory is that adolescents play an important role in shaping the ways in which these environments affect their development.

Another perspective on the influence that multiple interacting factors have on the development of knowledge and understanding comes from theories of economic, cultural, and social capital (Bourdieu, 1986). Economic capital, as a resource for human capital (skills, knowledge, and qualifications), along with cultural capital (habits and dispositions) and social capital (societal links to other people) provide important elements shaping the development of adolescents. Even though this perspective emphasizes the importance of socioeconomic background, it also recognizes the relevance of other forms of resources, including those arising out of interactions with other people. Social capital (Coleman, 1988) is of particular relevance in the context of civic-related learning. Generated by the relational structure of interactions inside and outside the family, it facilitates the success of an individual's actions as well as his or her learning outcomes.

During our efforts to explain the variation in the ICCS students' civic knowledge scores, we drew on the above perspectives as well as findings of prior research and the ICCS survey to determine which predictors of variation to use in the multivariate analyses conducted in order to establish an explanatory model. The predictors we used relate to the following broad categories.

- *Student background:* Previous research and the results of this study (see Chapters 3 and 7) identify several student characteristics, including gender and language use, as factors associated with how much students know about civic-related issues.
- *Home background:* As shown in Chapter 7, parental socioeconomic status and home orientation (parental interest and parent-child communication) are factors associated with students' civic-related learning outcomes. These factors appear to be ones that operate through the provision of a more stimulating environment and so have the potential to enhance students' future prospects and educational attainment. The activities that adolescents undertake in their homes, such as information-seeking, also seem to constitute a factor that increases young people's levels of civic knowledge (see Chapter 5).
- *Individual learning context:* Prior research identifies a number of factors related to the learning context at school that are associated with civic knowledge. These include student aspirations, experience with elections, and perceptions of opportunities for open discussions.
- *School characteristics:* Many studies show that school characteristics, such as the average socioeconomic status of the student body, school location (urban versus rural), and neighborhood or community context have a potential influence on outcomes of civic learning.
- *School learning contexts:* There is some evidence that the learning context of the school may have effects over and above those at the individual level and after controlling for the socioeconomic context. The school learning context includes students' sense of belonging to the school, students' (averaged) perceptions of the extent to which classrooms are open to discussion, and students' general engagement levels at school.

The individual student-background characteristics that we included in our analysis were:

- *Gender:* We coded this variable 1 for females and 0 for males.
- *Use of other language at home:* This variable reflects whether students reported speaking another language than the test language most of the time at home (1 = yes, 0 = no).



The variables that we used as indicators of students' home backgrounds, including access to communication and media information, were as follows:

- *Index of family socioeconomic background* (standardized to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each country): As prior research and findings from ICCS in Chapter 7 show, socioeconomic background is positively associated with civic knowledge. The index consisted of factor scores from a principal component analysis of
 - highest parental occupation (ISEI scores),
 - highest parental education (ISCED levels in approximate years of education), and
 - number of books at home.

Chapter 7 provides detailed descriptions of these indices. Higher scores on the index reflect higher socioeconomic status.

- *Reported parental interest in political and social issues* (0 = both parents not interested or not very interested, 1 = at least one parent quite interested or very interested): This variable reflects parents' home orientation (see Chapter 7 for more detail regarding the recoding of this variable).
- *Frequency of discussion of political and social issues with parents* (three-point scale, in which 0 = never or hardly ever, 1 = monthly, 2 = weekly or daily): This variable, recoded from a four-point scale, reflects the occurrence of communication with parents about civic-related themes (see Chapter 7 for more detail).
- *Frequency of students' use of media information on political and social issues* (four-point scale, in which 0 = never or hardly ever, 1 = monthly, 2 = weekly, 3 = daily): We computed this variable as the highest frequency reported by students when they were asked how often (1) they watched television or (2) read newspapers to inform themselves about national and international news (see Chapter 5 for more detail). The variable reflects communication-seeking behavior and exposure to information about civic-related issues.

The following variables used in our analyses relate to students' individual learning contexts.

- *Expected education*: Students were asked about the highest educational level they expected to complete. Because this variable reflects an intended engagement with education, it is an important potential predictor of civic knowledge, parental expectations, and individual aspirations. We used the international ISCED classifications to determine education levels and then transformed these into approximate total years of expected further education.
- *Perception of openness with respect to classroom discussions of political and social issues*: We standardized this predictor, which is an IRT (item response theory) scale, to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 at the student level within each participating country. The variable is based on the ICCS students' reports about the frequency with which they observed certain events during discussions of political and social issues in class (see more detailed information in Chapter 6), and it reflects the extent to which students consider they are free to express opinions in class and to discuss civic-related issues.
- *Recent voting for class representative or school parliament* (0 = never voted or voted more than 12 months ago, 1 = voted within the last 12 months): This variable reflects students' recent personal experience with democratic decision-making at school (see Chapter 5).

The school-level variables that we used as reflections of school characteristics were:

- *School socioeconomic context*: We computed this variable as the average of student scores on the composite index of socioeconomic background. It reflects the "social intake" of schools and the social context in which students learn. We standardized the scale to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 at the school level within each participating country.



- *School location*: This variable, derived from the school questionnaire, asked principals about the size of the community beyond the school (1 = schools in communities with over 15,000 inhabitants, 0 = rural schools). In some countries, the distinction between rural and urban schools is important and has implications for resources, learning opportunities, and community context.
- *Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the local community*: This measure, based on a school questionnaire IRT scale that we standardized to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each participating country, was derived from principals' ratings ("to a large extent," "to a moderate extent," "to a small extent," "not at all") of statements reflecting 12 possible sources of social tensions in the local community. The scale had an international reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.88 (see Chapter 6). We consider this measure to be an indicator of social problems in the community that have the potential to adversely affect civic-related learning outcomes.

We used the following school-level variables as reflections of the school learning context:

- *Principals' perceptions of students' sense of belonging to the school*: We standardized this measure, based on a school questionnaire IRT scale, to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each participating country. We derived it from principals' ratings ("to a large extent," "to a moderate extent," "to a small extent," "not at all") of statements describing four possible student behaviors.¹ The scale had an international reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.79. We saw this measure as an indicator of school climate in general and of the extent to which the school environment supports engagement and learning in particular.
- *School average of open classroom climate*: This measure, derived as the average student score on perceptions of openness in classroom discussions² of political and social issues, provides a measure of the extent to which classes at school are receptive (open) to students discussing civic-related themes. We standardized the scale score to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 at the school level within each participating country.
- *School percentage of student electoral participation*: We based this measure on the percentage of students who reported that they had participated in classroom or school parliamentary elections during the last 12 months. We considered that this variable would provide an indicator of students' general civic engagement at school—engagement that might, in turn, influence students' acquisition of civic knowledge.

During multivariate analyses, issues relating to missing data are more prevalent than in other forms of analysis because of the simultaneous inclusion of numerous variables. To address the missing data issue, we first excluded from the analyses the small proportion of students for whom there was no student questionnaire data and then adjusted the indicator variable for the remaining students (Cohen & Cohen, 1975).³ The tables that we present in this chapter do not include the country-level results for missing indicator variables. More detailed information on the multilevel modeling and treatment of missing data will appear in the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

1 The statements were "Students enjoy being in school," "Students work with enthusiasm," "Students take pride in this school," and "Students feel part of the school community."

2 The scale is described above as one of the student-level predictors related to the school context.

3 Generally, there are two types of missing data: (1) no questionnaire data at all, either for the student or their school, and (2) no data for individual variables. For the final model, 92 percent of cases, on average, remained in the analysis (the across-country range was 70 to 98 percent). In two countries (the Dominican Republic and Paraguay), just over 15 percent of the samples were excluded; their results were annotated in the tables. Not unexpectedly, students with missing data tended to have lower civic knowledge scores. On average across countries, and after controlling for all other variables in the model, we found that the negative effects of having missing data were -30 civic knowledge score points for expected years of education and for media information, -21 for openness in classroom discussions, -12 for discussions of political and social issues with parents, and -23 for parental interest. Students from schools with missing school-questionnaire data scored, on average, four points below the average score for all other students.



Given the hierarchical nature of the data and the finding from our three-level analysis that, overall, almost a quarter of the total variance was between schools (see Chapter 3), we decided to undertake the multivariate regression as a multilevel analysis (see Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). We thus estimated, for each national sample, two-level hierarchical models with students nested within schools. We excluded from the analysis those countries where IEA sample participation requirements had not been met or where there were fewer than 50 schools. The countries that we did not include were Hong Kong SAR, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands.

Because, in most countries, the ICCS research team sampled one intact classroom per school, we could not disentangle classroom-level and school-level variance. In two small countries (Cyprus and Malta), two classrooms in each school were sampled; in a few other countries, more than one classroom in each school was sampled. This situation needs to be taken into account when interpreting these results. We used the software package HLM 6.08 (Raudenbush, Bryk, Cheong, & Congdon, 2004) to estimate the models and data at the school and student levels. This software package allows estimation of results for sets of plausible values.

When interpreting results from a multilevel analysis, one should always keep in mind that effects at the first (student) level have a different meaning from those in a single-level regression analysis. This is because student-level effects reflect the effect a variable has within schools. Multilevel analysis also allows one to estimate random effects models, where within-school effects vary across schools. However, in this first analysis of ICCS data regarding factors influencing civic knowledge, we estimated all student-level effects as fixed effects that did not vary across schools.

It is also important, when interpreting the regression coefficients, to note that scores for all scales (at the student or the school level) are standardized to a unit reflecting national standard deviations. Consequently, the effect coefficients for the student-level or school-level scales indicate the change in score points on the international civic knowledge scale in terms of one national standard deviation. However, the coefficients for the categorical variable (e.g., gender) reflect the effect with respect to the change in one category. We considered this approach appropriate because all the analyses reported in this chapter were replicated within-country analyses.⁴

When conducting the multilevel analysis of civic knowledge, we estimated five different models:

- Model 0 (“null model”): included no predictor variables;
- Model 1: included only student and home-background variables as predictors;
- Model 2: added in the above individual-learning-context variables;
- Model 3: added in the above school characteristics;
- Model 4: added in the above school-learning-context variables.

Because Model 0 provides estimates of the variance at each level (within and between schools) before the inclusion of predictors, it provides the point from which to determine how much the subsequent models explain the variance. Model 4 is the full model because it includes all predictors. Models 1 to 3 provide information about how much of the variance is explained at each step of adding in predictors from the previous set of variables.



⁴ A consequence of this approach is that it does not invoke assumptions about the cross-national validity of the socioeconomic index (SEI) scale.

Analysis of influences on civic knowledge

In order to provide an overview of the multilevel modeling results, we summarized, in Table 8.1, the average effect sizes for each of the four models and the number of countries with significant positive or negative coefficients. As can be seen from the results at the country level in Table 8.2 (student-level predictors) and Table 8.3 (school-level predictors), there was considerable variation in the size and even the direction of effects. The country-level results for Models 1, 2, and 3 are included in Appendix F.

Table 8.1: Overview of multilevel analysis results for civic knowledge

Predictor Variables	Average Effects across Countries				Number of Countries Where Predictor in Model 4 Had a Significant Effect	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Positive effect	Negative effect
Student background						
Gender (female)	20.5 (0.7)	12.9 (0.6)	12.9 (0.6)	12.8 (0.6)	25	0
Use of other language at home	-25.9 (1.8)	-22.6 (1.6)	-22.3 (1.6)	-22.2 (1.6)	1	25
Home background						
Index of socioeconomic background	17.8 (0.4)	12.8 (0.3)	11.4 (0.3)	11.5 (0.3)	31	0
Parental interest in political/social issues	5.6 (0.7)	1.9 (0.7)	1.7 (0.7)	1.7 (0.7)	4	2
Discussion with parents of political/social issues	9.1 (0.4)	5.9 (0.4)	5.9 (0.4)	5.9 (0.4)	22	2
Media information on political/social issues	7.5 (0.3)	4.9 (0.3)	5.0 (0.3)	4.9 (0.3)	27	0
Individual learning context						
Expected years of further education		8.8 (0.2)	8.7 (0.2)	8.7 (0.2)	33	0
Perception of openness in classroom discussions		9.1 (0.3)	9.0 (0.3)	8.6 (0.3)	27	0
Voting for class representative or school parliament		17.0 (0.6)	16.9 (0.6)	16.9 (0.7)	29	0
School characteristics						
School average of socioeconomic background			16.2 (0.8)	14.6 (0.8)	24	0
School location (rural)			-1.0 (1.4)	-0.4 (1.3)	1	1
Social tensions in local community			-2.9 (0.6)	-2.3 (0.6)	0	2
School learning context						
Students' sense of belonging				1.5 (0.6)	5	1
School average of openness in class discussions				6.1 (0.7)	12	0
Percentage of student electoral participation at school				0.0 (0.0)	2	1

Note:

Coefficients statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ in **bold**.

() Standard errors appear in parentheses.





Table 8.2. Student-level results from multilevel analysis of civic knowledge

Country	Student Background			Home Background				Individual Learning Context			
	Gender (female)	Use of other language at home	Index of socioeconomic background	Parental interest in political/social issues	Discussion with parents of political/social issues	Media information on political/social issues	Expected years of further education	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Voting for class representative or school parliament		
Austria	12.1 (4.3)	-47.5 (5.4)	8.1 (2.9)	14.0 (4.7)	7.6 (2.6)	5.8 (1.7)	6.7 (1.0)	8.0 (1.7)	16.1 (4.2)		
Belgium (Flemish) †	-1.5 (3.6)	-32.9 (5.1)	8.3 (1.7)	-3.5 (3.4)	9.7 (2.0)	6.0 (1.5)	3.0 (0.8)	0.2 (0.2)	13.4 (3.2)		
Bulgaria	9.6 (3.6)	-18.4 (6.8)	8.4 (2.8)	0.2 (4.7)	0.9 (2.3)	6.8 (2.0)	3.9 (0.7)	14.9 (2.3)	5.0 (4.3)		
Chile	2.4 (3.2)	-44.9 (14.2)	10.1 (2.1)	0.5 (3.0)	6.5 (1.5)	8.9 (1.5)	5.2 (0.7)	8.2 (1.6)	18.1 (3.2)		
Chinese Taipei	14.8 (3.2)	-13.4 (4.5)	12.0 (1.8)	-0.4 (3.6)	4.2 (1.7)	11.0 (1.9)	16.2 (1.1)	8.6 (1.9)	19.8 (3.2)		
Colombia	4.1 (2.5)	-8.1 (8.1)	7.6 (1.4)	0.3 (2.3)	-1.3 (1.5)	3.4 (1.5)	4.4 (0.8)	15.6 (1.3)	23.5 (2.8)		
Cyprus [^]	27.3 (3.5)	-19.0 (6.4)	18.2 (1.7)	6.6 (3.6)	3.4 (2.3)	5.6 (1.5)	8.6 (0.7)	10.8 (1.5)	31.4 (3.5)		
Czech Republic †	8.2 (2.4)	-20.6 (10.0)	8.4 (1.5)	9.2 (2.8)	3.8 (1.6)	9.2 (1.5)	13.7 (0.7)	5.2 (1.2)	16.1 (2.5)		
Denmark †	5.3 (2.9)	-33.7 (7.0)	18.8 (2.1)	5.6 (3.9)	15.8 (2.1)	7.2 (1.4)	11.7 (0.9)	12.7 (1.7)	20.3 (3.3)		
Dominican Republic ~	21.7 (2.7)	2.0 (8.3)	2.0 (1.8)	4.5 (2.4)	-2.8 (1.8)	3.4 (1.1)	3.0 (0.6)	14.0 (1.3)	13.4 (2.8)		
England †	10.7 (4.0)	-20.9 (5.7)	20.5 (2.4)	-3.0 (4.4)	9.5 (2.6)	3.1 (1.5)	8.0 (1.3)	16.2 (2.4)	24.5 (4.4)		
Estonia	16.3 (4.1)	-46.3 (12.3)	11.9 (2.0)	3.7 (4.0)	10.8 (3.0)	1.8 (2.5)	11.2 (0.9)	0.6 (2.3)	7.6 (4.7)		
Finland	27.9 (3.8)	-41.4 (9.2)	19.6 (2.1)	-4.7 (5.4)	16.9 (3.3)	4.4 (2.0)	6.4 (1.0)	0.5 (1.7)	21.2 (3.9)		
Greece	19.5 (4.4)	-25.2 (8.8)	12.6 (2.4)	12.4 (4.1)	4.2 (2.4)	-1.0 (1.7)	10.3 (1.1)	15.2 (1.8)	36.2 (4.6)		
Guatemala ¹	-4.4 (2.7)	-11.9 (5.2)	8.1 (1.9)	3.8 (3.4)	-4.1 (2.1)	-1.3 (1.9)	1.1 (0.6)	11.0 (1.6)	19.5 (3.2)		
Indonesia	12.9 (2.2)	9.7 (3.4)	2.6 (1.5)	-0.5 (3.3)	-0.1 (1.5)	6.1 (1.7)	3.6 (0.5)	8.4 (1.4)	3.7 (2.5)		
Ireland	2.5 (3.9)	-36.5 (6.2)	16.5 (2.0)	-7.5 (4.4)	13.0 (2.3)	-0.1 (1.4)	10.3 (1.2)	12.1 (1.7)	11.3 (4.0)		
Italy	9.0 (3.2)	-34.2 (6.7)	15.2 (1.9)	1.9 (4.9)	8.3 (2.1)	5.8 (2.2)	10.3 (0.9)	12.3 (1.7)	-0.6 (4.9)		
Korea, Republic of ¹	12.8 (4.6)	-24.7 (24.5)	13.2 (2.0)	1.1 (5.8)	12.2 (2.2)	6.7 (1.6)	14.6 (1.5)	0.1 (1.8)	29.1 (2.6)		
Latvia	17.6 (4.5)	-25.9 (8.4)	9.4 (2.7)	-2.1 (5.7)	9.0 (2.9)	1.7 (2.4)	8.1 (1.2)	6.1 (2.3)	11.2 (4.9)		
Lithuania	17.3 (3.7)	-10.1 (8.4)	11.2 (1.8)	3.2 (4.7)	0.8 (2.1)	4.5 (2.0)	14.7 (1.0)	1.2 (1.7)	13.9 (4.0)		
Malta [^]	22.5 (6.0)	-18.8 (6.1)	8.6 (1.7)	1.5 (3.5)	7.2 (2.0)	5.6 (1.5)	5.9 (0.8)	6.0 (1.5)	11.5 (3.6)		
Mexico	19.3 (3.1)	8.4 (10.5)	6.2 (1.9)	-8.0 (3.6)	3.0 (2.7)	4.6 (1.4)	5.7 (0.6)	6.7 (1.5)	12.0 (2.7)		
New Zealand †	14.9 (3.5)	-37.1 (5.3)	12.3 (1.7)	3.6 (4.3)	4.0 (1.9)	5.1 (1.6)	14.0 (1.0)	11.0 (1.6)	16.2 (3.6)		
Norway †	11.3 (3.5)	-37.7 (6.5)	19.1 (2.0)	9.8 (5.1)	5.4 (3.2)	5.1 (2.2)	8.5 (1.1)	14.0 (2.8)	42.5 (6.4)		
Paraguay ¹ ~	14.2 (4.3)	-4.0 (4.3)	9.1 (2.1)	-1.7 (3.7)	5.7 (2.2)	2.3 (1.9)	6.6 (0.7)	10.3 (2.0)	13.3 (4.1)		

Table 8.2: Student-level results from multilevel analysis of civic knowledge (contd.)

Country	Student Background		Home Background				Individual Learning Context					
	Gender (female)	Use of other language at home	Index of socioeconomic background	Parental interest in political/social issues	Discussion with parents of political/social issues	Media information on political/social issues	Expected years of further education	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Expected years of further education	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Perception of openness in classroom discussions
Poland	20.3 (4.2)	-5.6 (20.2)	18.4 (2.2)	-14.7 (4.6)	11.9 (2.7)	5.1 (2.6)	13.6 (1.1)	6.9 (2.0)	6.9 (2.0)	13.6 (1.1)	6.9 (2.0)	38.4 (4.6)
Russian Federation	5.8 (3.4)	-19.8 (7.4)	10.0 (1.5)	4.6 (3.0)	1.2 (2.4)	3.8 (1.6)	9.5 (0.7)	11.5 (1.9)	11.5 (1.9)	9.5 (0.7)	11.5 (1.9)	3.7 (3.4)
Slovak Republic ²	5.5 (3.6)	-32.1 (10.3)	6.8 (1.9)	7.2 (3.6)	4.5 (2.3)	1.2 (2.0)	12.4 (1.0)	9.1 (1.7)	9.1 (1.7)	12.4 (1.0)	9.1 (1.7)	12.9 (3.5)
Slovenia	18.3 (3.5)	-19.8 (6.6)	14.2 (1.7)	7.9 (4.1)	9.8 (2.9)	8.5 (1.9)	16.6 (1.0)	9.1 (1.8)	9.1 (1.8)	16.6 (1.0)	9.1 (1.8)	18.5 (3.5)
Spain	10.9 (3.6)	-19.3 (6.7)	7.7 (2.0)	5.8 (3.2)	9.3 (1.9)	3.5 (1.5)	9.1 (0.7)	1.9 (1.8)	1.9 (1.8)	9.1 (0.7)	1.9 (1.8)	20.7 (3.4)
Sweden	13.1 (4.5)	-43.8 (6.6)	24.2 (2.2)	-6.6 (5.1)	10.5 (2.9)	9.2 (2.5)	10.6 (1.4)	12.5 (2.4)	12.5 (2.4)	10.6 (1.4)	12.5 (2.4)	9.6 (3.9)
Switzerland †	5.2 (3.4)	-28.4 (5.2)	10.0 (1.9)	3.9 (4.2)	5.7 (2.4)	5.6 (2.0)	2.3 (0.7)	1.1 (1.9)	1.1 (1.9)	2.3 (0.7)	1.1 (1.9)	11.2 (4.7)
Thailand †	27.3 (2.8)	8.5 (6.3)	0.7 (1.8)	-2.3 (3.7)	-5.7 (1.7)	9.3 (2.0)	5.0 (0.8)	10.5 (1.4)	10.5 (1.4)	5.0 (0.8)	10.5 (1.4)	9.0 (3.9)
ICCS average	12.8 (0.6)	-22.2 (1.6)	11.5 (0.3)	1.7 (0.7)	5.9 (0.4)	4.9 (0.3)	8.7 (0.2)	8.6 (0.3)	8.6 (0.3)	8.7 (0.2)	8.6 (0.3)	16.9 (0.7)

Notes:

- () Standard errors appear in parentheses.
- † Met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
- ‡ Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation only after replacement schools were included.
- ~ The percentages of cases included in the analysis was below 85 percent.
- ^ School census data with two classrooms per school.
- 1 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



When interpreting results from these multivariate analyses, keep in mind that these results represent net effects after we had controlled for the other factors in the model. Because of this, the effects may differ in direction from the findings that emerged from the bivariate analyses reported earlier in this publication.

After controlling for all other variables, we found that gender (female) had, on average, a positive within-school effect in Model 4 of almost 13 score points on civic knowledge. This effect was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$ level) in 25 of the 34 countries. The average effect of gender in Model 1 (student and home-background variables only) was somewhat higher (21 score points), a finding that indicates interactions between gender and learning-context variables.

Speaking another language at home was negatively associated with civic knowledge in most countries and had a within-school effect of approximately -22 score points in the final model. The effect was significant in 25 countries, but positive in only one of these countries—Indonesia.

Among the home-background variables, socioeconomic background was the most consistent positive predictor of civic knowledge. On average, in the final model, one unit (equivalent to one national standard deviation) had a within-school effect of about 12 score points. These effects were significant in all but three countries (the Dominican Republic, Indonesia, and Thailand).

Reported parental interest in political and social issues was an inconsistent predictor in the final model, where the average student-level effect was 1.7 score points. In Austria, the Czech Republic, Greece, and the Slovak Republic, having at least one quite interested or one very interested parent was positively related to civic knowledge. In Mexico and Poland, this variable was a significant negative predictor. In all other countries, the relationship was not statistically significant.

Discussing political and social issues with parents was a positive predictor in almost two thirds of the countries; the average student-level effect in Model 4 was about six score points. However, in Guatemala and Thailand, this variable had small but significant negative effects on civic knowledge. Informing oneself about political and social issues from television or newspapers had significant positive effects in a majority of countries. The average within-school effect of these variables was about five score points in the final model.

We note here that all home-background variables had, on average, larger effects in Model 1 prior to our controlling for variables related to the individual learning context. This finding is plausible given that students' expected further education is likely to be associated with socioeconomic background, home orientation toward political and social issues, and access to media-based information.

In line with findings in earlier studies (Amadeo et al., 2002; Torney-Purta et al., 2001), expected further education came forward as a positive predictor in all countries. The average student-level effect was almost nine score points per additional year of expected education (the cross-country range was 1 to almost 17 points).

In Model 4, both student perceptions of openness in classroom discussions and experience with voting at school were significant positive predictors across most of the ICCS countries. Student perceptions of an open classroom climate had, on average, a positive student-level effect of about nine score points for each national standard deviation. This effect was significant in 27 countries. Having voted for class representatives or school parliaments had, on average, positive effects of about 17 score points on civic knowledge. In the final model, the effect was significant in 29 countries.



Of the school characteristics investigated (see Table 8.3), the average socioeconomic background of the student body was the most important factor. In the final model, it had significant positive effects in 24 countries, with an estimated average school-level effect of almost 15 score points per national standard deviation. We found that the average effect was slightly stronger in Model 3 prior to our controlling for school-learning-context variables, a finding which indicates interactions between social intake and the school's learning context.

After controlling for all other school-level factors, we found that schools located in rural areas (as compared to non-rural areas) had a significant positive effect of 26 score points in New Zealand and a negative effect of almost 11 score points in Denmark. Thus, in most countries, a rural school location had no significant effect on civic knowledge.

Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community had significant negative effects in the Czech Republic and Estonia (4 and 13 points per national standard deviation respectively). We found no significant associations in any other country.

Among the predictors related to the schools' learning context, principals' perceptions of students' sense of belonging had significant positive effects in five countries (Bulgaria, the Dominican Republic, the Republic of Korea, Malta, and Poland) and a significant negative effect in Mexico. On average, there was a positive effect on school intercepts of 1.5 score points per national standard deviation. School averages of students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussion emerged as positive predictors in about a third of the countries; the average effect was six score points for each national standard deviation. The percentage of students engaged in electoral activity at school had significant positive effects on civic knowledge in only two countries—Slovenia and Spain—but a significant negative effect in Finland.

Table 8.4 shows variance estimates for each country overall at each level. The table also shows the extent to which the full model (including all predictors) explained the variance in civic knowledge scores. This information is presented in the table not only in percentages but also as a bar chart: the longer the bar, the larger the overall variance. Note that each bar's position relative to the vertical axis indicates whether more variance was found within schools (left-hand side of the axis) or between schools (right-hand side). The darker shading at each side of the vertical axis indicates how much of the variance was explained by the multilevel model.

As is evident in the table, there was a considerable range in the extent of overall variance across countries. Furthermore, the proportions of variance between schools⁵ in the second column varied considerably among countries—from 6 percent to 52 percent (with an interquartile range of 20 to 37%). Similar to findings from other international studies, countries with comprehensive education systems, such as Finland and Norway, tended to have lower proportions of variance between schools.⁶

When examining the percentage of variance explained by the model predictors for each country, we can see that, at the student level, between 9 and 31 percent (with an average of 21%) could be attributed to the student-level predictors. The percentages of explained school-level variance ranged from 31 to 85 percent, with an average of 63 percent.

Table 8.5 shows the average percentages across countries of additional variance explained by each model and the total percentage of variance explained at each level. On average, the full model explained about 21 percent of the within-school variance and about 63 percent of the between-school variance.

5 This proportion is often referred to as the intra-class correlation.

6 Note, however, that because of the sampling design, the estimates are not optimal measures of between-school variance. This is why it is not possible to disentangle between-class and between-school variance.



Table 8.3: School-level results from multilevel analysis of civic knowledge

Country	School Characteristics			School Learning Context		
	School average of socioeconomic background	School location (rural)	School tensions in local community	Students' sense of belonging	School average of openness in class discussions	Percent student electoral participation at school
Austria	20.5 (2.8)	1.0 (7.3)	-3.3 (3.5)	-1.3 (3.5)	1.8 (3.7)	0.3 (0.3)
Belgium (Flemish) †	49.4 (8.4)	4.1 (7.1)	-0.2 (0.4)	0.2 (0.3)	2.6 (0.7)	0.2 (0.2)
Bulgaria	25.7 (7.7)	-6.0 (8.9)	3.6 (4.1)	12.9 (4.8)	17.1 (6.4)	-0.2 (0.2)
Chile	23.6 (3.7)	5.6 (6.7)	-3.2 (3.6)	-1.2 (2.9)	5.8 (4.5)	0.3 (0.2)
Chinese Taipei	15.9 (3.0)	-7.6 (8.3)	-3.3 (2.4)	1.1 (2.4)	-4.6 (3.3)	0.2 (0.3)
Colombia	16.0 (4.3)	-2.7 (6.2)	-0.6 (3.2)	0.4 (3.1)	2.2 (4.6)	0.4 (0.3)
Cyprus [^]	1.9 (2.5)	1.6 (5.0)	-0.8 (2.0)	2.4 (2.4)	6.2 (2.1)	0.2 (0.2)
Czech Republic †	23.7 (2.4)	5.3 (4.7)	-3.9 (1.9)	-1.6 (1.9)	3.7 (2.6)	-0.1 (0.1)
Denmark †	13.3 (3.1)	-10.6 (5.2)	0.4 (2.3)	-0.9 (2.3)	-3.1 (3.1)	0.0 (0.1)
Dominican Republic ~	9.6 (4.5)	-8.8 (6.3)	-2.4 (2.7)	6.0 (2.9)	5.6 (3.4)	-0.3 (0.2)
England ‡	11.1 (6.1)	-0.8 (7.8)	-5.5 (4.9)	2.3 (3.7)	18.2 (4.0)	0.1 (0.2)
Estonia	9.5 (4.7)	-1.0 (6.7)	-13.1 (4.4)	-3.7 (3.5)	6.5 (4.5)	0.1 (0.2)
Finland	1.4 (3.2)	5.7 (5.5)	2.0 (2.3)	0.2 (2.4)	5.2 (2.4)	-0.3 (0.1)
Greece	2.8 (6.4)	-10.9 (8.5)	4.1 (7.8)	1.5 (4.8)	10.2 (5.2)	-0.4 (0.3)
Guatemala ¹	25.9 (4.2)	-6.5 (6.5)	2.8 (2.9)	-0.3 (2.8)	6.2 (3.5)	0.0 (0.2)
Indonesia	10.4 (3.8)	-5.4 (6.6)	-2.2 (3.3)	6.6 (4.0)	10.9 (3.6)	0.3 (0.3)
Ireland	22.4 (5.1)	0.0 (8.7)	-5.4 (5.2)	1.4 (5.1)	6.4 (4.4)	0.0 (0.2)
Italy	7.3 (3.4)	1.8 (5.3)	-3.1 (2.5)	-2.3 (2.5)	-2.3 (2.6)	-0.1 (0.1)
Korea, Republic of ¹	2.9 (2.1)	4.1 (6.2)	-3.1 (1.7)	3.7 (1.8)	0.0 (2.1)	-0.2 (0.2)
Latvia	3.9 (6.0)	-11.1 (10.5)	-6.2 (4.8)	-2.2 (5.6)	11.7 (5.2)	0.0 (0.2)
Lithuania	5.5 (4.4)	-3.2 (7.7)	-5.8 (3.7)	-3.3 (5.0)	-2.4 (5.2)	0.0 (0.2)
Malta [^]	31.8 (6.7)	10.8 (13.1)	-6.2 (4.8)	16.9 (4.5)	-3.2 (6.3)	0.3 (0.2)
Mexico	21.7 (4.2)	-1.9 (7.1)	-4.4 (2.9)	-8.3 (3.5)	12.5 (3.8)	0.1 (0.2)
New Zealand †	25.5 (4.4)	26.1 (9.8)	-5.2 (3.9)	2.1 (5.1)	16.3 (4.8)	-0.1 (0.1)
Norway †	3.7 (2.9)	2.8 (7.0)	2.7 (3.0)	-3.2 (4.7)	-0.2 (5.9)	-0.1 (0.2)
Paraguay ¹ ~	17.8 (5.2)	6.8 (9.2)	-1.5 (3.7)	-7.5 (3.9)	6.9 (5.3)	0.1 (0.2)
Poland	8.9 (4.5)	2.1 (7.7)	-1.2 (3.7)	6.8 (2.9)	5.7 (3.3)	0.5 (0.4)
Russian Federation	6.3 (6.6)	2.8 (9.6)	0.1 (4.8)	3.9 (5.3)	19.5 (6.1)	-0.2 (0.3)
Slovak Republic ²	17.3 (3.8)	-0.8 (8.0)	4.9 (4.8)	5.5 (5.4)	1.7 (4.5)	-0.4 (0.2)
Slovenia	-4.5 (2.3)	-9.1 (5.4)	-3.3 (2.6)	-0.1 (2.5)	1.7 (2.4)	0.3 (0.2)
Spain	17.0 (3.6)	-4.2 (7.4)	-1.9 (2.8)	1.1 (3.2)	3.7 (3.3)	0.4 (0.1)
Sweden	11.8 (3.2)	-3.8 (6.6)	-1.4 (2.6)	1.4 (2.4)	6.0 (3.3)	-0.2 (0.2)
Switzerland †	26.1 (3.3)	0.7 (7.9)	-7.2 (5.0)	4.9 (3.6)	13.2 (3.6)	-0.2 (0.2)
Thailand †	10.1 (4.4)	0.8 (9.1)	-5.0 (4.0)	4.4 (3.6)	16.2 (5.4)	0.3 (0.3)
ICCS average	14.6 (0.8)	-0.4 (1.3)	-2.3 (0.6)	1.5 (0.6)	6.1 (0.7)	0.0 (0.0)

Notes:

() Standard errors appear in parentheses.

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

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

~ The percentage of cases included in the analysis was below 85 percent.

[^] School census data with two classrooms per school.

¹ Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 8.4: Total and explained variance in civic knowledge

Country	Variance Without Controls				% of Variance Explained by Model		Variance Within Schools		Variance Between Schools		
	Total variance	% of variance between schools	Within schools	Between schools	Within schools	Between schools	10,000	5,000	0	5,000	10,000
Austria	8820	27	6413	2406	18	69					
Belgium (Flemish) †	6773	44	3790	2982	10	69					
Bulgaria	9876	48	5099	4777	18	73					
Chile	7537	31	5178	2359	12	81					
Chinese Taipei	9308	21	7348	1960	28	77					
Colombia	6190	28	4439	1751	15	60					
Cyprus^	8534	6	8029	505	29	71					
Czech Republic †	7758	26	5743	2014	19	80					
Denmark †	9767	16	8206	1561	28	69					
Dominican Republic ~	4575	22	3553	1022	16	57					
England ‡	10828	35	7038	3790	21	78					
Estonia	8207	24	6263	1945	22	69					
Finland	6918	9	6287	631	22	35					
Greece	10038	26	7391	2647	28	44					
Guatemala ¹	5773	40	3460	2312	9	75					
Indonesia	4328	38	2702	1626	11	46					
Ireland	10466	35	6812	3654	22	64					
Italy	7564	16	6352	1212	28	47					
Korea, Republic of ¹	6666	7	6199	466	27	69					
Latvia	6726	27	4909	1817	18	48					
Lithuania	6470	19	5216	1254	30	50					
Malta^	9700	52	4682	5019	12	85					
Mexico	7050	31	4836	2214	13	68					
New Zealand †	11985	41	7060	4925	18	69					
Norway †	8639	9	7900	740	31	51					
Paraguay ¹ ~	8004	39	4904	3101	16	69					
Poland	9751	23	7486	2266	27	68					
Russian Federation	7438	40	4432	3006	20	39					
Slovak Republic ²	8069	31	5592	2477	21	60					
Slovenia	7254	9	6609	645	31	31					
Spain	7218	28	5204	2014	22	68					
Sweden	10009	18	8245	1764	24	75					
Switzerland †	6573	40	3945	2628	9	62					
Thailand †	5325	34	3507	1817	21	61					
ICCS average	7945	28	5730	2215	21	63					

- Within-school variance **not** explained by model predictors
- Within-school variance explained by model predictors
- Between-school variance explained by model predictors
- Between-school variance **not** explained by model predictors

Notes:

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.
 ~ Percentage of cases included in the model was below 90 percent.
 ^ School census data with two classrooms per school.
¹ Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Across countries, about 28 percent of the total variance of civic knowledge was between schools and 72 percent was within schools. As such, we can roughly estimate that, on average across countries, the model explained about one third of the total variation in civic knowledge.

Student and home-background variables explained, on average, 12 percent of the variance at the student level and 33 percent at the school level. Factors related to the individual learning context added 10 percent to the variance explanation at the student level and 8 percent at the school level. The only explanatory contribution made by the additional predictors in Models 3 and 4, that is, the school-level factors, related to the variance between schools: school characteristics added 15 percent to the explanation of variation between schools; school-learning contexts explained an additional 5 percent of this variance.

Table 8.5: Average additional and total explained variance in civic knowledge

Model	Percentage Additional Variance	
	Within schools	Between schools
Model 1: Student and home background	12	33
Model 2: + individual learning context	10	8
Model 3: + school characteristics	0	15
Model 4: + school learning context	0	5
Total % explained variance	21	63

Note:

Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.

Expected electoral and active political participation

Prior research on factors associated with students' expected electoral and political participation

Multiple regression analyses of the CIVED data showed that, for students, likelihood to vote as an adult (as measured by one Likert-type item) was associated with civic knowledge. So, too, was watching news on television and student reports about having learned about the importance of voting. In a large number of countries, there were also minor associations with perceptions of open classroom climate and expected further education (see also, in this regard, Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

Analysis of the CIVED upper-secondary data showed similar results, with interest in politics evident as an additional positive predictor of expected voting (Amadeo et al., 2002). A comparative analysis of lower- and upper-secondary student data confirmed these findings and also showed student trust in civic institutions as an additional positive predictor of both expected electoral and active political participation (Schulz, 2005).

In a recent multilevel analysis of school effects on students' reports of past political participation, Quintelier (2008) found only low between-school variance, none of which was associated with school characteristics. Quintelier did find, however, that formal education (topics discussed, political knowledge) as well as active learning strategies (membership of a school council, voluntary activities beneficial to society) had significant effects on past participation. Results from a study conducted in the United States by Hart et al. (2004) indicated that civic knowledge and past involvement in volunteering were positive predictors of intentions to vote.

Solhaug (2006) used structural equation modeling to analyze Norwegian upper-secondary student data. He found that self-efficacy (self-confidence with regard to verbal persuasion, learning, writing petitions, and influencing local administration) was an even stronger predictor of political participation than civic knowledge. In their study of students in the United



States, Pasek, Feldman, Romer, and Jamieson (2008) found that, after controlling for political attentiveness, self-efficacy and civic knowledge had no direct influence on the students' voting intentions.

A model of influences on expected electoral and active political participation

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory again provided us with a conceptual framework when constructing the model described in this section of the chapter. The framework assists analysis of factors explaining not only civic knowledge but also the behavioral intentions of young people. Within the ambit of this theory, the development of civic engagement among adolescents can be seen as influenced by multiple and interacting agents of socialization. For students, family orientations toward active forms of citizenship, personal involvement in civic activities, and school-based civic participation are factors potentially shaping young people's dispositions to take part, when adults, in activities related to civics and citizenship.

Putnam (1993) views social capital as an important collective resource and as a "key to making democracy work" (p. 185). According to his perspective, three components of social capital (social trust, social norms, and social networks) provide a context for successful cooperation among individuals and for effective participation in society. This context, in turn, emphasizes the relevance of interpersonal relationships (both affective and behavioral) for individual engagement. Verba, Schlozman, and Brady (1995) identified the following three factors as important factors for political participation:

- Resources enabling individuals to participate (time, knowledge);
- Psychological engagement (interest, efficacy); and
- "Recruitment networks" (e.g., social movements, church groups, political parties) that help to bring individuals into politics.

We used two IRT scales reflecting students' expected electoral participation and expected active political participation as dependent variables for our multivariate (single-level) regression analyses.⁷

- *Expected electoral participation:* We derived this from three student-questionnaire items that asked students if they intended, once adults, to vote in local elections, vote in national elections, or obtain information about candidates before voting during an election campaign (see Figure 5.7, the item-by-score map for this scale, in Appendix E).
- *Expected active political participation:* We based this on four items that asked students if they thought they would help a candidate or party during an election campaign or if they would join a political party, join a trade union, or stand as a candidate in local elections (Figure 5.8, in Appendix E, presents the item-by-score map for this scale).

We standardized both scales to have an international metric with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for the pooled international dataset with equal weights for each country.

When developing the overall conceptual model explaining variation in students' reported intentions to engage in electoral and active political activity, we assumed that these intentions would have been influenced by the following five sets of variables:

- *Student background:* Many studies in the literature show that student characteristics and students' home backgrounds are associated with behavioral intentions.

⁷ The amount of estimated variance between schools was five to six percent of the total variance in the two criterion variables. Therefore, for the analyses for these two outcome variables, we considered it appropriate to use single-level regression models instead of multilevel analysis for this first analysis.



- *Past or current civic participation:* Research indicates that experience with civic engagement at school and in the wider community is a potential agent for future engagement.
- *Student self-beliefs related to civic engagement:* Motivation and belief in one's capacity to act are identified in the literature as important variables with the potential to explain extent of engagement in civic activity.
- *Students' attitudes toward civic institutions:* Future civic engagement is likely to depend on beliefs about how well democratic institutions function.
- *Students' civic knowledge:* Numerous studies show this variable to be an important predictor of intentions to vote as an adult.

The student background variables that we included in the models were:

- *Student gender:* Descriptive analyses of students' expected electoral and active political participation show considerable gender differences with regard to the latter.
- *Socioeconomic status of students' family background:* The hypothesis here is that a student's socioeconomic context (see the previous relevant section of this chapter) is associated with his or her intended electoral and active political participation.
- *Parental interest in political and social issues* (0 = both parents not interested or not very interested, 1 = at least one parent quite interested or very interested): The literature identifies home orientations as an important variable potentially influencing civic learning outcomes, particularly with respect to students' interest in political and social issues (see Chapter 7 for details on the coding of this variable).

The predictors reflecting students' experience with civic participation that we included were:

- *Past or current participation in civic activities in the community:* This variable is an IRT scale, which we standardized for this analysis to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each country. We based the scale on a set of seven items (Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.70) that asked students whether they had participated in each of seven different community activities (see Chapter 5 for a description of these).⁸
- *Past or current participation in civic activities at school:* Another IRT scale (standardized for this analysis to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each country), this variable was also based on a set of seven items (Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.66) that asked students if they had participated in each of seven different school-based activities (Chapter 5 provides a description of these items).⁹

We also included predictors reflecting students' beliefs about their own interests and skills relative to civic engagement. These were:

- *Interest in political and social issues:* We standardized this measure, which is another IRT scale, to have, for this analysis and within each country, a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. We based the measure on a set of five items that required students to rate their interest in a variety of political and social issues (see Chapter 5 for a description of this scale).
- *Internal political efficacy:* We based this IRT scale (standardized for this analysis to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each country) on a set of six items that asked students to indicate the extent to which they thought they would have the general capacity to deal with various political issues (for a description of this scale, see Chapter 5).



8 The items included participation in a youth organization of a political party or union, an environmental organization, a human rights organization, a voluntary group helping community members, an organization collecting money for a social cause, a cultural organization based on ethnicity, and a group of young people campaigning for an issue.

9 The items included voluntary participation in school-based music or drama activities outside of regular lessons, active participation in a debate, voting for class representative or school parliament, taking part in decision-making about how the school is run, taking part in discussions at a student assembly, and becoming a candidate for class representative or school parliament.

- *Citizenship self-efficacy*: We derived this IRT scale (standardized for this analysis to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each country) from a set of seven items that asked students how well they thought they could do several tasks related to civic engagement (see Chapter 5 for a description of this scale).

The two predictors reflecting students' attitudes toward civic institutions that we included were:

- *Trust in civic institutions*: This IRT scale, standardized for this analysis to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each country and based on a set of six items (Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.83), reflected students' ratings of their trust in different civic institutions (for a description of this scale, see Chapter 4).
- *Support for political parties*: We based this indicator on the first item of a question that asked students if they liked a specific political party more than other political parties. We also based it on the second part of this question, which was directed at those students who said they did have a preference. These students were asked how much they favored the specified party ("a little," "to some extent," "a lot"). The resulting indicator had four ordinal categories.

The predictor that we used to reflect students' cognitive abilities in the field of civics and citizenship was:

- *Students' civic knowledge*: For the purposes of our analysis, we standardized this IRT scale to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 within each participating country. Note that this scale metric differs from the ICCS civic-knowledge reporting scale.

To account for missing data, we took an approach similar to the one we used for the multilevel analysis of civic knowledge. More detailed information on the model will be included in the ICCS technical report (Schulz et al.).¹⁰

Because we standardized all the scales in our current analysis to have national means of 0 and standard deviations of 1, the regression coefficients for these predictors indicate the effect on the dependent variable with respect to one national standard deviation. Interpretation of the regression coefficients for the categorical variables, however, has to be conducted with respect to the change from one category to the adjacent one.

Analysis results for expected electoral and active political participation

Table 8.6 shows the results of the multiple regression analysis for expected electoral participation. The partial (or net) effects of gender were negligible in most countries, a finding consistent with other studies reporting no gender differences for this variable. Socioeconomic background had positive effects in about half of the countries, while significant positive coefficients were evident for parental interest in most countries. The average effect of having at least one quite interested or one very interested parent was 1.7 score points (almost one fifth of a standard deviation).

Although participation in the community was an inconsistent predictor across countries, we observed, in a small number of countries, significant negative effects of community participation on expected participation in elections. Having been active in electoral activities at school, however, had significant positive effects on expected electoral participation in about two thirds of the countries; the average effect was 0.6 of a score point per national standard deviation.

¹⁰ On average across countries, nine percent of students did not have complete data for all variables in the model. In two countries (the Dominican Republic and Paraguay), we observed considerably higher percentages—above 20 percent. For eight of the 11 predictor variables, we substituted missing values with means (for continuous variables) and medians (for categorical variables). We also added eight missing indicator variables to the set of predictor variables. Note that the results for the missing indicator variables are not included in the tables.





Table 8.6. Multiple regression model results for expected electoral participation

Country	Student characteristics and background				Students' past or current civic participation				Students' self-beliefs				Students' attitudes toward institutions		Cognitive abilities
	Gender (female)	Socioeconomic family background	Parental interest	Participation in community	Participation at school	Interest in political and social issues	Internal political efficacy	Citizenship self-efficacy	Trust in civic institutions	Support for political parties	Trust in civic institutions	Support for political parties	Trust in civic institutions	Support for political parties	Civic knowledge
Austria	-0.4 (0.3)	0.6 (0.2)	2.1 (0.4)	0.5 (0.2)	0.1 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	1.8 (0.2)	1.8 (0.2)	0.9 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	1.8 (0.2)	0.9 (0.1)	2.1 (0.2)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	-0.1 (0.3)	0.6 (0.2)	1.6 (0.5)	0.7 (0.2)	0.5 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.6 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	1.6 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	
Bulgaria	0.6 (0.4)	-0.1 (0.2)	2.6 (0.5)	-0.2 (0.2)	0.5 (0.2)	1.5 (0.3)	1.1 (0.3)	1.2 (0.3)	1.6 (0.2)	1.1 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	1.6 (0.2)	1.1 (0.1)	2.5 (0.2)	
Chile	-0.2 (0.4)	0.3 (0.2)	0.6 (0.5)	0.0 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	1.6 (0.2)	1.8 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	2.8 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	2.8 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	1.5 (0.2)	
Chinese Taipei	0.2 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.9 (0.3)	0.1 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.5 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	2.5 (0.1)	
Colombia	-0.4 (0.3)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	0.7 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	1.6 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	2.2 (0.1)	
Cyprus	0.1 (0.3)	0.4 (0.2)	1.4 (0.4)	-0.3 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	1.3 (0.3)	2.1 (0.3)	1.8 (0.3)	1.1 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	1.8 (0.3)	1.1 (0.1)	2.5 (0.2)	
Czech Republic †	-0.8 (0.3)	0.7 (0.1)	3.1 (0.3)	0.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	1.3 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.3 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	3.0 (0.2)	
Denmark †	1.0 (0.3)	0.3 (0.1)	1.9 (0.3)	0.2 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	1.0 (0.3)	1.3 (0.2)	1.7 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	
Dominican Republic	-0.1 (0.3)	-0.2 (0.2)	0.5 (0.5)	-0.7 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	2.3 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	0.9 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	0.9 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	
England ‡	-0.8 (0.4)	0.8 (0.2)	2.8 (0.4)	0.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.3)	1.7 (0.3)	0.9 (0.3)	1.4 (0.2)	1.5 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	1.5 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	2.3 (0.2)	
Estonia	0.4 (0.4)	0.3 (0.2)	1.2 (0.3)	0.3 (0.2)	0.2 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.8 (0.2)	
Finland	0.7 (0.3)	0.8 (0.1)	2.6 (0.3)	0.0 (0.1)	0.5 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	0.5 (0.2)	1.3 (0.3)	1.9 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	1.1 (0.1)	
Greece	0.7 (0.3)	0.3 (0.2)	1.2 (0.4)	-0.7 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	1.5 (0.3)	1.2 (0.3)	1.0 (0.3)	1.7 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	2.5 (0.3)	
Guatemala ¹	0.2 (0.3)	-0.3 (0.2)	0.6 (0.3)	-0.4 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	0.7 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	2.2 (0.2)	
Indonesia	-0.2 (0.2)	0.4 (0.1)	0.6 (0.4)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.6 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	0.9 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	1.8 (0.2)	
Ireland	1.0 (0.3)	0.5 (0.2)	1.8 (0.5)	0.1 (0.2)	0.3 (0.2)	1.1 (0.3)	1.0 (0.3)	1.1 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	0.9 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	1.7 (0.2)	0.9 (0.1)	2.5 (0.2)	
Italy	0.3 (0.3)	0.3 (0.2)	2.9 (0.5)	-0.2 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	0.4 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	2.7 (0.2)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	0.6 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	1.6 (0.4)	0.2 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	2.0 (0.2)	0.8 (0.1)	0.6 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	0.8 (0.1)	0.6 (0.2)	1.7 (0.1)	
Latvia	0.3 (0.4)	0.4 (0.2)	1.6 (0.6)	-0.5 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	0.7 (0.3)	1.5 (0.3)	1.4 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	
Liechtenstein	0.8 (0.9)	0.6 (0.4)	2.2 (1.2)	-0.1 (0.5)	0.5 (0.4)	0.9 (0.7)	0.3 (0.6)	1.1 (0.5)	2.4 (0.5)	1.6 (0.4)	1.6 (0.4)	2.4 (0.5)	1.6 (0.4)	1.8 (0.4)	
Lithuania	0.6 (0.3)	0.4 (0.2)	2.4 (0.5)	-0.4 (0.2)	0.5 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	1.7 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	1.9 (0.2)	
Luxembourg	-0.5 (0.3)	0.6 (0.1)	2.4 (0.4)	0.2 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.5 (0.3)	1.4 (0.2)	1.2 (0.3)	1.7 (0.2)	0.7 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.7 (0.2)	0.7 (0.1)	2.2 (0.2)	
Malta	0.0 (0.5)	0.0 (0.2)	1.4 (0.3)	0.1 (0.2)	0.5 (0.2)	0.8 (0.4)	0.9 (0.3)	1.5 (0.3)	1.5 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	1.5 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	
Mexico	0.4 (0.2)	0.2 (0.1)	1.2 (0.2)	-0.5 (0.2)	0.8 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	1.5 (0.2)	1.3 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	2.6 (0.1)	
New Zealand †	0.5 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	1.3 (0.4)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	1.1 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	1.9 (0.2)	1.1 (0.1)	2.2 (0.2)	
Norway †	0.7 (0.3)	0.8 (0.2)	3.1 (0.5)	-0.1 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.3)	0.9 (0.4)	0.9 (0.3)	1.6 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	1.6 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	2.7 (0.2)	
Paraguay ¹	0.3 (0.4)	0.2 (0.2)	1.1 (0.3)	-0.4 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	0.6 (0.3)	1.0 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	0.7 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	0.7 (0.1)	2.4 (0.2)	

Table 8.6: Multiple regression model results for expected electoral participation (contd.)

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (standard errors in brackets)*											
	Student characteristics and background			Students' past or current civic participation			Students' self-beliefs			Students' attitudes toward institutions		Cognitive abilities
	Gender (female)	Socioeconomic family background	Parental interest	Participation in community	Participation at school	Interest in political and social issues	Internal political efficacy	Citizenship self-efficacy	Trust in civic institutions	Support for political parties	Civic knowledge	
Poland	0.3 (0.3)	0.4 (0.2)	2.1 (0.6)	-0.1 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	0.7 (0.1)	1.6 (0.2)	
Russian Federation	0.4 (0.3)	0.0 (0.1)	0.9 (0.3)	-0.3 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	1.5 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	0.8 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	
Slovak Republic ²	0.1 (0.3)	0.5 (0.2)	1.8 (0.3)	0.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	1.4 (0.3)	1.0 (0.3)	1.5 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	2.4 (0.2)	
Slovenia	0.0 (0.4)	0.5 (0.3)	2.7 (0.5)	-0.3 (0.2)	0.3 (0.2)	0.2 (0.3)	1.2 (0.3)	1.6 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	2.1 (0.2)	
Spain	-0.3 (0.3)	0.2 (0.2)	1.3 (0.4)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	1.4 (0.3)	2.0 (0.2)	1.0 (0.1)	1.9 (0.2)	
Sweden	1.3 (0.3)	0.5 (0.2)	1.5 (0.3)	0.0 (0.1)	0.2 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	1.0 (0.3)	1.3 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)	1.8 (0.2)	
Switzerland †	0.1 (0.4)	1.2 (0.3)	2.2 (0.6)	0.2 (0.2)	0.2 (0.3)	0.8 (0.3)	2.3 (0.3)	0.8 (0.3)	1.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.2)	1.6 (0.2)	
Thailand †	0.1 (0.3)	0.4 (0.1)	0.6 (0.5)	0.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	1.0 (0.2)	0.0 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	3.3 (0.1)	
ICCS average	0.2 (0.1)	0.4 (0.0)	1.7 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.0)	0.6 (0.0)	1.1 (0.0)	1.0 (0.0)	1.3 (0.0)	1.6 (0.0)	0.8 (0.0)	2.1 (0.0)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements												
Hong Kong SAR	0.0 (0.4)	0.4 (0.2)	0.9 (0.4)	0.5 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	1.6 (0.3)	0.9 (0.3)	1.1 (0.3)	1.9 (0.2)	1.0 (0.2)	2.0 (0.2)	
Netherlands	-0.7 (0.5)	0.7 (0.3)	2.0 (0.5)	0.0 (0.3)	0.3 (0.2)	1.4 (0.4)	1.2 (0.3)	1.5 (0.4)	1.4 (0.3)	0.9 (0.3)	1.4 (0.3)	

Notes:

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

() Standard errors appear in parentheses.

† 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



In most countries, students' interest in, feelings of internal political efficacy, and self-confidence with respect to civic engagement (citizenship self-efficacy) had consistent and significantly positive regression coefficients for expected electoral participation. On average, each predictor (with a national standard deviation equal to 1) had an effect of about one score point (one tenth of a standard deviation) on the outcome variable.

When we considered students' attitudes toward institutions, we found that trust in civic institutions was a positive predictor in all countries; the average effect was 1.6 score points per unit (equivalent to one national standard deviation). Support for political parties was another positive predictor. Here, the effect was 0.8 of a score point per category.

Civic knowledge was a strong positive predictor of students' expected electoral participation in all participating countries. On average, a one-unit increase in civic knowledge (equal to a national standard deviation) led to an increase of about two score points on the expected electoral participation scale.

Table 8.7 shows the proportions of variance in expected electoral participation scores explained by the background variables and (for comparison purposes) the full model. Here we can see that, on average across ICCS countries, student background factors (gender, socioeconomic background, parental interest) explained about eight percent of the variance. After introducing the other predictor variables, we found that the variance explained increased up to an average of 30 percent across the ICCS countries. The range in percentages was 13 (Indonesia) to 42 percent (New Zealand).

The graph in Table 8.7 illustrates that, in most countries, about half of the explained variance in expected electoral participation could be attributed to more than one set of predictors. On average, the highest proportion of variance uniquely explained by the various predictors was associated with self-beliefs (interest, internal political efficacy, citizenship self-efficacy). However, attitudes toward civic institutions (trust and support for political parties) along with civic knowledge explained large parts of the variance not attributable to other predictor blocks. Background variables and experience with civic engagement contributed little to the unique explained variance within the model.

Table 8.8 shows the regression coefficients for expected active political participation. After controlling for other variables, we found that gender (female) still had significant negative effects on student expectations in most countries; the average effect size was about one score point (equivalent to one tenth of an international standard deviation). Family socioeconomic background had negative effects in 19 of the participating countries and a significant positive effect in three countries—Belgium (Flemish), Cyprus, and Switzerland. Parental interest had significant positive effects on expected active political participation in 12 countries.

Students' experiences with participation in the community proved to be a positive predictor of expected active political participation in a majority of countries. On average, there was an increase of about more than half of a score point for each unit on this scale (equivalent to one national standard deviation). In contrast, significantly positive coefficients for students' participation at school were evident in 15 countries.

All three predictors measuring students' self-beliefs had strong positive effects on students' expected active political participation. In particular, a one-unit increase (equal to one national standard deviation) in students' self-confidence to manage civic activities (citizenship self-efficacy) led, on average, to an increase of two score points in expected participation in political activities. The average effects of student interest in political and social issues and students' internal political efficacy were 1.0 and 1.4 score points per unit (national standard deviation) respectively.



Table 8.7: Explained variance for expected electoral participation

Country	Percentage of Variance Explained		Proportion of Unique Variance Explained by Each Set of Variables and of Variance Explained by More Than One Set of Variables					
	By student characteristics and background only	By full model	0	10	20	30	40	50
Austria	12 (1.5)	38 (1.9)						
Belgium (Flemish) †	7 (1.1)	32 (1.7)						
Bulgaria	7 (1.0)	26 (1.7)						
Chile	4 (0.7)	27 (1.2)						
Chinese Taipei	6 (0.8)	32 (1.1)						
Colombia	3 (0.5)	24 (1.5)						
Cyprus	7 (1.0)	33 (1.9)						
Czech Republic †	15 (1.1)	38 (1.4)						
Denmark †	13 (1.3)	40 (1.7)						
Dominican Republic	2 (0.6)	25 (1.7)						
England ‡	18 (1.8)	41 (2.1)						
Estonia	8 (1.3)	31 (2.0)						
Finland	15 (1.2)	37 (1.5)						
Greece	6 (1.0)	26 (2.0)						
Guatemala ¹	2 (0.6)	18 (1.6)						
Indonesia	2 (0.5)	13 (1.0)						
Ireland	11 (1.2)	34 (1.8)						
Italy	8 (1.2)	27 (1.7)						
Korea, Republic of ¹	5 (0.6)	30 (1.3)						
Latvia	4 (0.9)	22 (1.6)						
Liechtenstein	11 (3.3)	38 (4.9)						
Lithuania	7 (1.0)	25 (1.8)						
Luxembourg	12 (1.0)	38 (1.6)						
Malta	7 (1.2)	37 (2.5)						
Mexico	4 (0.5)	22 (1.1)						
New Zealand †	11 (1.4)	42 (2.1)						
Norway †	15 (1.6)	36 (1.6)						
Paraguay ¹	5 (0.9)	21 (1.4)						
Poland	8 (1.1)	28 (1.6)						
Russian Federation	4 (0.7)	26 (1.4)						
Slovak Republic ²	9 (1.1)	33 (1.7)						
Slovenia	8 (1.2)	26 (1.5)						
Spain	8 (1.1)	30 (1.9)						
Sweden	12 (1.1)	38 (1.8)						
Switzerland †	12 (1.8)	30 (2.0)						
Thailand †	3 (0.7)	18 (1.2)						
ICCS average	8 (0.2)	30 (0.3)						
Countries not meeting sampling requirements								
Hong Kong SAR	5 (0.9)	31 (2.2)						
Netherlands	12 (1.8)	31 (2.9)						

- Variance uniquely explained by students' characteristics and family background
- Variance uniquely explained by past or current civic participation
- Variance uniquely explained by students' self-beliefs
- Variance explained by students' attitudes toward institutions
- Variance explained by students' civic knowledge
- Variance explained by more than one set of variables

Notes:

- () Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because some 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 8.8: Multiple regression model results for expected active political participation

Country	Student characteristics and background				Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (standard errors in brackets)*				Students' self-beliefs			Students' attitudes toward institutions		Cognitive abilities
	Gender (female)	Socioeconomic family background	Parental interest	Participation in civic community	Participation at school	Interest in political and social issues	Internal political efficacy	Citizenship self-efficacy	Trust in civic institutions	Support for political parties	Civic knowledge			
Austria	-2.0 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.5 (0.2)	0.9 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.3 (0.2)	1.2 (0.1)	2.4 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	-1.6 (0.1)			
Belgium (Flemish) †	-0.5 (0.3)	0.3 (0.1)	0.2 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	2.1 (0.2)	1.6 (0.1)	0.8 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	-1.3 (0.1)			
Bulgaria	0.0 (0.4)	-0.4 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.8 (0.1)	1.8 (0.2)	1.5 (0.1)	1.9 (0.2)	1.1 (0.1)	-2.0 (0.1)			
Chile	-1.4 (0.2)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.2 (0.3)	0.4 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	2.1 (0.1)	1.9 (0.2)	1.8 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	-1.6 (0.1)			
Chinese Taipei	-2.2 (0.2)	-0.4 (0.1)	0.5 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	1.4 (0.1)	2.0 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	-0.9 (0.1)			
Colombia	-0.5 (0.2)	-0.6 (0.1)	0.0 (0.2)	0.9 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	1.2 (0.1)	2.3 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	-1.5 (0.1)			
Cyprus	-2.1 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	0.4 (0.4)	0.7 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	1.6 (0.3)	2.6 (0.1)	1.4 (0.1)	1.9 (0.1)	-1.1 (0.1)			
Czech Republic †	-0.6 (0.1)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	-0.6 (0.1)			
Denmark †	0.1 (0.2)	-0.3 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	1.4 (0.1)	1.2 (0.2)	1.2 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	-0.2 (0.1)			
Dominican Republic	-1.5 (0.2)	-0.6 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	1.7 (0.2)	2.7 (0.1)	2.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	-0.7 (0.1)			
England ‡	-0.2 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	1.3 (0.2)	1.2 (0.1)	2.2 (0.1)	1.4 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	-1.0 (0.1)			
Estonia	-1.4 (0.2)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.0 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	-1.0 (0.1)			
Finland	0.1 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.5 (0.2)	0.2 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	2.1 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	-0.7 (0.1)			
Greece	-0.9 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.1 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)	1.8 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	-1.2 (0.1)			
Guatemala ¹	-0.9 (0.2)	-0.9 (0.1)	0.2 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	2.1 (0.1)	1.9 (0.1)	1.5 (0.2)	0.8 (0.1)	-1.3 (0.1)			
Indonesia	-1.2 (0.1)	-0.3 (0.1)	0.0 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	2.0 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	-0.4 (0.1)			
Ireland	-0.7 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.5 (0.3)	0.6 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	1.5 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	1.5 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	-0.8 (0.1)			
Italy	-1.9 (0.3)	0.2 (0.1)	1.4 (0.3)	0.4 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	2.3 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	-0.8 (0.1)			
Korea, Republic of ¹	-0.7 (0.2)	-0.5 (0.1)	0.6 (0.3)	0.6 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	0.8 (0.1)	1.9 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	-1.4 (0.1)			
Latvia	-1.3 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.2 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	0.7 (0.2)	1.9 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	-1.3 (0.1)			
Liechtenstein	-1.7 (0.6)	-0.1 (0.3)	2.8 (0.8)	0.8 (0.2)	-0.7 (0.3)	1.0 (0.4)	-0.2 (0.5)	2.2 (0.4)	0.8 (0.3)	1.3 (0.2)	-1.1 (0.3)			
Lithuania	-1.9 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	0.2 (0.2)	0.4 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	0.8 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	-1.7 (0.1)			
Luxembourg	-0.6 (0.3)	-0.3 (0.1)	0.9 (0.3)	0.7 (0.1)	0.1 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	2.2 (0.2)	1.6 (0.2)	0.4 (0.1)	-1.3 (0.1)			
Malta	-2.2 (0.2)	0.0 (0.1)	1.0 (0.3)	0.2 (0.2)	0.2 (0.1)	1.3 (0.4)	2.3 (0.2)	2.6 (0.3)	1.1 (0.1)	0.7 (0.2)	-0.9 (0.1)			
Mexico	-1.2 (0.2)	-0.4 (0.1)	0.3 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	2.6 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	1.4 (0.1)	-0.9 (0.1)			
New Zealand †	0.0 (0.3)	-0.3 (0.2)	1.3 (0.4)	0.8 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)	2.1 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	-1.5 (0.1)			
Norway †	-0.1 (0.2)	0.1 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	1.0 (0.2)	1.8 (0.2)	1.2 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	-1.2 (0.1)			
Paraguay ¹	-0.7 (0.2)	-0.2 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	0.2 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	1.4 (0.1)	1.9 (0.2)	1.7 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	-0.8 (0.1)			

Table 8.8: Multiple regression model results for expected active political participation (contd.)

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (standard errors in brackets)*											
	Student characteristics and background			Students' past or current civic participation			Students' self-beliefs			Students' attitudes toward institutions		Cognitive abilities
	Gender (female)	Socioeconomic family background	Parental interest	Participation in community	Participation at school	Interest in political and social issues	Internal political efficacy	Citizenship self-efficacy	Trust in civic institutions	Support for political parties	Civic knowledge	
Poland	-2.5 (0.2)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.7 (0.2)	0.6 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	2.2 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	0.4 (0.1)	-1.3 (0.1)	
Russian Federation	-1.6 (0.2)	-0.4 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	0.4 (0.2)	0.7 (0.1)	1.0 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	2.8 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	-1.2 (0.1)	
Slovak Republic ²	-1.2 (0.2)	-0.3 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.3 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	2.4 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	-1.5 (0.1)	
Slovenia	-2.2 (0.3)	-0.4 (0.1)	0.9 (0.3)	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.6 (0.2)	2.0 (0.2)	1.8 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	0.6 (0.1)	-1.3 (0.1)	
Spain	-0.3 (0.2)	-0.3 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	0.5 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.8 (0.1)	1.5 (0.2)	2.1 (0.2)	1.7 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	-1.8 (0.1)	
Sweden	0.0 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	-0.9 (0.1)	
Switzerland †	-0.9 (0.2)	0.4 (0.1)	1.4 (0.3)	0.5 (0.1)	0.0 (0.1)	0.8 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	-0.9 (0.1)	
Thailand †	-1.8 (0.2)	-0.5 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.2)	0.7 (0.1)	0.2 (0.1)	0.7 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	0.3 (0.1)	-1.0 (0.1)	
ICCS average	-1.1 (0.0)	-0.2 (0.0)	0.6 (0.0)	0.5 (0.0)	0.2 (0.0)	1.0 (0.0)	1.4 (0.0)	2.0 (0.0)	1.3 (0.0)	0.7 (0.0)	-1.1 (0.0)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements												
Hong Kong SAR	-0.9 (0.3)	-0.3 (0.1)	-0.1 (0.4)	0.4 (0.2)	0.4 (0.1)	1.0 (0.2)	1.6 (0.2)	2.2 (0.1)	1.1 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	-0.7 (0.1)	
Netherlands	-0.7 (0.4)	0.2 (0.2)	0.5 (0.4)	0.3 (0.2)	-0.3 (0.1)	0.9 (0.4)	1.5 (0.3)	1.4 (0.3)	1.2 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)	-0.7 (0.2)	

Notes:

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

() Standard errors appear in parentheses.

† 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Both trust in civic institutions and support for political parties were further positive predictors of expected active political participation. On average across participating countries, one unit of student trust in civic institutions (equal to one national standard deviation) was associated with an increase of 1.3 score points. Each category of support for political parties corresponded to an increase of 0.7 of a score point. In this model, civic knowledge was a significant negative predictor in all countries. The average effect was -1.1 score points per national standard deviation.

Table 8.9 shows the variance in expected active political participation explained by the background and other variables and by the full model (included for comparison purposes). It also shows the proportions of explained variance attributable to particular predictor blocks and to more than one set of variables.

On average, student background variables explained only four percent of the variance in expected active political participation. The explained variance increased to an average of 27 percent across ICCS countries after introduction of the other predictors; the range in percentages was 17 (the Republic of Korea) to 38 (Malta).

On average, 44 percent of the explained variance in expected active political participation was attributable to more than one set of predictors. The largest unique contribution to the explained variance (almost a quarter) was due to student self-beliefs; about a tenth was attributable to students' attitudes toward civic institutions. The proportions of the explained variance uniquely attributable to the other sets of predictors were small.

Summary of findings

The patterns that emerged from our multilevel analyses of factors predicting civic knowledge showed both similarities and differences across the countries that participated in ICCS. The analyses, which included student-level and school-level factors, indicated the extent to which each of the factors had an effect on civic knowledge after we had controlled for the other variables in the model.

Among the student and home-background factors, gender (female), speaking the test language at home, and socioeconomic background were important and consistent (statistically significant) positive predictors of civic knowledge in many countries. Discussions with parents and accessing information from newspapers and television were further significant positive predictors of civic knowledge in a large number of countries. As shown in our analysis of family background influences, parental interest did not appear as a consistent positive predictor of civic knowledge.

When reviewing the influence of factors related to the individual learning context, we found that students' educational aspirations were important predictors in all countries. Perceptions of openness in classroom discussions and experience with voting at school also came forward as factors having consistent positive associations with civic knowledge.

The average socioeconomic status of students was the most important school characteristic in terms of effect on civic knowledge at the school level. In most countries, we found, after controlling for the effects of other school characteristics, that neither principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community nor rural school location were associated with civic knowledge.

Among the school-learning-context variables, only the average student perception of openness during classroom discussions appeared to have had an effect over and above individual perceptions; this finding was evident in only about a third of the countries in the analysis. Principals' perceptions of students' sense of belonging had net effects on the levels of civic knowledge at school in a smaller number of countries. The general level of student engagement, as measured by the percentages of students voting in school elections, had significant positive effects in very few countries.



Table 8.9: Explained variance for expected active political participation

Country	Percentage of Variance Explained		Proportion of Unique Variance Explained by Each Set of Variables and of Variance Explained by More than One Set of Variables					
	By student characteristics and background only	By full model	0	10	20	30	40	50
Austria	4 (0.8)	25 (1.7)						
Belgium (Flemish) †	2 (0.7)	25 (2.3)						
Bulgaria	5 (0.8)	29 (1.6)						
Chile	3 (0.6)	31 (1.3)						
Chinese Taipei	4 (0.6)	25 (1.3)						
Colombia	3 (0.6)	34 (1.4)						
Cyprus	5 (0.8)	33 (1.7)						
Czech Republic †	3 (0.5)	26 (1.4)						
Denmark †	4 (0.7)	23 (1.5)						
Dominican Republic	4 (0.7)	35 (1.7)						
England ‡	5 (0.9)	28 (1.8)						
Estonia	2 (0.5)	22 (1.8)						
Finland	4 (0.8)	26 (1.5)						
Greece	2 (0.5)	22 (1.5)						
Guatemala ¹	4 (1.0)	30 (1.9)						
Indonesia	2 (0.6)	22 (1.6)						
Ireland	4 (0.7)	30 (1.7)						
Italy	5 (0.6)	26 (1.3)						
Korea, Republic of ¹	1 (0.4)	17 (1.1)						
Latvia	1 (0.6)	22 (1.8)						
Liechtenstein	7 (2.9)	26 (4.7)						
Lithuania	2 (0.5)	23 (1.7)						
Luxembourg	3 (0.6)	30 (2.0)						
Malta	8 (1.5)	38 (2.4)						
Mexico	3 (0.6)	29 (1.1)						
New Zealand †	4 (0.8)	29 (1.8)						
Norway †	4 (0.8)	24 (1.6)						
Paraguay ¹	3 (0.8)	25 (1.9)						
Poland	3 (0.7)	22 (1.8)						
Russian Federation	3 (0.7)	28 (1.8)						
Slovak Republic ²	3 (0.6)	30 (2.0)						
Slovenia	4 (0.8)	24 (1.5)						
Spain	3 (0.7)	27 (1.9)						
Sweden	4 (0.7)	25 (1.9)						
Switzerland †	6 (0.9)	23 (2.4)						
Thailand †	5 (0.8)	23 (1.5)						
ICCS average	4 (0.1)	27 (0.3)						
Countries not meeting sampling requirements								
Hong Kong SAR	2 (0.6)	25 (1.9)						
Netherlands	4 (1.7)	22 (4.2)						

- Variance uniquely explained by students' characteristics and family background
- Variance uniquely explained by past or current civic participation
- Variance uniquely explained by students' self-beliefs
- Variance explained by students' attitudes toward institutions
- Variance explained by students' civic knowledge
- Variance explained by more than one set of variables

Notes:

- () Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because some 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

When comparing variance overall, as well as the variance at student and school levels within countries, we observed considerable differences in the overall variation of civic knowledge scores and in the proportion of the variation attributable to the school level. As evident in other comparative studies of educational achievement, regional patterns reflecting characteristics of education systems became apparent. We observed, in particular, that the proportions of between-school variation were relatively small in comprehensive education systems, where students attend the same study programs in lower-secondary school. When interpreting estimates of between-school variation, however, we need to take into account the ICCS sampling design, which typically involved selecting one intact classroom from within the sampled schools. This approach meant that we could not disentangle the variance between schools from the variance between classes.

Predictors related to student background, student variables related to home and school contexts, school characteristics, and school-learning context explained, on average, about a fifth of the variance within schools and almost two thirds of the variation between schools. The model with all predictors explained, on average, approximately one third of the total variation in civic knowledge.

To explore factors associated with students' expected participation in later adult life, we estimated single-level multiple regression models for expected electoral and active political participation. The models included student background variables, past and current participation, students' self-beliefs, attitudes toward civic institutions, and civic knowledge.

In line with the findings of previous research studies (see, for example, Torney-Purta et al., 2001), electoral participation was associated, in ICCS, with higher levels of student knowledge about and understanding of civic and citizenship issues. Being an active participant at school was associated with expected electoral participation in about two thirds of the countries. In most countries, students' interest, feelings of internal political efficacy, and self-confidence relative to civic engagement were positive predictors of expected electoral participation.

Students' perceptions of parental interest in political and social issues was associated with higher levels of expected electoral participation in most countries. Socioeconomic background, however, had inconsistent effects (sometimes positive and sometimes negative). While participation in the community had no significant effects in most countries, we observed a negative association between this variable and expected participation in elections.

Consistent with findings from previous research, expected active political participation and activities in the community were not associated with family background or student civic knowledge. Students' experience of participation in the community was a positive predictor of expected active political participation in fewer than half of the countries. Students' participation at school had a positive effect on expected active political participation in only six countries. However, we note here that participation in the community can originate from school-based activities.

Students' self-beliefs (self-confidence, self-efficacy) had strong associations with expected active political participation. Trust in civic institutions and support for political parties were also positively associated with expectations of future political engagement.

The results from these multivariate analyses indicate that expected active political participation is more strongly influenced by students' experiences with community participation and the beliefs they have formed than by civic knowledge, student background variables, and participation in school civic activities.



After controlling for other factors, we found a negative association between gender (female) and students' expected active political participation. Both parental interest and socioeconomic background had no consistent associations with this variable. Whereas civic participation at school had significant effects in only a few countries, past or current participation in the wider community turned out to be positively associated with this variable. Both self-beliefs and attitudes toward civic institutions were positive predictors of students' expected active political participation. Civic knowledge, however, had negative effects in this model. The finding that civic knowledge is a negative predictor of expected active political participation is interesting and deserves closer study in future secondary research.

In general, the variables related to school-based learning (civic knowledge, civic participation) had stronger influences on expected electoral participation than on expected active political participation. This finding suggests that what happens in schools impacts on formal aspects of civic participation. It also denotes, for civic and citizenship education, the challenge of encouraging young people to take up a broader participation in society as adult citizens.

Finally, we acknowledge that the effects of civic and citizenship education on student engagement can only be truly assessed through longitudinal studies that follow individuals from school through to adult life. We also need to keep in mind that the ICCS students were asked, at an early stage of adolescence, about their intended civic-related behavior in future adult life. The expectations that they reported may, of course, not align with what these young people actually do on reaching adulthood. However, it is possible to use cross-sectional survey data such as those from ICCS to assess influences on students' intentions to participate as adults in civic life.

The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 2001), and a body of empirical research derived from that theory, supports the proposition that intentions act as powerful mediating influences on actions, and that attitudes, experiences, and backgrounds operate on actions through their influences on intentions. Therefore, understanding influences on intended or expected electoral participation and intended or expected active political participation may go some way to helping us understand, in advance, potential influences on students' actual civic participation once they reach adulthood.



Discussion and conclusion

The IEA International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) set out to study 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 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 and citizenship education. This view of civics and citizenship was elaborated in considerable detail in the ICCS framework, which formed the content of the first publication to emerge from the study (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). The framework provided the basis for the development of a sound assessment of civic knowledge as well as of various attitudes and intentions related to civic and citizenship education. The authors of that publication described the concepts underpinning ICCS and specified the study's approach to measurement.

In this current international report on the results from ICCS, we documented differences among countries in relation to a wide range of different civic-related learning outcomes, actions, and dispositions. We also documented differences in the relationship between those outcomes and characteristics of countries, and in the relationship of these outcomes with student characteristics and school contexts.

In order to provide an overview of the results, we summarize, in this final chapter, the main outcomes of the ICCS survey with respect to each of the six research questions that guided the study. We also discuss the country-level outcomes across different aspects and the general findings from our multivariate analyses of the ICCS data. We then consider some implications of these findings for policy and practice. We end the chapter with a look at potential future directions for international research on civic and citizenship education.

The six research questions that guided the study were:

- RQ1* What variations exist among countries and within countries in student civic and citizenship knowledge?
- RQ2* What changes in civic knowledge have occurred since the last international assessment in 1999?
- RQ3* What is the extent of interest and disposition to engage in public and political life among adolescents, and which factors within or across countries are related to this engagement?
- RQ4* What are adolescents' perceptions of the impact of threats to civil society and of responses to these threats on the future development of that society?
- RQ5* What aspects of schools and education systems are related to knowledge about, and attitudes toward, civics and citizenship, including the following:
- a. general approaches to civic and citizenship education, curriculum, and/or program content structure and delivery;
 - b. teaching practices, such as those that encourage higher order thinking and analysis in relation to civics and citizenship; and
 - c. aspects of school organization, including opportunities to contribute to conflict resolution, participate in governance processes, and be involved in decision-making?
- RQ6* What aspects of students' personal and social background, such as gender, socioeconomic background, and language background, are related to student knowledge about, and attitudes toward, civic and citizenship education?



Variations among and within countries in civic knowledge

Research Question 1 was concerned with the extent of variation existing among and within countries in students' knowledge about civics and citizenship (i.e., students' civic knowledge).

In ICCS, civic knowledge was measured on a scale with an international average of 500 scale points and a standard deviation of 100 scale points. The results from ICCS showed considerable variation across and within countries in the extent of civic knowledge. About half of the variation was recorded at the student level, about a quarter at the school level, and a further quarter across countries.

The average civic knowledge scores ranged from 380 to 576—a range equivalent to almost two international student-level standard deviations. The difference between the bottom quartile and the top quartile (i.e., covering the middle half of the averages for countries) was about 60 scale points. This variation related to the educational and economic development of the participating countries. Another factor associated with levels of civic knowledge was the average age of the surveyed student populations.

We observed even greater variation in civic knowledge scores within the participating countries. For example, the distance between the lowest 5 percent and the highest 95 percent of civic knowledge scores was almost equal to 300 scale points. We also noted quite substantial differences across countries in the within-country variation as well as in the extent to which this variation was associated with differences among schools. Evidence that the proportion of variance among schools reflected characteristics of education systems is consistent with findings from other international studies of educational achievement.

The civic knowledge scale reflects progression from being able to deal with concrete, familiar, and mechanistic elements of civics and citizenship through to understanding the wider policy climate and institutional processes that determine the shape of civic communities. Analysis of the student achievement data led to the establishment of three proficiency levels:

- *Proficiency Level 1:* characterized by engagement with the fundamental principles and broad concepts that underpin civics and citizenship and by a mechanistic working knowledge of the operation of civic, civil, and political institutions.
- *Proficiency Level 2:* 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:* characterized by the application of knowledge and understanding to evaluate or justify policies, practices, and behaviors based on students' understanding of civics and citizenship.

The descriptions of these levels bring meaning to the ICCS civic knowledge scale. On average, across participating countries, 16 percent of students were below Proficiency Level 1, 26 percent of students were classified as being at Proficiency Level 1, 31 percent were at Proficiency Level 2, and 28 percent were at Proficiency Level 3. In the four highest-performing countries, more than half of the students were at Proficiency Level 3. In the four lowest-performing countries, more than 70 percent of the students were at Proficiency Level 1 or below.

Changes in civic knowledge since 1999

Research Question 2 was concerned with changes in civic knowledge since 1999, the year in which IEA conducted its survey of civic education known as CIVED (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001). ICCS included some of the same items from that study, making it possible to compare the “civic content knowledge” (a subset of the overall civic knowledge assessment) scores in 1999 and 2009 for 15 of the countries that participated in both studies.



The comparison indicated a decline in civic content knowledge in almost half of the 15 countries since 1999; only one country had a statistically significant increase in civic content knowledge among lower secondary students over that time. These findings must, however, be interpreted with caution, given limitations with regard to the small number of link items and their restricted content coverage and the change in test design between the two surveys. At this stage, it is not possible to offer an explanation for the decline, and it is also important to recognize that this observation refers to just one aspect of civic and citizenship education.

Interest and disposition to engage in public and political life

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. A number of interesting findings about the way students think about civic society and how they engage with it emerged from the data. We described and discussed in Chapters 4 and 5 of this report the outcomes of that part of the ICCS student survey focused on the affective-behavioral domains comprising civic-related value beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors.

Large majorities of the ICCS students endorsed democratic values. They agreed with a number of fundamental democratic rights as well as with the importance of a great number of the conventional and social-movement-related behaviors that are considered to support good citizenship. However, students varied, to an interesting extent, in their views of media monopolies, their criticism of government and nepotism, and their endorsement of specified dimensions of good citizenship.

Although students strongly endorsed the principle of gender equality, there were some notable variations in the overall strength of this support across countries. As in the previous IEA studies of civics and citizenship, females, across all participating countries, were significantly more supportive than males of gender equality. Majorities of students also supported equal rights for ethnic or racial groups and immigrants. However, students in a number of ICCS countries were considerably less supportive than their peers in other countries of equal rights for immigrants.

There was some variation across countries with regard to trust in civic institutions. Political parties were the institutions least trusted, but both trust and support for political parties varied quite noticeably. In some countries, political parties attracted clearly higher levels of trust or support, whereas in others, only small minorities of students had confidence in them or expressed preferences for one or more of them. ICCS students also held generally positive attitudes toward their country of residence. However, in a number of countries, student responses showed up differences between students with or without an immigrant background. Immigrant students expressed less positive attitudes than their non-immigrant peers.

We recorded notable differences with respect to students' engagement with religion. Large differences in percentages of students reporting affiliation with a religion were evident across the 28 countries that participated in this international option. The same pattern was apparent with respect to the students' reported active involvement in religious services. Attitudes toward the influence of religion on society likewise varied considerably across the participating countries.

Student interest in political and social issues was stronger with regard to domestic political and social issues than with respect to foreign issues and international politics. Contrary to findings from the earlier IEA studies (where interest was found to be higher among males), gender differences on this measure were small. Students who reported that their parents were interested in political and social issues expressed greater interest in those issues. This finding is particularly noteworthy because it suggests a transmission of interest across generations. Approximately half of the participating students indicated a preference for one particular political party, and



14 percent said that they “liked one party a lot more than others.” It appears that minorities of students do form political preferences at a relatively young age.

On average, just under half of the ICCS students agreed with statements measuring their generalized beliefs about their ability to understand politics and act politically (internal political efficacy). However, when the students were asked about more specific tasks related to civic engagement (citizenship self-efficacy), majorities reported that they were quite or very confident about doing these tasks. This finding again suggests that political thinking tends to be relatively undeveloped among students of the ICCS target age group. However, student responses indicated that these young people have dispositions toward other forms of civic engagement that relate more closely to their own experiences. Student interest, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy were all associated with civic knowledge in most participating countries.

Most of the ICCS students reported that they kept themselves regularly informed about national and international news from different sources, particularly television. However, on average, only a quarter of students stated that they discussed political and social issues with friends on a weekly basis. Active civic participation in the wider community was relatively uncommon among the students; civic participation at school was considerably more common.

Student expectations of becoming involved in legal protest activities were shared by majorities of students, but only minorities considered that they would engage in illegal activities such as blocking traffic or occupying buildings. Majorities of students said they intended to vote as adults in national elections, but few students expected to join political parties in the future. In line with the findings from CIVED in 1999, students’ expectation that they would vote in national elections was positively associated with both civic knowledge and interest in political and social issues.

Students’ attitudes toward responses to threats to society

Research Question 4 was formulated to take into account recent developments in many democratic societies with regard to the balance between securing society and protecting the civil liberties of its citizens. Although, given the age group surveyed, the ICCS research team could not fully address all aspects related to this question, it did include questions regarding students’ acceptance of measures with the potential to infringe civil liberties in a democratic society.

In most of the ICCS countries, majorities of students supported measures that increased the power of security agencies to (for example) control communications and hold suspects in jail for relatively long periods of time. Even higher percentages of students endorsed restricting media coverage during times of perceived crisis.

Aspects of schools and education systems related to outcomes of civic and citizenship education

Research Question 5 was concerned with aspects of schools and education systems that appear to relate to knowledge about, and attitudes toward, civics and citizenship. The question embraced general approaches to civics and citizenship, teaching practices, and aspects of school organization.

The ICCS research team collected data on these aspects at the system level through its national contexts survey, at the school level through its teacher and school surveys, and at the student level through its student questionnaire. This approach allowed us to review the various aspects related to the research question from different perspectives (e.g., teachers and principals) and at different levels of the participating education systems.



General approaches to civic and citizenship education

The different approaches to delivering civic and citizenship education evident in the ICCS countries included providing a specific subject, integrating relevant content into other subjects, and including content as a cross-curricular theme. Twenty-one of the 38 participating countries included a specific subject concerned with civic and citizenship education in their respective curriculums; only minorities of ICCS students were attending schools where principals reported no specific approach to delivering civic and citizenship education in the school curriculum. The cross-national findings also showed a tendency for different delivery approaches to coexist within the same school and within a country.

According to the information collected from the ICCS national research centers, civic and citizenship education covered a wide range of topics across the participating countries. These encompassed knowledge and understanding of political institutions and concepts, such as human rights, as well as newer topics covering social and community cohesion, diversity, the environment, communications, and global society.

Most teachers and school principals regarded the development of knowledge and skills as the most important aim of civic and citizenship education. This development included “promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions,” “developing students’ skills and competencies in conflict resolution,” “promoting knowledge of citizens’ rights and responsibilities,” and “promoting students’ critical and independent thinking.”

The development of active participation was not among the objectives that teachers or school principals, in any of the participating countries, cited as the most important. However, it is important to remember when comparing the ICCS results with the CIVED findings that the ICCS teacher sample consisted of teachers teaching across different subject areas rather than just teachers of subjects specifically focused on civic and citizenship education.

Teaching practices

One of the major findings from the IEA CIVED survey was the positive association between a classroom climate receptive (open) to discussion of political and social issues and civic knowledge. ICCS collected data on classroom climate from both students and teachers. Across countries, majorities of students reported engaging at least “sometimes” in discussion that focused on political and social issues and took place within classrooms open to such discussion. The analysis of teacher perceptions indicated that while teachers were generally receptive to open student expression in classrooms, they offered their students only limited input into the choice of civic-related topics and activities.

According to the teachers 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. Only minorities of teachers reported student involvement in human rights projects or activities to help the underprivileged.

ICCS also asked teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education how confident they felt to teach topics in this area. Results were similar to those from CIVED. Citizenship rights and responsibilities and human rights were the areas teachers felt most confident about; they were considerably less confident about teaching areas relating to the economic, business, and legal aspects of citizenship education.

Aspects of school organization

Scholars often maintain that student learning about democratic principles is influenced by the decision-making experiences that students have at their schools. ICCS collected data on different aspects of student involvement in civic-related activities at school, including students’



current or past participation and students' perception of its value and the extent to which they thought they could influence school-related decisions.

Across participating countries, majorities of students reported having participated in class or school elections and about two fifths also reported involvement in debates, decision-making, and student assemblies. Generally, only minorities reported no involvement whatsoever in school civic-related activities. In general, students agreed with statements reflecting the premise that student participation at school is valuable.

When both students and teachers were asked about the extent to which students could influence decision-making at school, majorities of both indicated that, in their view, students had more influence on class and school rules than on timetables and learning materials. The ICCS results also showed that, across countries, students who thought they had the relatively larger influences on decision-making were also the students with the lower civic knowledge scores. This finding, which is also evident in a Swedish study (Almgren, 2006), is one deserving of further research.

Aspects of student personal and social background associated with civics and citizenship outcomes

Research Question 6 was concerned with the relationship between students' personal and social backgrounds (e.g., gender, socioeconomic background, language background) and students' knowledge about and attitudes toward civic and citizenship education.

A number of student characteristics were associated with civic knowledge scores. In nearly all countries, females gained higher civic knowledge scores than males; the average difference was 22 scale points. Because this difference was not evident in the CIVED survey of 1999, it may reflect differences in the CIVED and ICCS assessment frameworks and the more contextualized form of the ICCS questions. Gender differences were also apparent with regard to a number of affective-behavioral measures, in particular attitudes toward equal rights for gender groups and all ethnic/racial groups and immigrants, as well as toward some forms of expected participation. In all cases, female students held significantly more positive attitudes than male students did.

Students from non-immigrant backgrounds recorded higher civic knowledge scores than students from immigrant backgrounds; the difference was 37 scale points. However, this difference varied across countries, from fewer than 10 scale points to almost 70 points. 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. The magnitude of these differences varied considerably across countries. However, when we statistically controlled for the influence of socioeconomic background, the effects of immigrant background and language use tended to be smaller.

In all of the ICCS countries, students whose parents had higher-status occupations gained higher civic knowledge scores. Similar results were found for students whose parents had higher educational qualifications and whose homes had larger numbers of books. However, we observed considerable differences across countries in the strength of the relationship between socioeconomic background and civic knowledge. In some countries, the influence was quite strong; in others it was relatively weak.

Students' civic knowledge and, to a much larger extent, students' interest in political and social issues were influenced by home orientations toward political and social issues (parental interest and frequency of discussion with parents about these issues). These effects remained significant even after we had controlled for the socioeconomic background of students. These findings support the notion that social capital plays an important role in shaping individuals' civic knowledge and engagement.



Comparing student outcomes across countries

ICCS collected a wide range of the measures of cognitive as well as affective-behavioral dimensions of civics and citizenship outlined in the study's assessment framework (Schulz et al., 2008). Comparing the differences among these measures across the participating countries provides us with a broad picture of patterns within and across countries.¹

Table 9.1 presents our cross-national comparison of average student scores on the cognitive and affective-behavioral scales. One notable international pattern revealed by the symbols in the table is the general lack of correspondence between the higher civic knowledge scores and the higher scores on some of the affective-behavioral scales. Some of the countries with low knowledge scores were those where students gained very high scores on the two citizenship dimensions, student self-beliefs, and expected participation scales. This pattern did not hold for student attitudes toward gender equality: countries with high civic knowledge scores also tended to be the countries where students scored above the ICCS average with respect to equal rights for gender groups.

The interesting regional patterns evident in Table 9.1 may reflect differences in cultural orientation or educational emphases. Examples of these patterns follow.

Students in the Latin American countries had, on average, quite low civic knowledge scores, but they gained relatively high average scores on most of the affective-behavioral scales. These students tended to express interest in political and social issues, to have relatively strong self-efficacy beliefs, and to stress the importance of participating in civic and citizenship activities. They also expressed appreciation of their countries, expected to participate, as adults, in legal protests and elections, and held positive attitudes toward ethnic/racial groups and immigrants.

Students in the Northern European countries tended to have high scores on the civic knowledge scale, to hold positive attitudes toward gender rights, and to have above-average scores for trust in their civic institutions. However, they also tended to have a lower level of interest in political and social issues, as well as lower levels of internal political efficacy, citizenship self-efficacy, and expectation with regard to future involvement in protest activities.

In the Asia region, the symbols in the table reveal some notable differences across the relevant countries. On average, the students in Indonesia and Thailand gained low scores on the civic knowledge scale but high scores on several affective measures, notably attitudes toward institutions, self-beliefs, and expected participation. The students in Chinese Taipei and the Republic of Korea tended to have high levels of civic knowledge but relatively low levels of trust in institutions and allegiance to their countries.

The finding that students in countries with low average scores on the civic knowledge scale had high average scores on a number of scales related to civic engagement is one that strongly merits exploration in subsequent studies. These results align with the findings of other international comparative studies, including those assessing different learning areas. When interpreting these results, one should keep in mind that negative country-level associations do not necessarily coincide with negative correlations at the individual level. For example, within the ICCS participating countries, measures of interest, internal political efficacy, citizenship self-efficacy, and expected electoral participation all showed positive associations with civic knowledge.

¹ In Chapters 4 to 6, we classified country average scores into five categories: (1) more than three score points (equivalent to 0.3 of an international standard deviation) above the ICCS average, (2) significantly above the ICCS average, (3) not significantly different from the ICCS average, (4) significantly below the ICCS average, and (5) more than three score points below the ICCS average. We did this not only to emphasize cross-country differences but also to highlight (in addition to the statistically significant differences) those differences that were considerably above or below the average. A similar logic can be applied to civic knowledge by flagging countries more than 30 points (which is equal to 0.3 times of the international standard deviation of 100) above or below the ICCS average.





Table 9.1: Comparison of country average score results for cognitive and affective-behavioral ICCS scales

Country	Cognitive Outcomes		Citizenship Values		Attitudes Toward Equal Rights			Attitudes Toward Institutions		Students' Self-Beliefs			Expected Protest Activities		Expected Protest Participation	
	Civic knowledge	Conventional	Social-movement-related	Gender groups	Ethnic/racial groups	Immigrants	Trust in civic institutions	Attitudes toward country	Interest in political and social issues	Internal political efficacy	Citizenship self-efficacy	Legal	Illegal	Electoral	Active political	
Austria		▽	▽	△	▽	▽	△	△	△	△			▽	△	△	
Belgium (Flemish) †	▼	▼	▼	△	▽	▼	▽	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▽	▼	▼	
Bulgaria	▼	▽	▲	▼	▽	△	▽	▽	▽			△	△	▽	▽	
Chile	▽	△	▲	△	▲	▲	▽	△	△	△	△	▲	△		▽	
Chinese Taipei	▲		△	▲	▲	▲	▽	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	▼	△	▽	
Colombia	▼	△	▲	▽	△	▲	▽	▲	△	△	▲	▲		▲	▲	
Cyprus	▼	▲	△	▽	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	△	▲	▲	▽	△	
Czech Republic †	△	▼	▽	▽	▼	▽	▽	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	△	▼	▼	
Denmark †	▲	▽	▼	▲	▽	▽	△	△	△	△	△	▽	▼	▽	▽	
Dominican Republic	▼	▲	▲	▼	△	△	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	△	▲	
England ‡	△	▽	▽	▲		▼	△	△	△					△	△	
Estonia	△	▽	▽	▽	△	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▼	▽	
Finland	▲	▼	▼	▲	▽	▽	▲	△	▼	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Greece	▽	▽	▲		▽	△	▽	▼	△	△	△	△	▲		▽	
Guatemala ¹	▼	▲	▲	▽	▲	▲	▼	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▽	▲	△	
Indonesia	▼	▲	▲	▼		▼	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	△	▲	
Ireland	▲			▲	△		▽	△	▽	▽	▽	△	△	△	△	
Italy	▲	▲	△	△	▽	▽	△	▽	△	△	△	△	△	▲	△	
Korea, Republic of ¹	▲	△	△	△	▽	▽	▼	▼	▽	▲	▲	▼	▽	▽	▼	
Latvia	▽		▽	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	△	▽	▽				△	
Liechtenstein	▲	▽	▼	▲		▽	▲	△	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽		△	
Lithuania		△	▽	▽		△	▽	▽	△	△	△	△	△	△	▽	
Luxembourg	▽	▽	▼	△	△	△	△	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	△	
Malta	▽		▽	△	▼	▽	△	▽	▽	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Mexico	▼	▲	△	▼	△	▲	▽	△	△	△	▲	▲	△	△	▲	
New Zealand †	△	▽	▼	△	△	△	△	△	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Norway †	△	△	△	▲	△		△	△	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	△	▽	

Table 9.1: Comparison of country average score results for cognitive and affective-behavioral ICCS scales (contd.)

Country	Cognitive Outcomes	Citizenship Values		Attitudes Toward Equal Rights			Attitudes Toward Institutions		Students' Self-Beliefs				Expected Protest Activities		Expected Protest Participation	
		Conventional	Social-movement-related	Gender groups	Ethnic/racial groups	Immigrants	Trust in civic institutions	Attitudes toward country	Interest in political and social issues	Internal political efficacy	Citizenship self-efficacy	Legal	Illegal	Electoral	Active political	
Paraguay ¹	▼	△	▲	▽	△	▲		△	△	△	△	△	△	△	▲	
Poland	▲	△	▽	▽			▼	▽	△	△	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Russian Federation		△		▼	▽	▽	△	▲	△	△	▽	▽	△	△	△	
Slovak Republic ²	△	▼	▽	▽	▽		▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Slovenia	△	▼	▽	△	▽		▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Spain		▽	△	▲	△	△		▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	△	▽	▽	
Sweden	▲	▼	▽	▲	△	△	△	▽	▽	▼	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Switzerland †	▲	▽	▼	△	▽	▽	△	△	△	△	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽	
Thailand †	▼	▲	▲	▼	▽	▽	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	

National average

▲ More than 0.3 of an international standard deviation above ICCS average

△ Significantly above ICCS average

▽ Significantly below ICCS average

▼ More than 0.3 of an international standard deviation below ICCS average

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- 2 National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Results from the multivariate analyses

We conducted a number of multivariate analyses of the ICCS data in order to review the extent to which, across the participating countries, different factors influenced civic knowledge and engagement in combination. The multilevel model that we developed in order to examine this variation included measures from the student and school questionnaires. We also estimated multiple regression models in an effort to assess which student-background, cognitive, and other affective-behavioral variables influenced students' expectations of engaging in political activity once they reached adulthood.

The multivariate analyses in this report focused on comparison of the models for each country that were replicated across countries. Within the scope of this international report, this approach provided more detail about differences among countries than the results obtained from a general three-level model (student, school, and country) did. However, the application of three-level models in future research may provide a perspective that includes country-level variables and interaction effects between factors in different levels of the model.

The results from the multilevel analyses confirmed the influence of a number of student-level antecedent factors on civic knowledge, including gender and socioeconomic background. Student communication behaviors (discussion, media use) also emerged as positive predictors of civic knowledge. Among the process-related variables reflecting the school-learning context, the perceptions that students held of openness during classroom discussions of political and social issues and the extent of their experience with voting had effects over and above the influence of home background factors.

Of the school-level factors investigated, only the socioeconomic context had positive effects on civic knowledge in a large majority of countries. Furthermore, once we had controlled for the socioeconomic composition of the school, we found no other strong associations between civic knowledge and school-level variables. However, average perception of openness in classroom discussions still featured as a positive predictor in a number of countries. School principals' perceptions of students' sense of belonging showed some independent effects on civic knowledge in a smaller number of countries.

The absence of strong associations between civic knowledge and school factors other than socioeconomic context may disappoint readers who expect schools to influence the civic-learning process of adolescents. However, a number of the ICCS findings provide some evidence that school influences can be important. At the individual level, we can note the consistent general association across the ICCS countries between civic knowledge and two variables—experience with voting, and perceiving the classroom as an open forum for discussion. We also note that the same associations relative to the school context remained discernible after we had controlled for the influence of school socioeconomic characteristics. Further detailed research on the interplay between socioeconomic and process-related school variables and how they influence the development of civic knowledge is needed.

The multivariate model that we used to analyze students' expectations of electoral and active political participation in later adult life included the variables of student background, civic knowledge, self-beliefs, and attitudes toward institutions. The results indicated that student background variables had only a limited influence. There were strong associations, however, between student dispositions and behavioral intentions.

Although expected electoral behavior was positively associated with civic knowledge, this was not the case for expected active political behavior. Also, whereas civic engagement at school positively predicted students' intentions to participate in elections, it had no apparent influence on students' expectations to engage in more active (but conventional) political behavior, such as working in political organizations or on political campaigns. Past or current participation in



the wider community, however, was a positive predictor for expected active participation. These findings suggest that school experiences positively influence basic political engagement but not more active involvement in forms of conventional civic-related participation.

Trusting civic institutions and preferring one or more political parties over other parties tended to be positively associated with students' reported intentions to take part, as adults, in electoral and more active forms of political participation. The same associations held for the importance of interest in political and social issues, internal political efficacy, and citizenship self-efficacy: each of these factors tended to have independent effects on both forms of expected participation. Being motivated, having a general sense of being able to cope with politics, and confidence in becoming active as a citizen all contributed to anticipated future engagement in politics.

We note here that these first analyses of expected political participation need to be interpreted with caution. Expectations of adult behavior at this early stage of adolescence are likely to be rather vague, and we would need to employ a different research design (probably longitudinal) to assess the extent to which those expectations are realized. Also, within the scope of this report, we were not able to consider other forms of civic engagement (e.g., expected participation in legal or illegal protest and expected informal civic participation) that young people are most likely to be able to engage in at this stage of their lives. These matters are ones warranting exploration through secondary analyses.

Another limitation centers on our concern that some of the reciprocal relationships between affective-behavioral variables in the model were not adequately addressed through the multiple regression analyses. Structural equation models could provide us and other interested researchers with an alternative means of analyzing these relationships.

These reservations aside, the results presented in this report provide a good starting point for future analyses. In addition, and despite the relatively low proportion of between-school variance, we consider that estimating multilevel models for expected participation would allow us, and others, to review any possible effects of school-level variables.

Possible implications for policy and practice

Because the outcomes of ICCS 2009 illustrate the often very different approaches that education systems take to the provision of civic and citizenship education (approaches that are reflected in the varying associations between antecedents, processes, and outcomes), spelling out specific implications for policy and practice would doubtless be easier if done on a per-country basis. This observation also has credence when we consider that the countries participating in ICCS chose to do so for reasons relating to their national contexts and that the range of countries in this study covered only a limited number of geographic regions and types of education system. Nonetheless, we suggest that it is possible to outline a number of general conclusions that draw upon findings viewed from a comparative perspective.

On the positive side, the ICCS results indicate that, on average, majorities of students in the participating countries knew about the main civics and citizenship institutions and understood the interconnectedness of institutions and processes. As such, we could place them at Proficiency Level 2 of the civic knowledge scale (see earlier in this chapter). However, the substantial minorities of students in all countries who had limited civic knowledge suggest the need for ongoing effort to improve pedagogy related to civics and citizenship.

The results also highlighted large cross-national differences in the nature of students' civic knowledge. In some of the low-performing countries, about 70 percent of students had, at best, a fundamental understanding and a mechanistic knowledge of this learning area. In some of these cases, attempts to enhance civic learning would most likely need to be tied in with general improvements to the education systems concerned. One such improvement would be that directed at raising literacy levels.



Another observation is that even though students who had experienced democratic school practices tended to have the higher scores on the civic knowledge scale and to state their intention to engage in electoral activities once they reached adulthood, their civic-related learning seemed to have done little to encourage them to become active participants, as adults, in the political process (e.g., joining a political party). Furthermore, after controlling for other factors, we found that the students who said they would become more actively involved in politics once they were adults tended to be the students with lower levels of civic knowledge. These somewhat counter-intuitive relationships need further exploration, but what we can say here is that experiencing democratic practices and activities at school will not necessarily translate into conventional active political engagement in adulthood.

The finding that most students participating in ICCS expressed rather negative views of political parties aligns with findings from earlier studies. Trust in and preferences for particular parties, willingness to engage in them, and perceptions that party membership is desirable for good citizenship were little in evidence across the participating countries. This pattern is consistent with more general evidence of a growing disenchantment with political parties over the past few decades in many democratic countries. On the positive side, the ICCS results highlighted support (often strong) among the lower-secondary students for social-movement-related citizenship behavior and voting as the basic element of citizenship. These students, moreover, expressed their widespread preparedness to become involved in legal protest activities. This group of findings confirms observations from the IEA CIVED survey of 1999 that young people prefer alternative forms of citizen engagement over conventional forms of participation (see Torney-Purta et al., 2001, p. 181; also Sherrod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010).

In the context of what schools can do to prepare students for more active citizenship, we would like to draw attention to the fact that, according to majorities of the school teachers and principals who completed the relevant ICCS questionnaires, the focus of civic learning should be more on developing students' civic-related knowledge and skills than on developing their participatory skills. Consideration of this observation alongside teachers' and principals' reports that school-based student participation in the wider community focuses mainly on sports and cultural events suggests the need to move civic and citizenship learning in the direction of citizenship participation.

One of the crucial questions that arises during study of civic and citizenship education is to what extent schools, and to what extent home backgrounds, contribute to the formation of future citizens. ICCS provides evidence confirming the importance of socioeconomic background as well as the influence of home orientations, such as parental interest in social and political issues and discussions on these matters with parents. But it also provides evidence that civic engagement at school, more than involvement in community activities, contributes to several important outcomes, such as civic knowledge and intentions to vote in adulthood. Finally, at least in a number of countries, the extent to which students considered their classrooms provided an open forum for discussion of issues appeared to be associated (both at the individual and the school level) with civic knowledge above and beyond the concomitant influence of socioeconomic background.



Outlook for future directions of research

This report on findings from the ICCS survey provides an overview of a wide range of results based on the rich data collected during the study. However, as occurred after the release of the findings of the 1999 IEA CIVED study, we expect that this report will be followed by a large number of secondary research studies. Subsequent analyses could investigate in greater detail not only the relationships between students' civic knowledge and students' attitudes toward aspects of civics and citizenship but also the relationships between these outcomes and approaches to civic and citizenship education and characteristics of students and their societies. Interactions between the country context and within-country relationships between context and outcomes will be of particular interest.

ICCS has not only built on previous studies in this area, but also provided a new baseline for future research on civic and citizenship education. Its approach of collecting data at all relevant levels and from different perspectives will enable secondary analysts to exploit the richness of the international database. The implementation of additional data collection focused on geographical regions is another asset of the study, especially in terms of allowing researchers to address specific civic-related aspects and topics in Asia, Europe, and Latin America.

The complex design of ICCS and the comprehensive coverage of its cognitive test also offer opportunities for future international surveys. These could collect data on linked cognitive and affective-behavioral outcomes and the researchers involved could then compare the results with those from ICCS. Future surveys in this area could also build on the experience gained during ICCS and the understanding obtained from its results by broadening their scope to include aspects of civic and citizenship education not included in the 2009 survey.



Appendices

APPENDIX A: INSTRUMENT DESIGN, SAMPLES, AND PARTICIPATION RATES

Table A.1: ICCS test booklet design

Booklet	Position		
	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.2: Coverage of ICCS 2009 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%
Chile	100%		0.1%	1.6%	1.6%
Chinese Taipei	100%		0.4%	1.5%	1.9%
Colombia	100%		1.1%	0.3%	1.5%
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%
Dominican Republic	100%		0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
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%
Guatemala	100%		0.6%	1.3%	1.9%
Hong Kong SAR	100%		1.2%	0.0%	1.2%
Indonesia	100%		0.9%	0.2%	1.1%
Ireland	100%		0.1%	1.2%	1.2%
Italy	100%		0.1%	4.4%	4.5%
Korea Republic of	100%		1.6%	0.3%	1.8%
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%
Mexico	100%		1.0%	0.2%	1.2%
Netherlands	100%		4.6%	3.4%	8.0%
New Zealand	100%		1.9%	2.3%	4.2%
Norway	100%		1.0%	1.4%	2.5%
Paraguay	100%		2.3%	0.1%	2.4%
Poland	100%		2.3%	1.2%	3.5%
Russian Federation	100%		2.9%	1.9%	4.8%
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%
Thailand	100%		2.7%	0.3%	3.0%
Additional grade samples					
Greece	100%		0.6%	1.3%	1.9%
Norway	100%		1.0%	0.9%	2.0%
Slovenia	100%		1.8%	3.4%	5.2%
Sweden	100%		2.2%	2.1%	4.2%

Note:

Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



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
Chile	98.3	99.4	99.4	177	96.2	5192	94.6	95.7
Chinese Taipei	98.6	100.0	100.0	150	99.0	5167	97.6	99.0
Colombia	93.2	99.5	99.5	196	95.3	6204	88.8	94.8
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
Dominican Republic	99.4	99.4	99.3	145	95.6	4589	95.1	95.1
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
Guatemala	98.2	100.0	100.0	145	97.4	4002	95.7	97.4
Hong Kong SAR	42.1	50.7	50.7	76	97.0	2902	40.8	49.2
Indonesia	98.8	100.0	100.0	142	97.4	5068	96.2	97.4
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
Korea Republic of	100.0	100.0	100.0	150	98.6	5254	98.6	98.6
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
Mexico	97.8	97.8	97.7	215	94.5	6576	92.4	92.4
Netherlands	36.6	47.7	47.2	67	95.4	1964	35.0	45.5
New Zealand	80.8	84.3	84.9	146	91.9	3979	74.2	77.4
Norway	62.5	86.0	86.0	129	91.6	3013	57.2	78.8
Paraguay	95.3	99.4	99.3	149	96.3	3399	91.8	95.8
Poland	99.3	100.0	100.0	150	91.1	3249	90.4	91.1
Russian Federation	100.0	100.0	100.0	210	96.8	4295	96.8	96.8
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
Thailand	75.2	100.0	100.0	149	98.1	5263	73.8	98.1

Additional grade samples

Greece	89.6	97.5	97.4	151	93.6	3009	83.9	91.2
Norway	62.1	86.0	86.0	129	89.4	2926	55.5	76.9
Slovenia	92.2	95.9	95.9	163	93.2	3042	85.9	89.3
Sweden	95.3	99.4	98.8	167	92.9	3515	88.6	92.4

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
Chile	98.7	99.5	99.4	177	97.7	1756	96.4	97.2
Chinese Taipei	94.1	95.1	95.3	143	98.6	2367	92.8	93.8
Colombia	87.8	95.6	95.4	188	92.3	2010	81.1	88.2
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
Dominican Republic	98.9	98.9	99.3	145	95.4	778	94.3	94.3
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.
Guatemala	97.1	100.0	100.0	145	99.0	1138	96.1	99.0
Hong Kong SAR	49.7	67.2	67.3	101	95.8	1446	47.6	64.3
Indonesia	98.7	99.3	99.3	141	89.8	2097	88.7	89.2
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
Korea Republic of	98.7	98.7	98.7	148	99.7	2340	98.5	98.5
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
Mexico	92.3	92.3	91.8	202	89.4	1844	82.4	82.4
Netherlands	n.a.	n.a.	7.2	22	n.a.	236	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	63.0	65.5	65.7	115	87.7	1347	55.2	57.4
Norway	37.4	48.6	48.7	73	72.9	492	27.3	35.4
Paraguay	87.1	93.2	92.7	139	85.3	1176	74.3	79.5
Poland	99.5	100.0	100.0	150	96.2	2081	95.8	96.2
Russian Federation	100.0	100.0	100.0	210	99.8	3081	99.8	99.8
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
Thailand	70.5	100.0	100.0	149	99.9	1766	70.4	99.9



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)
Chile	344 (7.2)	420 (5.0)	544 (4.6)	629 (6.3)
Chinese Taipei	397 (5.4)	495 (4.6)	626 (5.3)	705 (5.1)
Colombia	329 (6.1)	405 (4.2)	518 (4.2)	594 (5.0)
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)
Dominican Republic	280 (4.0)	333 (5.3)	423 (4.9)	498 (5.0)
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)
Guatemala ¹	312 (5.7)	384 (4.8)	485 (6.5)	564 (9.2)
Indonesia	321 (6.4)	385 (4.6)	479 (5.7)	551 (6.0)
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)
Korea, Republic of ¹	424 (4.3)	512 (4.8)	621 (3.9)	688 (3.9)
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)
Mexico	321 (5.2)	392 (5.0)	510 (4.8)	591 (5.0)
New Zealand †	333 (8.6)	440 (7.0)	596 (7.3)	693 (7.2)
Norway †	352 (7.0)	450 (6.0)	581 (5.0)	669 (6.7)
Paraguay ¹	280 (6.3)	362 (5.4)	483 (6.1)	575 (4.4)
Poland	371 (6.9)	469 (7.8)	606 (7.1)	695 (6.4)
Russian Federation	370 (4.7)	446 (5.2)	565 (6.2)	647 (8.1)
Slovak Republic ²	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)
Thailand †	327 (6.1)	396 (6.1)	507 (6.5)	579 (7.1)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	379 (12.0)	494 (8.4)	621 (5.8)	702 (5.5)
Netherlands	342 (13.8)	431 (10.4)	559 (8.5)	635 (8.7)

Additional grade samples

Greece	351 (8.2)	450 (6.8)	584 (5.7)	666 (4.2)
Norway †	359 (6.9)	469 (6.1)	613 (5.2)	699 (6.7)
Slovenia	390 (4.6)	479 (5.0)	604 (4.6)	686 (5.6)
Sweden	391 (6.2)	502 (5.4)	650 (6.0)	745 (6.5)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table B.2: Means and standard deviations of civic knowledge

Country	All students		Females		Males	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Austria	503 (4.0)	97 (2.0)	513 (4.6)	92 (2.3)	496 (4.5)	100 (2.4)
Belgium (Flemish) †	514 (4.7)	81 (2.1)	517 (5.3)	78 (2.7)	511 (5.6)	84 (2.7)
Bulgaria	466 (5.0)	105 (3.0)	479 (5.2)	103 (3.9)	454 (6.1)	106 (3.1)
Chile	483 (3.5)	88 (1.5)	490 (4.3)	86 (2.4)	476 (4.2)	89 (1.9)
Chinese Taipei	559 (2.4)	94 (1.2)	573 (2.7)	89 (1.8)	546 (2.7)	96 (1.5)
Colombia	462 (2.9)	81 (1.6)	463 (3.1)	80 (1.9)	461 (4.0)	82 (2.3)
Cyprus	453 (2.4)	93 (1.4)	475 (2.7)	88 (1.9)	435 (3.2)	93 (1.9)
Czech Republic †	510 (2.4)	87 (1.3)	520 (3.0)	87 (1.6)	502 (2.4)	87 (1.6)
Denmark †	576 (3.6)	99 (1.5)	581 (3.4)	96 (1.6)	573 (4.5)	102 (2.4)
Dominican Republic	380 (2.4)	66 (1.2)	392 (2.8)	68 (1.5)	367 (2.7)	62 (1.5)
England ‡	519 (4.4)	105 (2.8)	529 (6.1)	101 (3.8)	509 (6.1)	107 (3.3)
Estonia	525 (4.5)	92 (2.4)	542 (4.8)	85 (2.9)	509 (4.9)	95 (2.8)
Finland	576 (2.4)	84 (1.3)	590 (2.9)	77 (1.4)	562 (3.5)	90 (1.8)
Greece	476 (4.4)	98 (2.0)	492 (4.8)	96 (2.4)	460 (5.1)	98 (2.3)
Guatemala ¹	435 (3.8)	76 (2.5)	435 (4.2)	75 (2.8)	434 (4.3)	76 (2.7)
Indonesia	433 (3.4)	70 (2.0)	442 (3.9)	70 (2.5)	423 (3.5)	68 (2.0)
Ireland	534 (4.6)	101 (2.2)	545 (4.8)	98 (2.6)	523 (6.0)	103 (2.5)
Italy	531 (3.3)	88 (1.6)	540 (3.4)	85 (1.8)	522 (3.9)	89 (1.9)
Korea, Republic of ¹	565 (1.9)	81 (1.1)	577 (2.4)	78 (1.4)	555 (2.3)	81 (1.3)
Latvia	482 (4.0)	82 (1.9)	497 (3.7)	77 (2.3)	466 (5.0)	83 (2.4)
Liechtenstein	531 (3.3)	93 (3.4)	539 (6.4)	91 (4.3)	526 (6.2)	95 (5.5)
Lithuania	505 (2.8)	80 (1.3)	523 (2.9)	76 (1.7)	488 (3.4)	81 (1.6)
Luxembourg	473 (2.2)	96 (1.5)	479 (2.8)	91 (1.7)	469 (3.4)	99 (2.0)
Malta	490 (4.5)	95 (3.4)	507 (7.7)	94 (5.9)	473 (3.6)	94 (3.0)
Mexico	452 (2.8)	83 (1.5)	463 (3.2)	82 (1.9)	439 (3.1)	82 (1.7)
New Zealand †	517 (5.0)	110 (2.7)	532 (5.9)	101 (2.6)	501 (6.4)	117 (4.0)
Norway †	515 (3.4)	96 (1.8)	527 (3.7)	92 (2.3)	504 (4.5)	98 (2.2)
Paraguay ¹	424 (3.4)	89 (2.3)	438 (4.1)	86 (2.6)	408 (3.9)	89 (2.5)
Poland	536 (4.7)	99 (1.8)	553 (4.5)	91 (2.2)	520 (5.5)	103 (2.7)
Russian Federation	506 (3.8)	85 (2.4)	517 (4.3)	85 (2.8)	496 (3.8)	84 (2.5)
Slovak Republic ²	529 (4.5)	89 (2.2)	537 (5.4)	87 (2.7)	520 (4.4)	90 (2.4)
Slovenia	516 (2.7)	87 (1.5)	531 (2.6)	81 (2.0)	501 (3.9)	90 (1.8)
Spain	505 (4.1)	86 (2.3)	514 (4.2)	82 (2.1)	496 (4.8)	89 (2.8)
Sweden	537 (3.1)	99 (1.8)	549 (3.4)	93 (2.3)	527 (4.2)	102 (2.5)
Switzerland †	531 (3.8)	83 (1.8)	535 (3.0)	78 (1.9)	528 (5.5)	87 (2.8)
Thailand †	452 (3.7)	77 (2.0)	474 (3.9)	72 (2.1)	426 (4.5)	75 (2.5)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements

Hong Kong SAR	554 (5.7)	97 (3.1)	564 (6.5)	87 (2.7)	543 (8.3)	104 (3.9)
Netherlands	494 (7.6)	91 (4.1)	497 (6.6)	87 (4.2)	490 (10.4)	96 (4.8)

Additional grade samples

Greece	515 (3.9)	95 (2.2)	530 (4.3)	89 (2.7)	499 (4.7)	99 (2.6)
Norway †	538 (4.0)	104 (1.8)	552 (4.5)	100 (2.4)	527 (4.6)	104 (2.4)
Slovenia	540 (2.6)	90 (1.4)	555 (2.9)	83 (1.8)	526 (3.4)	94 (1.9)
Sweden	574 (3.6)	107 (1.8)	588 (3.6)	100 (2.3)	563 (4.8)	111 (2.5)

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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

APPENDIX C: REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR CIVIC KNOWLEDGE AND AGE

Table C.1: Regression results for civic knowledge and student age (target grades)

Country	Unstandardized regression coefficient*	Explained variance
Austria	-42 (4.0)	6 (1.1)
Belgium (Flemish) †	-37 (4.0)	7 (1.3)
Bulgaria	-18 (6.8)	1 (0.5)
Chile	-25 (2.7)	3 (0.7)
Chinese Taipei	12 (4.8)	0 (0.1)
Colombia	-19 (1.9)	6 (1.1)
Cyprus	-17 (5.4)	1 (0.4)
Czech Republic †	-35 (3.0)	4 (0.7)
Denmark †	-34 (4.9)	2 (0.6)
Dominican Republic	-11 (1.5)	4 (1.0)
England ‡	18 (7.9)	0 (0.2)
Estonia	-37 (5.1)	4 (1.0)
Finland	-20 (4.9)	1 (0.3)
Greece	-15 (5.3)	0 (0.3)
Guatemala ¹	-17 (1.9)	5 (0.9)
Indonesia	-14 (2.3)	2 (0.7)
Ireland	-20 (5.2)	1 (0.4)
Italy	-24 (3.6)	2 (0.6)
Korea, Republic of ¹	8 (3.3)	0 (0.1)
Latvia	-22 (4.1)	2 (0.9)
Liechtenstein	-32 (7.5)	5 (2.2)
Lithuania	-19 (5.1)	1 (0.7)
Luxembourg	-32 (3.4)	5 (1.2)
Malta	-18 (5.9)	1 (0.5)
Mexico	-25 (2.2)	3 (0.6)
New Zealand †	-15 (7.2)	0 (0.2)
Norway †	11 (6.8)	0 (0.2)
Paraguay ¹	-27 (2.6)	7 (1.2)
Poland	-16 (6.2)	0 (0.3)
Russian Federation	-7 (4.4)	0 (0.2)
Slovak Republic ²	-33 (6.2)	3 (1.2)
Slovenia	-18 (6.0)	1 (0.3)
Spain	-36 (2.6)	9 (1.1)
Sweden	-14 (5.9)	0 (0.2)
Switzerland †	-21 (3.3)	3 (0.8)
Thailand †	-14 (5.3)	1 (0.6)
ICCS Average	-19 (0.8)	2 (0.1)
Countries not meeting sampling requirements		
Hong Kong SAR	-12 (4.3)	1 (0.7)
Netherlands	-25 (9.0)	3 (1.5)

Notes:

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

() Standard errors appear in parentheses.

† 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table C.2: Regression results for civic knowledge and student age (upper grade)

Country	Unstandardized regression coefficient*	Explained variance
Greece	-25 (6.4)	1 (0.5)
Norway †	-2 (7.8)	0 (0.0)
Slovenia	-22 (5.1)	1 (0.3)
Sweden	-16 (7.5)	0 (0.3)

Notes:

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

() Standard errors appear in parentheses.

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



APPENDIX D: 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, 2004b.)

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 E.1, Appendix E). 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.

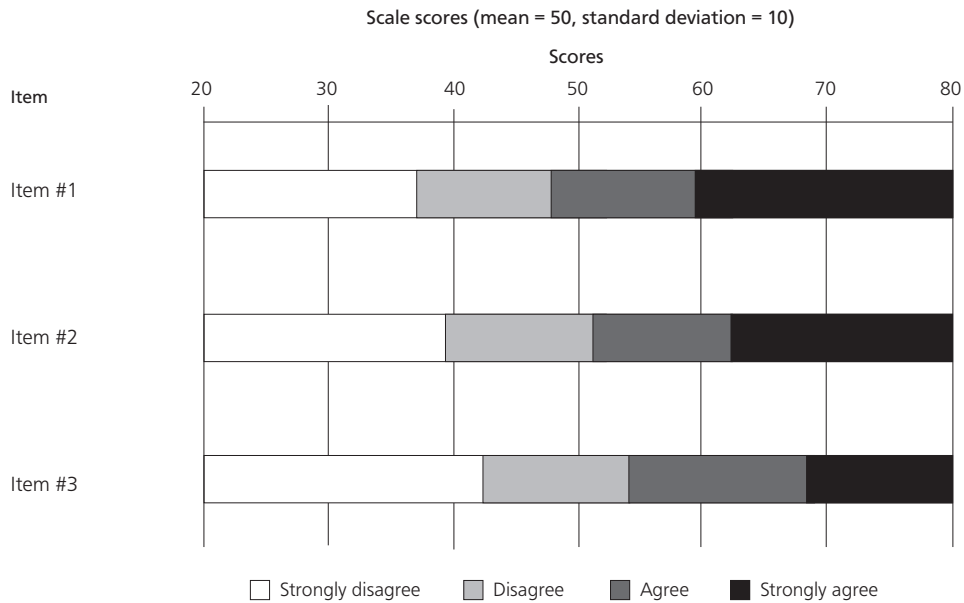
This information can also be summarized by calculating the average thresholds across all items in a scale. For four-point Likert-type scales, this was usually done for the second threshold, making it possible to predict how likely it would be for a respondent with a certain scale score to have (on average 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 4.3 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 E: ITEM-BY-SCORE MAPS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE SCALES

Figure E.1: Example of questionnaire item-by-score map

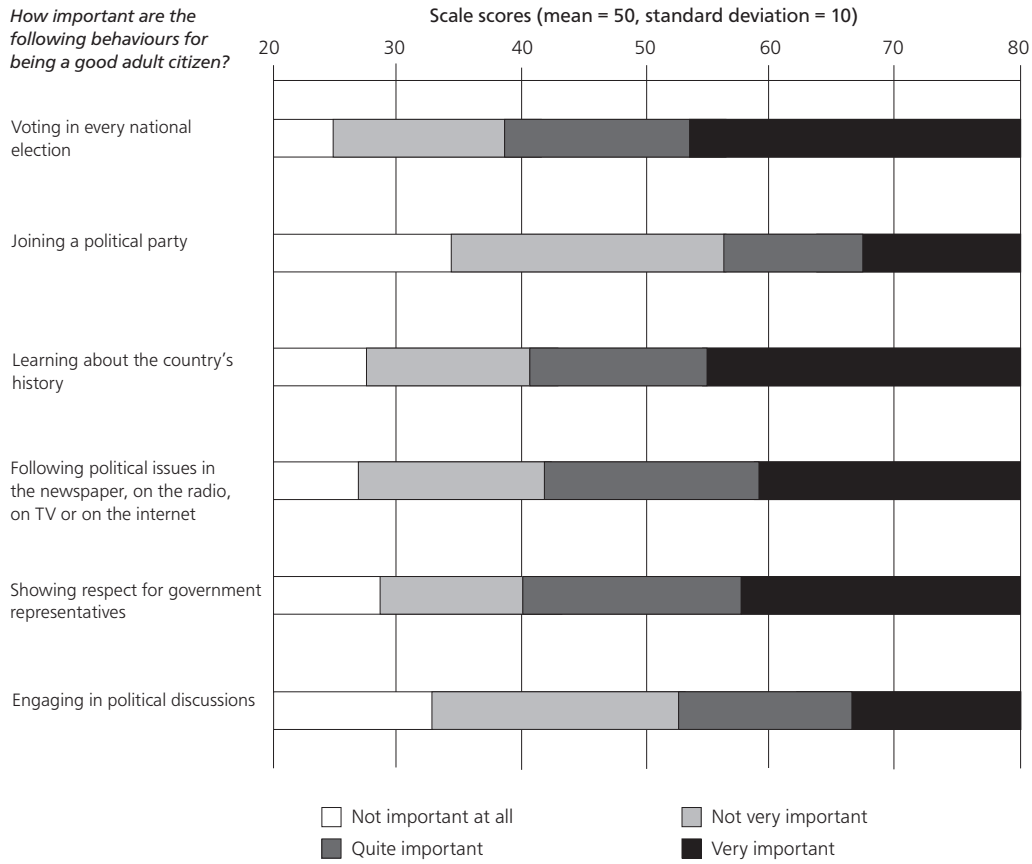


Example of how to interpret the item-by-score map

#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 4.1: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship



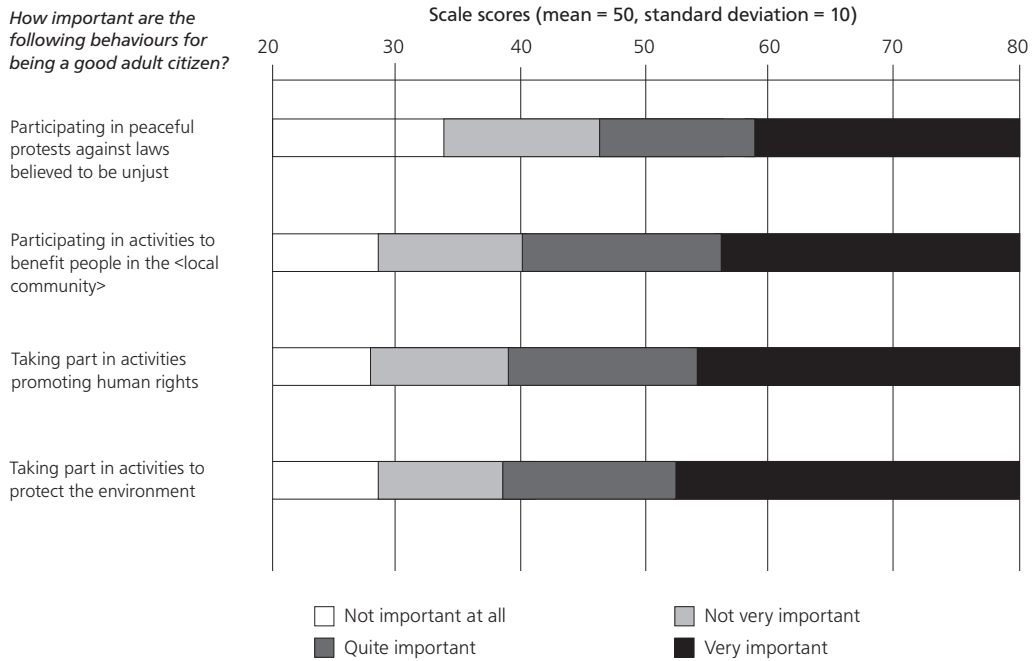
International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

	Not important at all	Not very important	Quite important	Very important	Sum
Voting in every national election	3	16	41	40	100
Joining a political party	15	52	24	9	100
Learning about the country's history	4	19	41	36	100
Following political issues in the newspaper, on the radio, on TV or on the internet	5	23	47	26	100
Showing respect for government representatives	5	18	48	29	100
Engaging in political discussions	12	46	31	11	100

Note: Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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' perceptions of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					Sum
Participating in peaceful protests against laws believed to be unjust	9	28	38	25	100
Participating in activities to benefit people in the <local community>	3	16	47	33	100
Taking part in activities promoting human rights	3	14	44	39	100
Taking part in activities to protect the environment	3	13	40	43	100

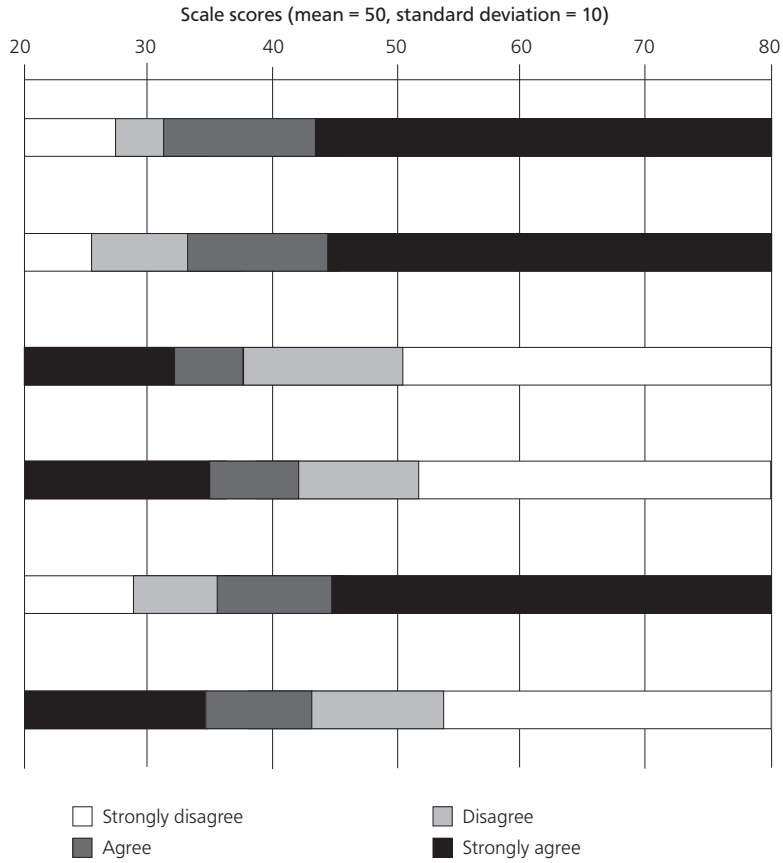
Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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 gender equality

There are different views about the roles of women and men in society. How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Sum
Men and women should have equal opportunities to take part in government	2	3	27	68	100
Men and women should have the same rights in every way	1	6	27	68	100
Women should stay out of politics	52	33	9	5	100
When there are not many jobs available, men should have more right to a job than women	44	31	16	9	100
Men and women should get equal pay when they are doing the same jobs	3	7	25	65	100
Men are better qualified to be political leaders than women	38	33	19	10	100

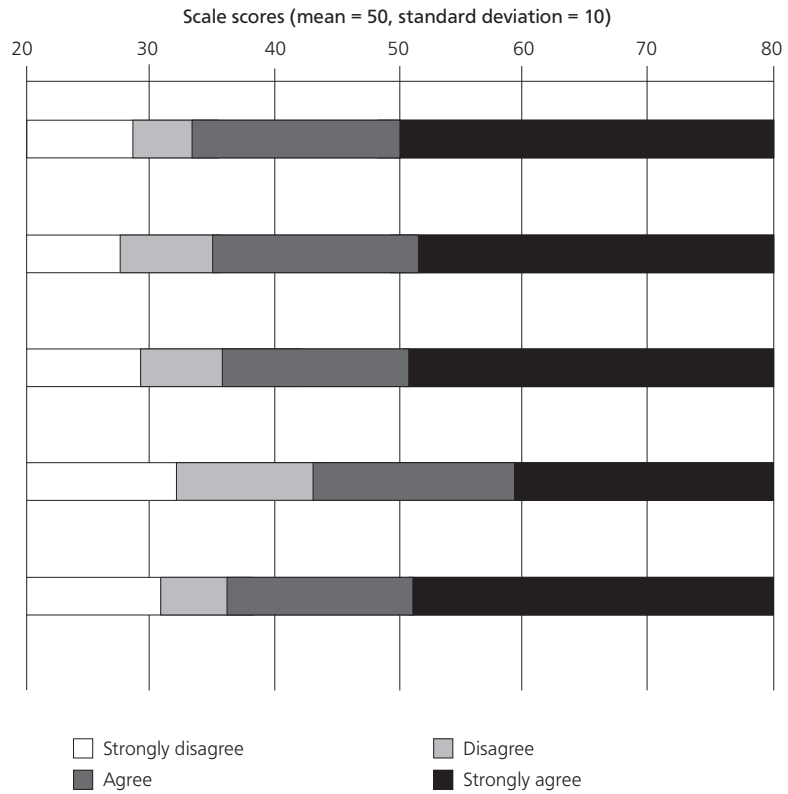
Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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 equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups

There are different views on the rights and responsibilities of different ethnic/racial groups in society. How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Sum
All <ethnic/racial groups> should have an equal chance to get a good education in <country of test>	2	5	43	50	100
All <ethnic/racial groups> should have an equal chance to get good jobs in <country of test>	2	7	46	45	100
Schools should teach students to respect members of all <ethnic/racial groups>	2	8	41	48	100
<Members of all ethnic/racial groups> should be encouraged to run in elections for political office	5	22	49	24	100
<Members of all ethnic/racial groups> should have the same rights and responsibilities	3	7	43	47	100

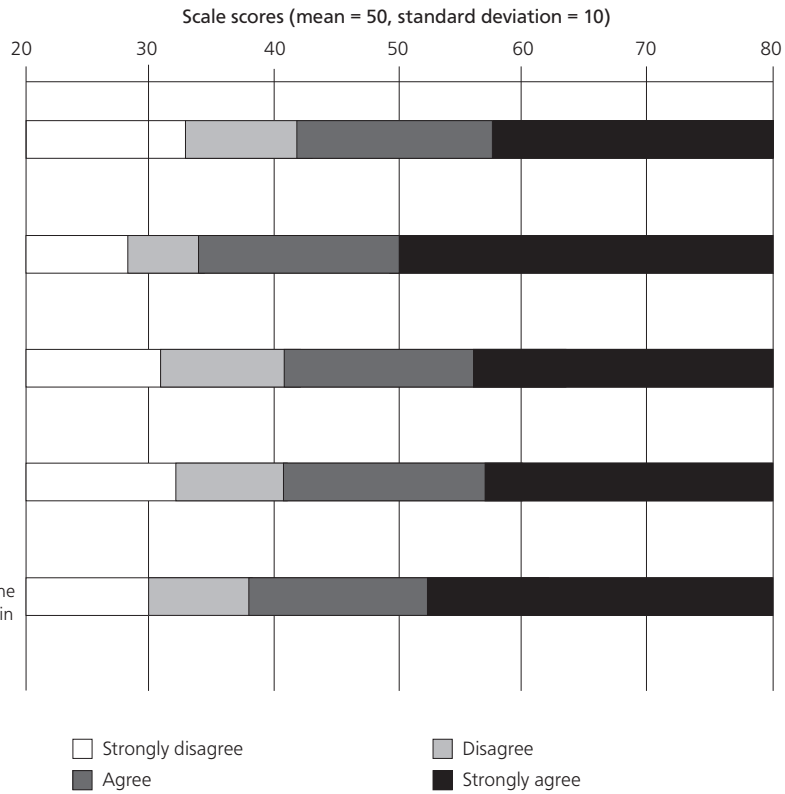


Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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 equal rights for immigrants

People are increasingly moving from one country to another. How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about <immigrants>?



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

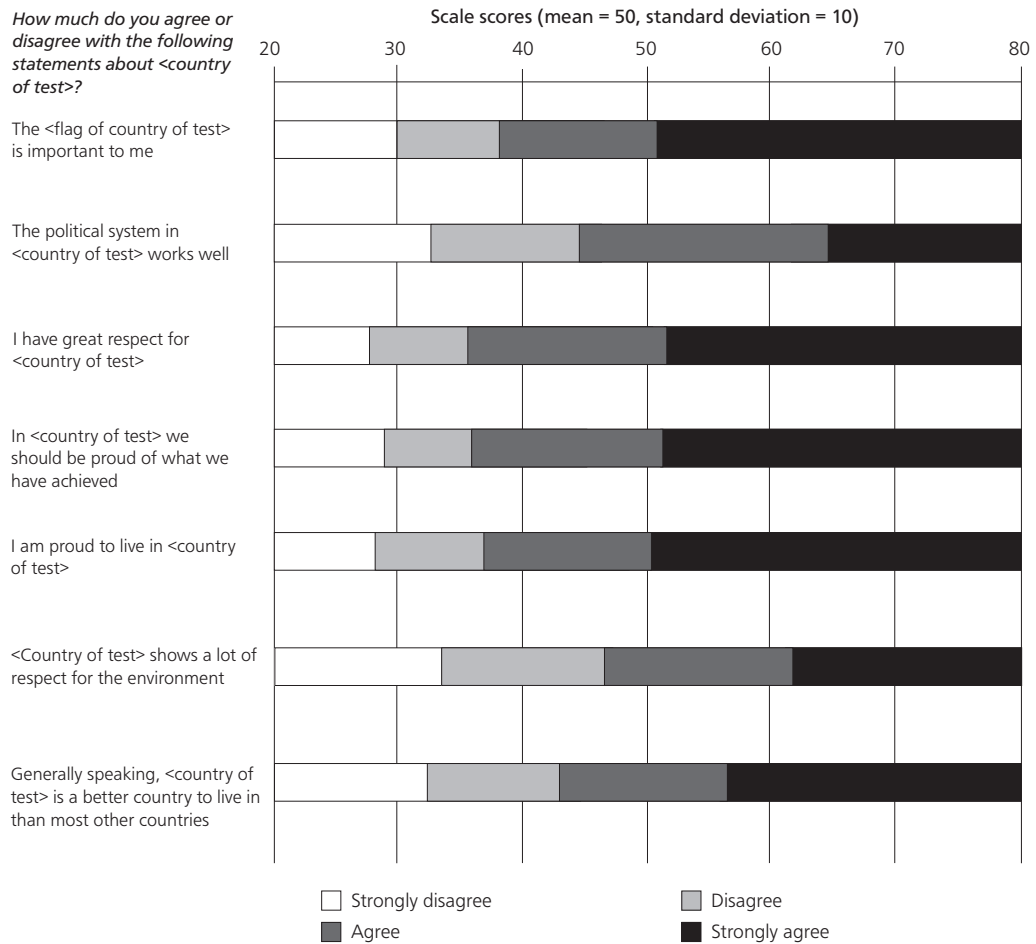
Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Sum
<Immigrants> should have the opportunity to continue speaking their own language	6	18	48	28	100
<Immigrant> children should have the same opportunities for education that other children in the country have	2	6	42	50	100
<Immigrants> who live in a country for several years should have the opportunity to vote in elections	5	17	47	32	100
<Immigrants> should have the opportunity to continue their own customs and lifestyle	5	16	49	30	100
<Immigrants> should have all the same rights that everyone else in the country has	3	11	44	42	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



Figure 4.6: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward their country



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

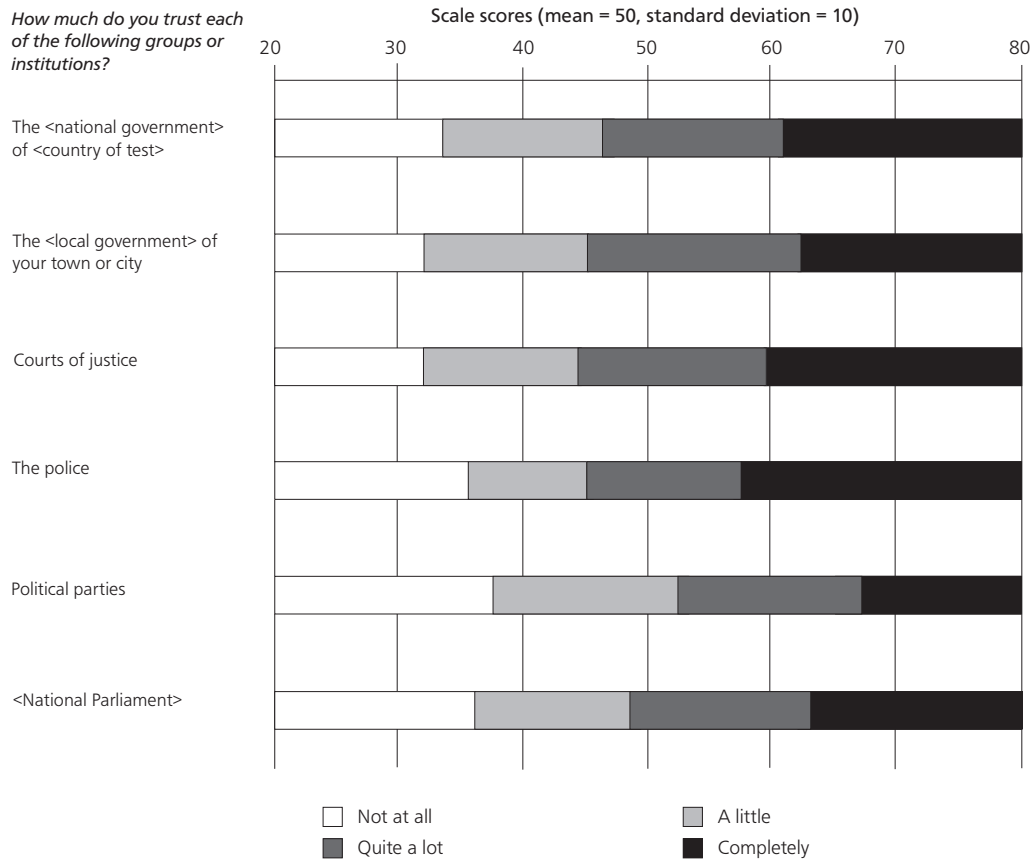
Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Sum
The <flag of country of test> is important to me	4	11	37	49	100
The political system in <country of test> works well	8	27	51	14	100
I have great respect for <country of test>	2	9	43	45	100
In <country of test> we should be proud of what we have achieved	3	9	42	46	100
I am proud to live in <country of test>	3	10	38	49	100
<Country of test> shows a lot of respect for the environment	9	31	42	18	100
Generally speaking, <country of test> is a better country to live in than most other countries	7	22	41	30	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



Figure 4.7: Item-by-score map for students' trust in civic institutions



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

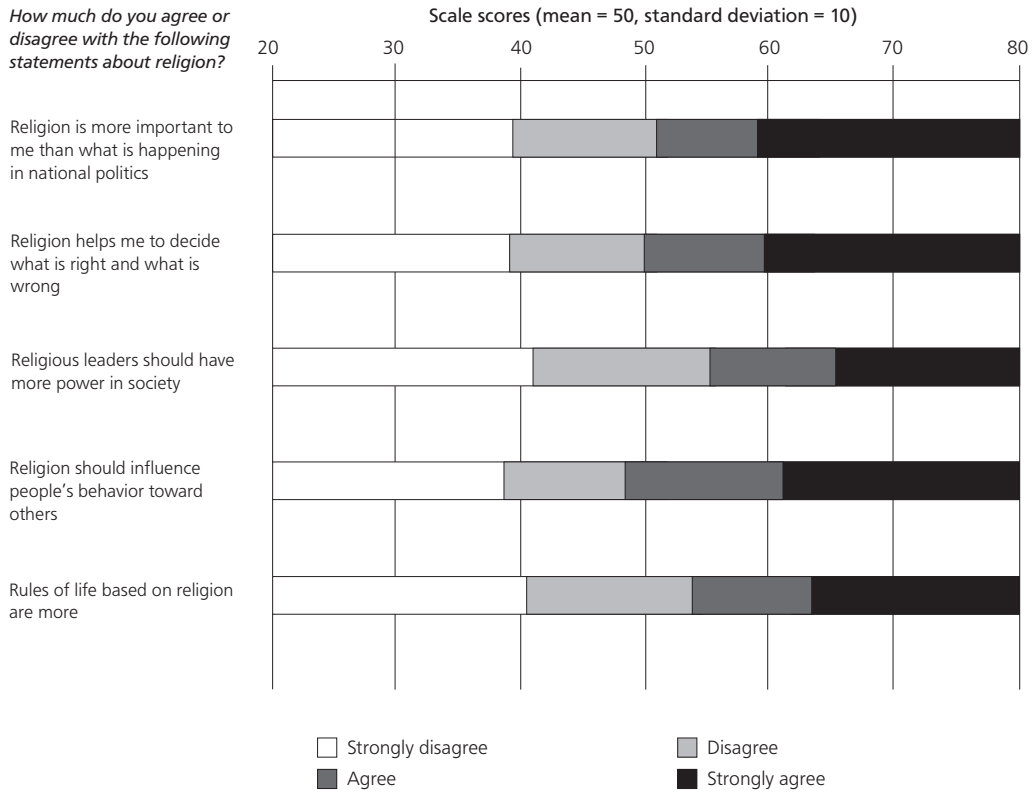
Group/Institution	Not at all	A little	Quite a lot	Completely	Sum
The <national government> of <country of test>	9	29	44	18	100
The <local government> of your town or city	6	29	49	16	100
Courts of justice	7	26	47	21	100
The police	10	23	41	25	100
Political parties	16	43	33	8	100
<National Parliament>	13	33	41	13	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



Figure 4.8: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward the influence of religion on society



International Item Frequencies
(row percentages)

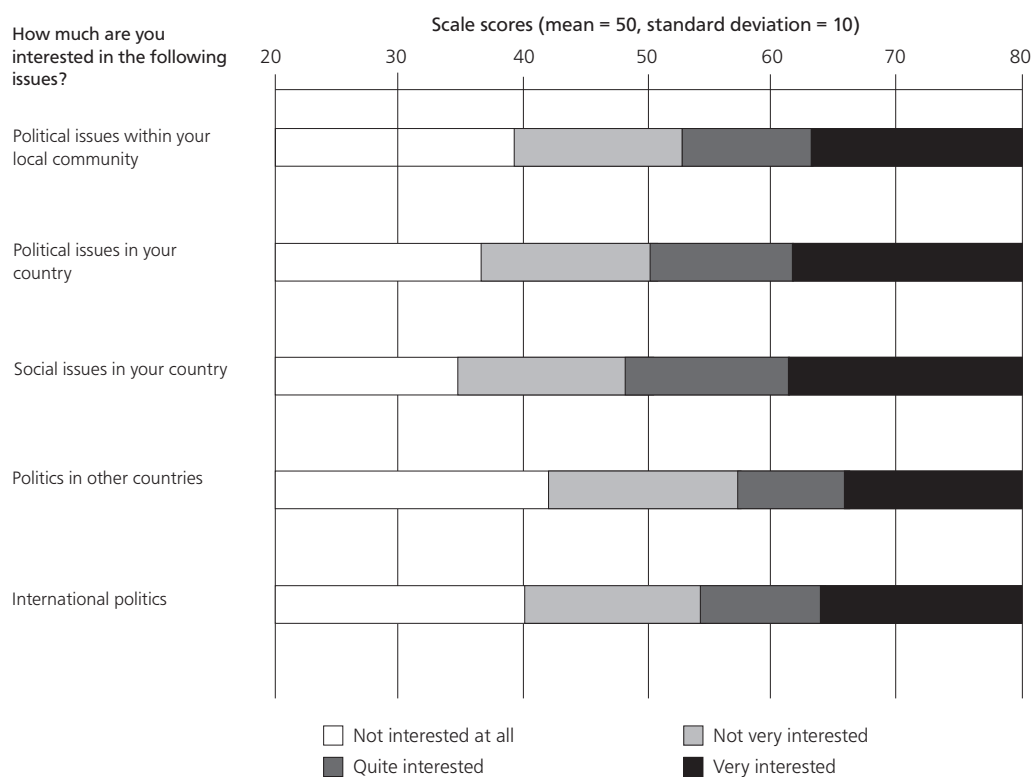
Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Sum
Religion is more important to me than what is happening in national politics	16	32	30	22	100
Religion helps me to decide what is right and what is wrong	17	30	33	20	100
Religious leaders should have more power in society	22	44	25	9	100
Religion should influence people's behavior toward others	16	26	40	18	100
Rules of life based on religion are more	20	40	28	12	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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' interest in political and social issues



International Item Frequencies
(row percentages)

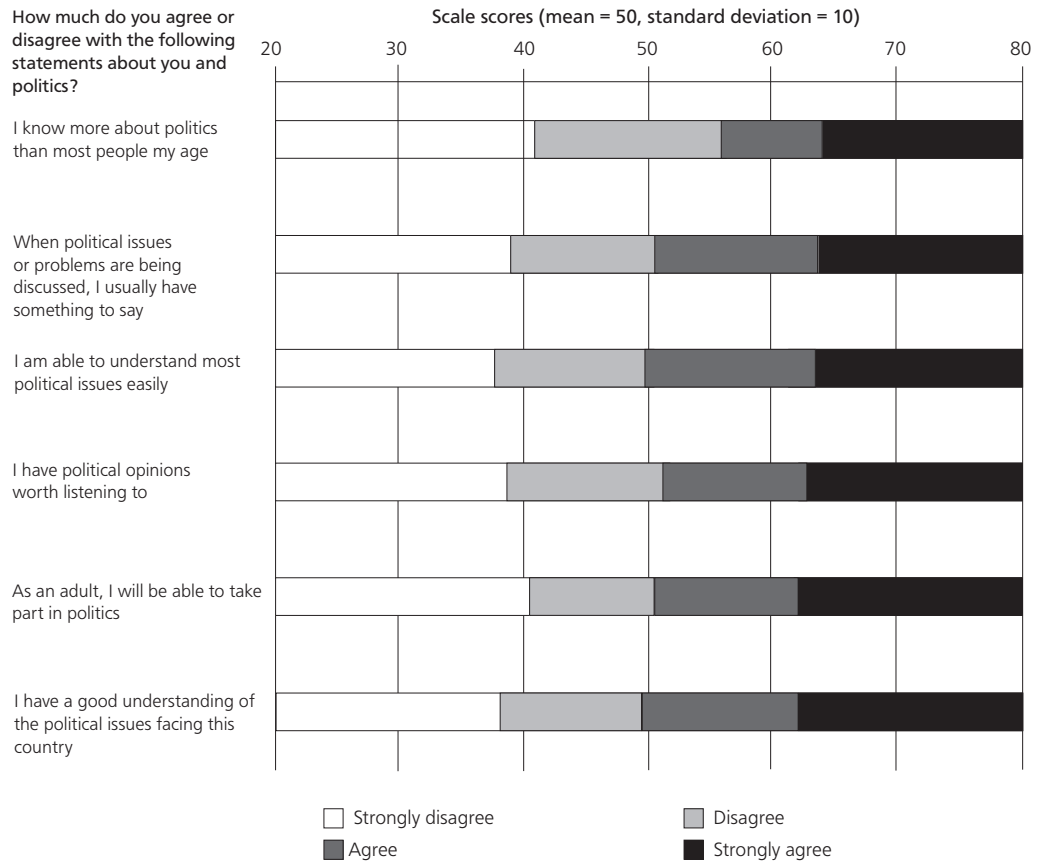
	Not interested at all	Not very interested	Quite interested	Very interested	Sum
Political issues within your local community	15	42	30	13	100
Political issues in your country	12	35	37	16	100
Social issues in your country	10	31	42	17	100
Politics in other countries	24	48	21	7	100
International politics	20	44	26	10	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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' internal political efficacy



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

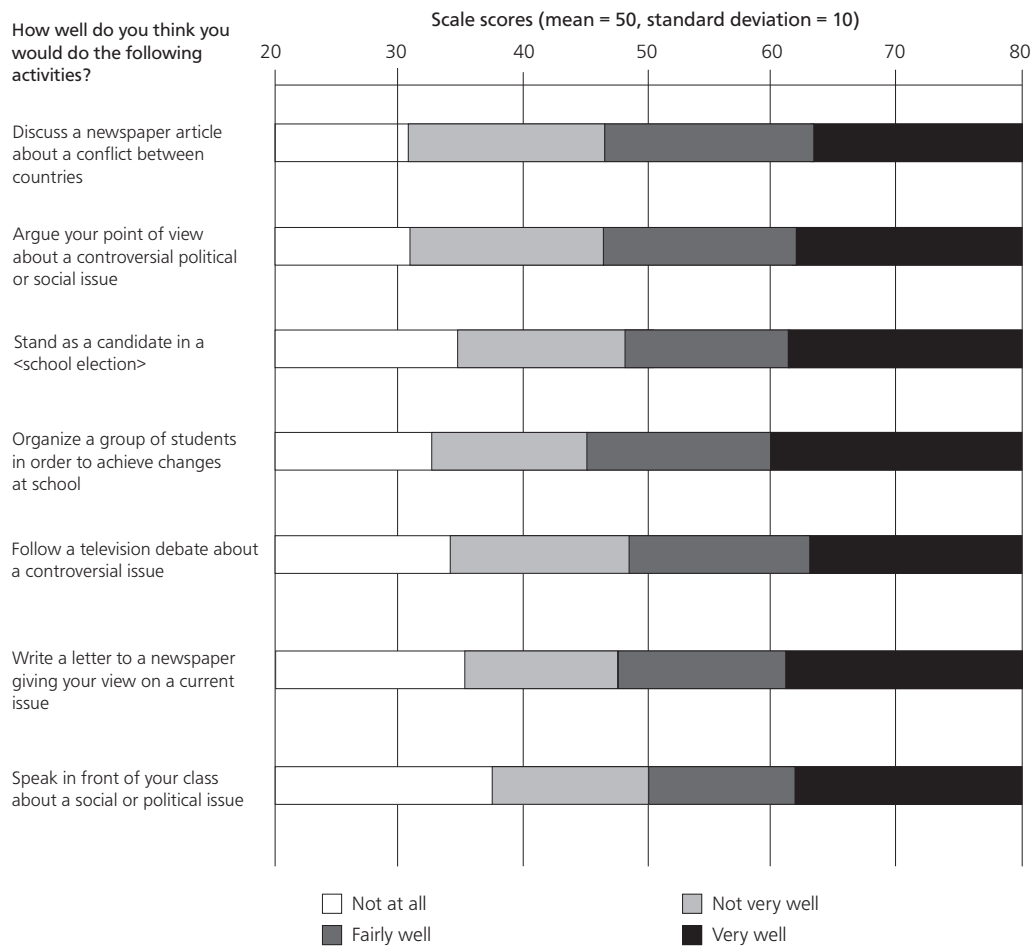
Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Sum
I know more about politics than most people my age	19	53	21	7	100
When political issues or problems are being discussed, I usually have something to say	14	38	40	9	100
I am able to understand most political issues easily	12	37	42	9	100
I have political opinions worth listening to	14	40	36	10	100
As an adult I will be able to take part in politics	16	35	38	12	100
I have a good understanding of the political issues facing this country	12	34	42	12	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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' citizenship self-efficacy



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

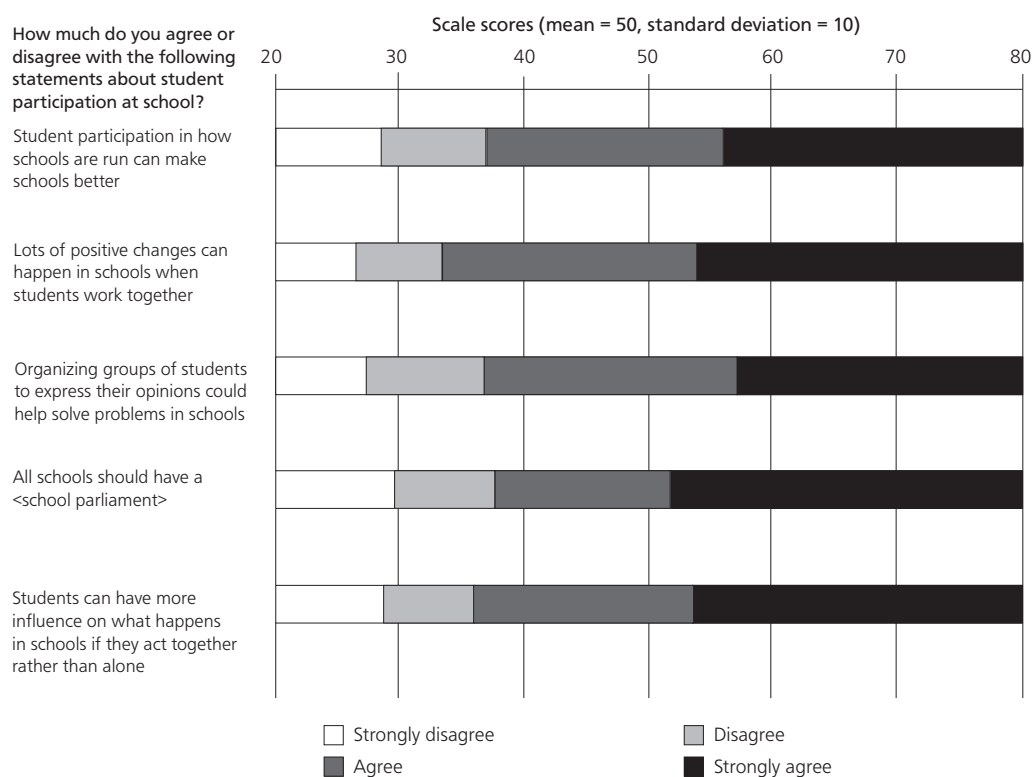
Activity	Not at all	Not very well	Fairly well	Very well	Sum
Discuss a newspaper article about a conflict between countries	7	34	44	15	100
Argue your point of view about a controversial political or social issue	7	32	44	17	100
Stand as a candidate in a <school election>	11	33	37	19	100
Organize a group of students in order to achieve changes at school	8	27	43	22	100
Follow a television debate about a controversial issue	10	35	44	15	100
Write a letter to a newspaper giving your view on a current issue	11	31	39	19	100
Speak in front of your class about a social or political issue	15	34	34	17	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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' perceptions of the value of participation at school



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

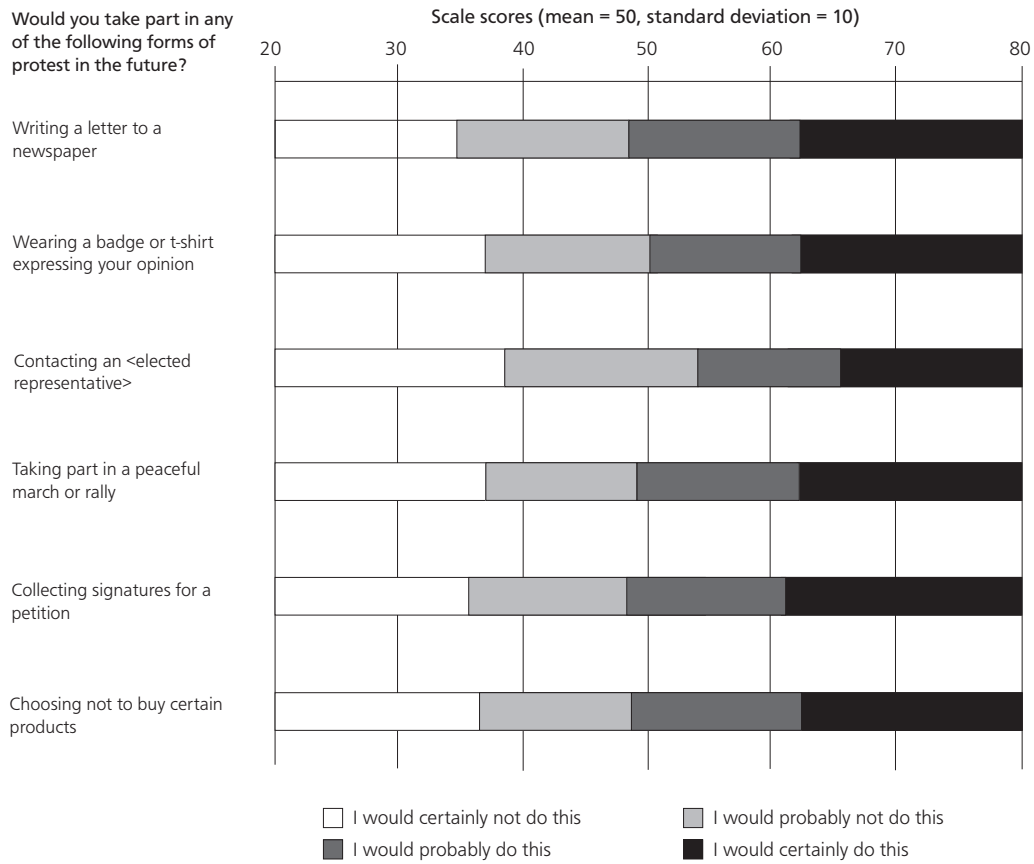
Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Sum
Student participation in how schools are run can make schools better	3	11	54	32	100
Lots of positive changes can happen in schools when students work together	2	6	52	40	100
Organizing groups of students to express their opinions could help solve problems in schools	2	11	57	30	100
All schools should have a <school parliament>	3	11	42	44	100
Students can have more influence on what happens in schools if they act together rather than alone	3	8	50	39	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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' expected participation in legal protest activities



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

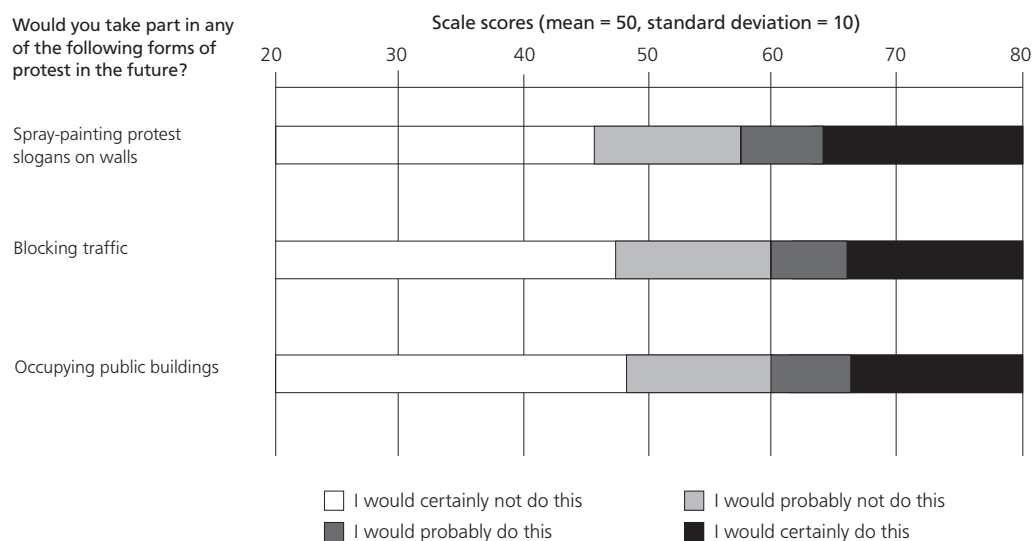
					Sum
Writing a letter to a newspaper	11	32	40	17	100
Wearing a badge or t-shirt expressing your opinion	15	35	34	16	100
Contacting an <elected representative>	18	43	28	11	100
Taking part in a peaceful march or rally	15	32	36	18	100
Collecting signatures for a petition	12	30	37	20	100
Choosing not to buy certain products	13	31	38	17	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



Figure 5.6: Item-by-score map for students' expected participation in illegal protest activities



International Item Frequencies
(row percentages)

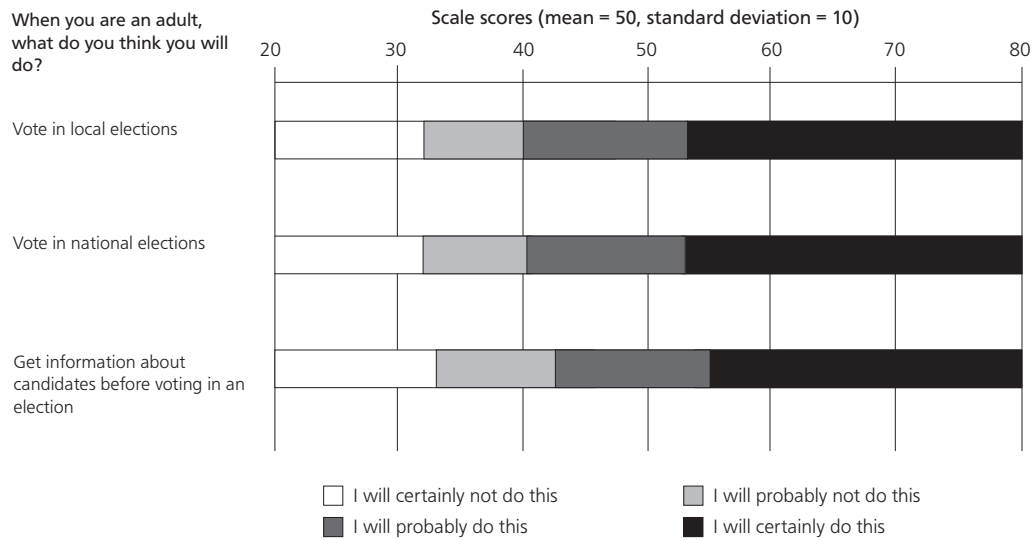
					Sum
Spray-painting protest slogans on walls	39	34	15	11	100
Blocking traffic	44	36	12	8	100
Occupying public buildings	47	34	12	8	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



Figure 5.7: Item-by-score map for students' expected electoral participation



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

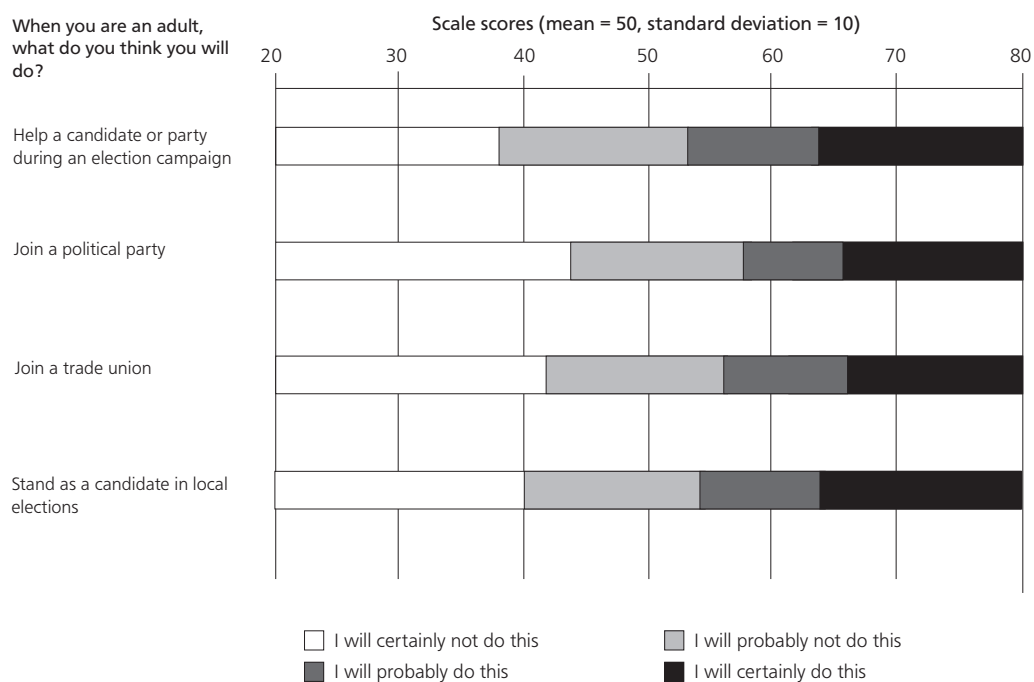
	I will certainly not do this	I will probably not do this	I will probably do this	I will certainly do this	Sum
Vote in local elections	6	12	38	44	100
Vote in national elections	6	13	37	44	100
Get information about candidates before voting in an election	7	17	38	38	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



Figure 5.8: Item-by-score map for students' expected active political participation



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

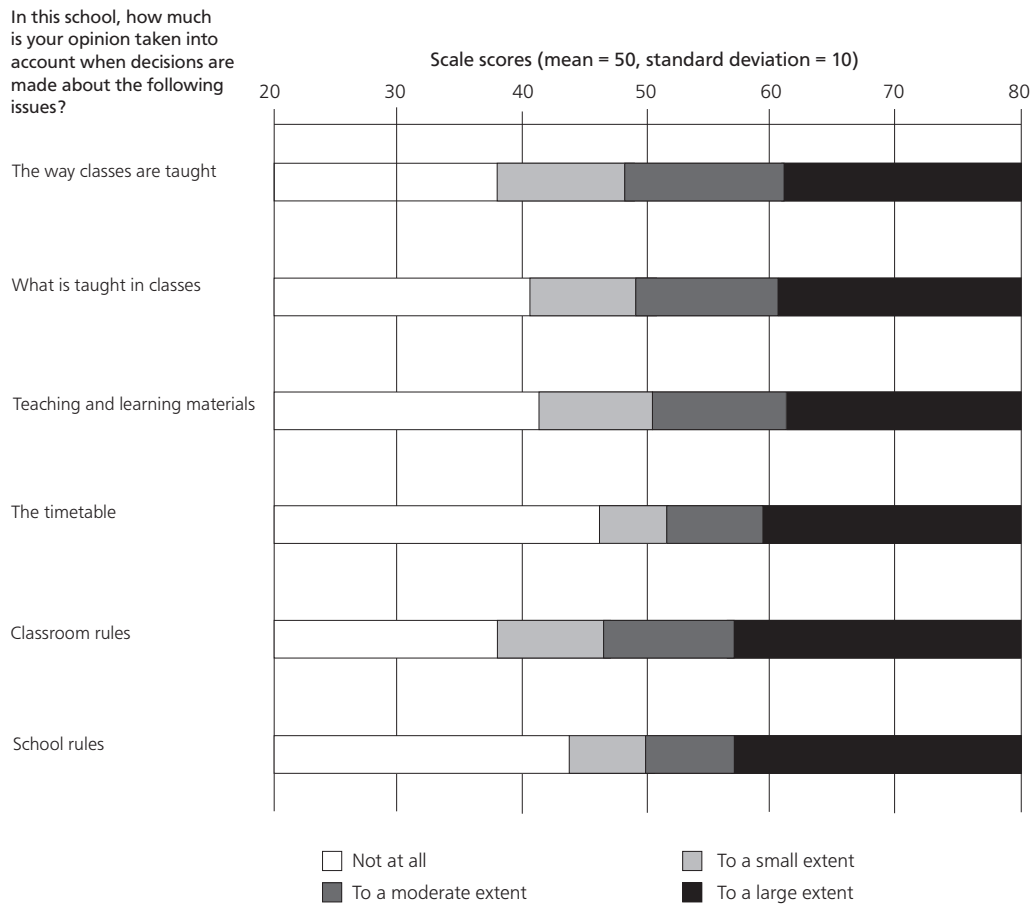
	I will certainly not do this	I will probably not do this	I will probably do this	I will certainly do this	Sum
Help a candidate or party during an election campaign	16	43	29	11	100
Join a political party	29	45	18	8	100
Join a trade union	24	45	23	8	100
Stand as a candidate in local elections	31	43	18	8	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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' perceptions of student influence at school



International Item Frequencies
(row percentages)

Issue	Not at all	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	Sum
The way classes are taught	16	29	36	19	100
What is taught in classes	21	26	32	21	100
Teaching and learning materials	23	27	31	19	100
The timetable	35	20	24	21	100
Classroom rules	16	23	33	28	100
School rules	28	21	24	27	100

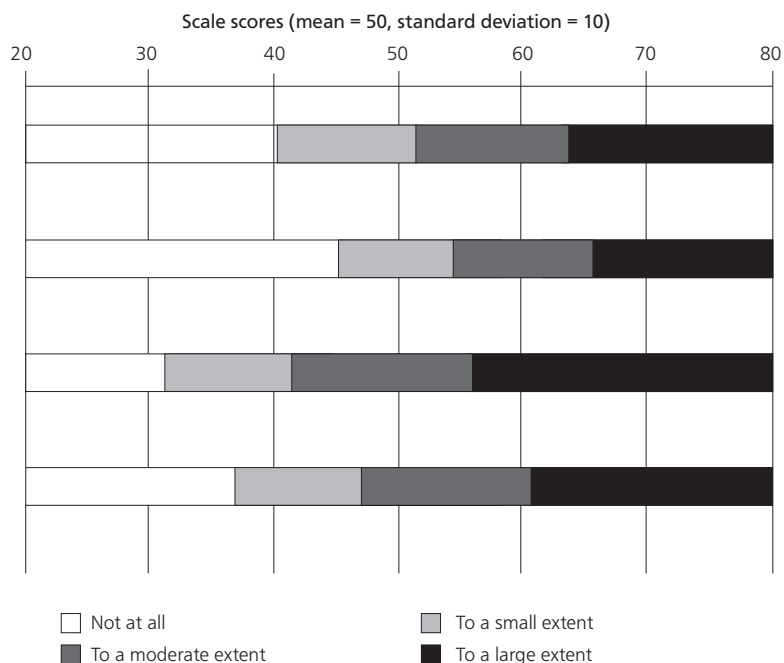
Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating 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 teachers' perceptions of student influence at school

At this school, how much are students' opinions taken into account when decisions are made about the following issues?



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

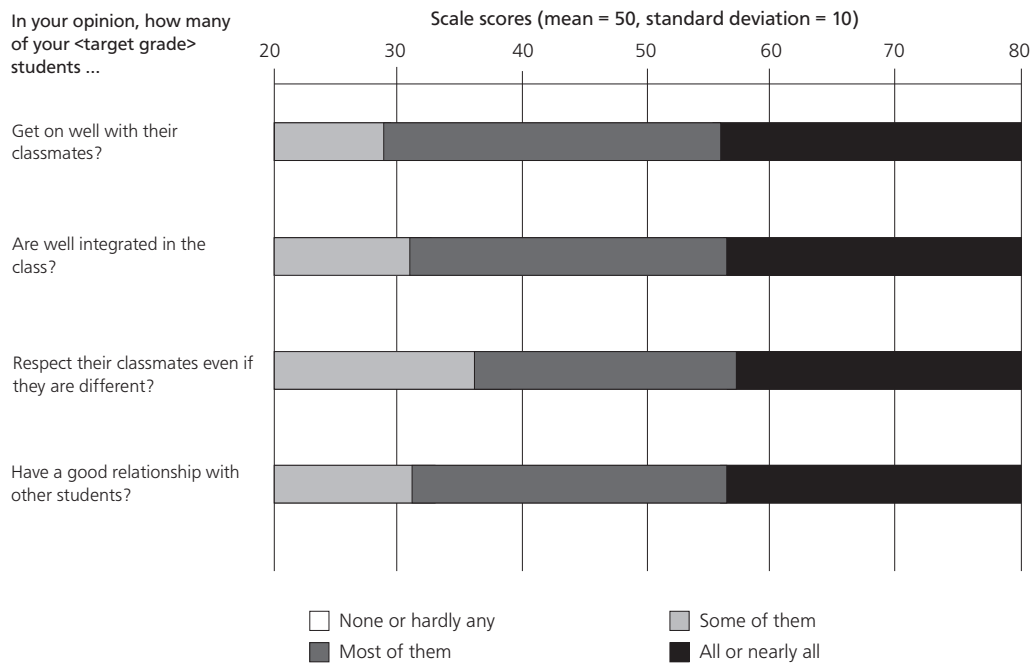
	Not at all	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	Sum
Teaching/learning materials	20	36	32	12	100
The timetable	32	34	25	10	100
Classroom rules	4	17	47	31	100
School rules	12	24	42	22	100

Note:

Average percentages for 27 equally weighted participating 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 teachers' perceptions of classroom climate



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

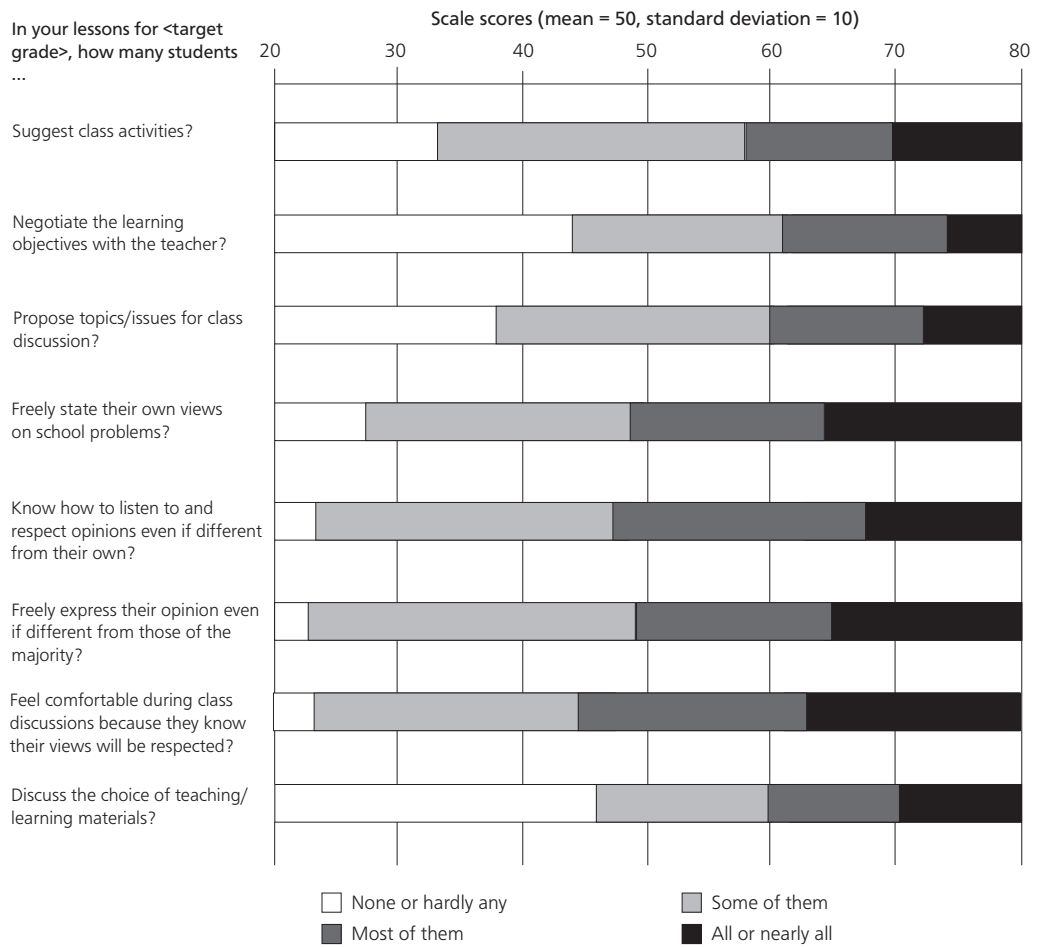
	None or hardly any	Some of them	Most of them	All or nearly all	Sum
Get on well with their classmates?	0	4	55	41	100
Are well integrated in the class?	0	5	56	38	100
Respect their classmates even if they are different?	0	10	55	35	100
Have a good relationship with other students?	0	6	57	37	100

Note:

Average percentages for 27 equally weighted participating 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 teachers' perceptions of student involvement in class activities



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

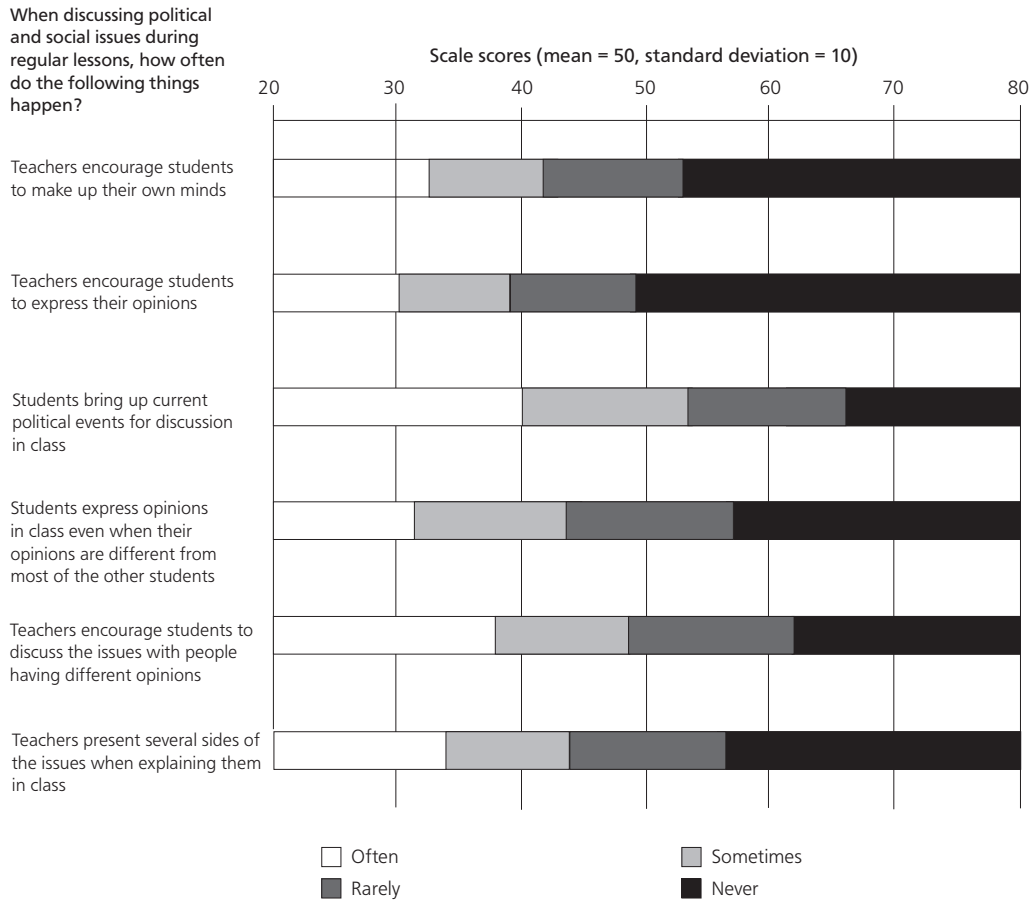
Item	None or hardly any	Some of them	Most of them	All or nearly all	Sum
Suggest class activities?	14	60	20	6	100
Negotiate the learning objectives with the teacher?	32	46	18	4	100
Propose topics/issues for class discussion?	18	58	19	5	100
Freely state their own views on school problems?	5	42	39	14	100
Know how to listen to and respect opinions even if different from their own?	3	34	50	13	100
Freely express their opinion even if different from those of the majority?	3	41	40	15	100
Feel comfortable during class discussions because they know their views will be respected?	3	27	49	21	100
Discuss the choice of teaching/learning materials?	39	39	16	6	100

Note:

Average percentages for 27 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



Figure 6.5: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussions



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

Item	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Sum
Teachers encourage students to make up their own minds	42	34	16	8	100
Teachers encourage students to express their opinions	52	30	13	6	100
Students bring up current political events for discussion in class	11	29	37	23	100
Students express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from most of the other students	31	39	23	8	100
Teachers encourage students to discuss the issues with people having different opinions	19	35	28	17	100
Teachers present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class	31	37	21	10	100

Note:

Average percentages for 36 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements. Because results are rounded to the nearest whole number, some totals may appear inconsistent.



APPENDIX F: MULTILEVEL MODELING RESULTS

Table F.1: Multilevel results for Model 1

Country	Student Background		Home Background			
	Gender (female)	Use of other language at home	Index of socioeconomic background	Parental interest in political/social issues	Discussion with parents of political/social issues	Media information on political/social issues
Austria	17.7 (4.1)	-46.7 (5.4)	15.6 (2.6)	18.9 (4.7)	10.6 (2.6)	8.5 (1.7)
Belgium (Flemish) †	0.0 (3.8)	-32.5 (5.1)	11.1 (1.7)	-2.6 (3.5)	10.9 (2.1)	6.6 (1.5)
Bulgaria	16.0 (4.0)	-23.3 (6.8)	15.8 (2.9)	0.0 (4.6)	2.3 (2.6)	9.7 (2.0)
Chile	7.7 (3.0)	-52.0 (14.5)	15.3 (2.1)	2.9 (3.2)	8.6 (1.6)	11.3 (1.5)
Chinese Taipei	24.0 (3.2)	-20.1 (5.1)	23.4 (2.1)	1.2 (3.0)	7.3 (2.0)	18.7 (2.1)
Colombia	7.4 (2.7)	-5.9 (9.2)	10.9 (1.4)	3.2 (2.4)	1.7 (1.4)	6.2 (1.6)
Cyprus [^]	40.2 (3.8)	-34.8 (7.0)	25.0 (1.8)	11.5 (3.6)	7.4 (2.3)	7.7 (1.6)
Czech Republic †	17.3 (2.5)	-18.7 (9.6)	15.3 (1.5)	12.5 (2.9)	7.5 (1.8)	11.3 (1.5)
Denmark †	8.4 (3.1)	-29.4 (7.3)	28.1 (2.1)	8.7 (4.4)	23.0 (2.2)	10.0 (1.5)
Dominican Republic ~	25.8 (2.7)	2.5 (8.7)	4.7 (1.8)	5.5 (2.5)	-0.8 (1.8)	6.3 (1.1)
England ‡	19.3 (4.3)	-21.6 (6.6)	25.5 (2.4)	6.3 (4.8)	11.9 (2.9)	6.9 (1.6)
Estonia	25.7 (4.0)	-37.2 (12.5)	20.3 (2.0)	6.3 (4.1)	14.2 (3.2)	3.4 (2.6)
Finland	29.7 (3.9)	-43.4 (10.1)	23.8 (1.8)	-2.5 (5.2)	20.5 (3.1)	5.5 (2.2)
Greece	31.0 (4.7)	-39.4 (8.3)	21.1 (2.2)	21.6 (4.8)	8.7 (2.5)	0.6 (1.8)
Guatemala ¹	-0.8 (2.9)	-12.7 (5.5)	10.7 (2.0)	5.5 (3.5)	-2.9 (2.1)	0.2 (1.8)
Indonesia	18.1 (2.1)	10.6 (3.6)	4.3 (1.5)	1.4 (3.6)	1.6 (1.7)	7.7 (1.7)
Ireland	12.9 (3.6)	-41.5 (6.6)	24.3 (2.2)	-1.5 (4.6)	17.4 (2.3)	2.7 (1.5)
Italy	18.5 (3.4)	-39.8 (7.2)	24.9 (2.0)	8.0 (5.2)	13.8 (2.1)	8.2 (2.1)
Korea, Republic of ¹	18.1 (4.5)	-55.0 (26.2)	20.3 (1.9)	8.6 (6.7)	16.2 (2.6)	9.8 (1.5)
Latvia	23.7 (4.2)	-29.7 (8.3)	14.0 (2.8)	3.8 (6.1)	11.1 (3.0)	3.8 (2.4)
Lithuania	31.7 (4.3)	-14.6 (10.4)	22.0 (1.9)	10.1 (5.4)	3.3 (2.4)	7.3 (2.3)
Malta [^]	25.4 (7.0)	-15.0 (6.0)	12.0 (1.8)	3.8 (3.6)	9.2 (2.1)	6.6 (1.5)
Mexico	23.9 (3.0)	5.1 (13.7)	11.0 (1.8)	-5.4 (3.8)	5.5 (2.6)	6.4 (1.5)
New Zealand †	25.3 (3.6)	-37.8 (5.4)	18.1 (1.8)	9.5 (4.2)	6.6 (2.0)	8.3 (1.7)
Norway †	20.5 (4.2)	-30.9 (7.9)	26.9 (2.4)	16.8 (4.8)	9.3 (3.6)	10.9 (2.5)
Paraguay ¹ ~	19.1 (4.3)	-12.0 (4.1)	12.8 (2.2)	-2.5 (4.0)	8.1 (2.2)	5.6 (2.1)
Poland	35.8 (4.1)	-25.1 (32.9)	27.8 (2.2)	-7.0 (4.9)	18.2 (3.2)	7.8 (2.6)
Russian Federation	17.3 (3.2)	-18.2 (7.9)	15.6 (1.6)	6.6 (3.3)	4.9 (2.4)	5.9 (1.6)
Slovak Republic ²	20.7 (4.0)	-48.6 (12.3)	15.5 (2.0)	10.0 (4.2)	8.3 (2.4)	3.8 (2.1)
Slovenia	30.5 (4.1)	-30.2 (6.5)	21.6 (1.8)	12.4 (4.5)	14.6 (2.9)	10.7 (2.1)
Spain	20.7 (3.5)	-17.9 (7.5)	17.7 (2.1)	11.9 (3.4)	11.9 (1.9)	6.2 (1.5)
Sweden	19.8 (4.7)	-41.3 (6.5)	31.8 (2.3)	-2.1 (5.1)	14.7 (3.1)	11.6 (2.4)
Switzerland †	6.4 (3.5)	-26.3 (5.1)	13.3 (1.9)	4.1 (4.3)	6.4 (2.5)	6.3 (2.0)
Thailand †	37.6 (3.1)	3.6 (6.1)	3.9 (2.0)	1.9 (3.7)	-2.6 (1.8)	12.3 (1.9)
ICCS average	20.5 (0.7)	-25.9 (1.8)	17.8 (0.4)	5.6 (0.7)	9.1 (0.4)	7.5 (0.3)

Notes:

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

() Standard errors appear in parentheses.

~ The percentages of cases included in analysis was below 85 percent.

^ School census data with two classrooms per school.

† 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.

² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.



Table F.2. Multilevel results for Model 2

Country	Student Background		Home Background				Individual Learning Context			
	Gender (female)	Use of other language at home	Index of socioeconomic background	Parental interest in political/social issues	Discussion with parents of political/social issues	Media information on political/social issues	Expected years further education	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Voting for class representative or school parliament	
Austria	12.4 (4.3)	-48.9 (5.3)	10.2 (2.7)	14.4 (4.6)	8.1 (2.6)	5.9 (1.7)	6.9 (0.9)	8.2 (1.7)	16.7 (4.2)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	-1.2 (3.6)	-33.2 (4.9)	10.0 (1.7)	-3.6 (3.5)	9.4 (2.0)	6.0 (1.5)	3.2 (0.8)	0.3 (0.2)	14.8 (3.3)	
Bulgaria	10.3 (3.6)	-20.9 (6.8)	10.6 (2.8)	0.2 (4.7)	0.8 (2.3)	6.7 (2.0)	4.4 (0.6)	15.4 (2.2)	5.3 (4.2)	
Chile	2.1 (3.3)	-44.5 (14.0)	13.8 (2.1)	0.6 (3.1)	6.5 (1.6)	8.8 (1.5)	5.3 (0.7)	8.9 (1.5)	19.2 (3.1)	
Chinese Taipei	14.6 (3.2)	-16.1 (4.5)	13.9 (1.8)	-0.2 (3.6)	4.2 (1.7)	11.1 (1.9)	16.2 (1.1)	8.6 (1.9)	20.1 (3.1)	
Colombia	4.0 (2.5)	-7.9 (8.0)	9.3 (1.4)	0.6 (2.2)	-1.3 (1.5)	3.3 (1.5)	4.4 (0.8)	16.0 (1.3)	23.9 (2.8)	
Cyprus [^]	27.3 (3.5)	-19.1 (6.5)	18.4 (1.6)	6.3 (3.6)	3.4 (2.3)	5.7 (1.5)	8.5 (0.7)	11.4 (1.5)	31.6 (3.5)	
Czech Republic †	8.2 (2.4)	-20.2 (9.7)	10.0 (1.5)	9.4 (2.8)	3.8 (1.7)	9.2 (1.5)	14.1 (0.7)	5.5 (1.2)	16.1 (2.4)	
Denmark †	5.1 (2.9)	-34.9 (6.8)	20.5 (2.1)	5.7 (3.9)	16.2 (2.1)	7.2 (1.4)	11.7 (0.9)	12.8 (1.6)	19.7 (3.2)	
Dominican Republic ~	21.6 (2.7)	1.9 (8.2)	3.3 (1.8)	4.4 (2.4)	-2.7 (1.7)	3.7 (1.1)	3.0 (0.6)	14.4 (1.3)	13.0 (2.8)	
England ‡	10.8 (4.1)	-20.3 (5.7)	22.4 (2.3)	-1.8 (4.5)	9.7 (2.6)	3.3 (1.5)	8.0 (1.4)	17.4 (2.3)	26.5 (4.4)	
Estonia	16.2 (4.1)	-46.6 (12.4)	13.1 (1.8)	3.8 (4.0)	11.1 (3.0)	1.7 (2.5)	11.5 (0.9)	1.8 (2.3)	8.2 (4.3)	
Finland	28.1 (3.8)	-42.3 (9.2)	19.5 (2.0)	-4.6 (5.4)	17.0 (3.3)	4.4 (2.0)	6.4 (1.0)	1.2 (1.7)	18.9 (3.9)	
Greece	19.3 (4.5)	-26.1 (8.5)	13.1 (2.3)	12.7 (4.0)	4.0 (2.5)	-1.1 (1.7)	10.3 (1.1)	15.8 (1.8)	35.5 (4.7)	
Guatemala ¹	-4.5 (2.8)	-11.5 (5.8)	10.1 (1.9)	4.2 (3.5)	-4.4 (2.1)	-1.3 (1.9)	1.3 (0.6)	11.5 (1.6)	19.4 (3.2)	
Indonesia	12.9 (2.2)	9.2 (3.5)	3.0 (1.5)	-0.5 (3.3)	0.0 (1.5)	6.1 (1.7)	3.7 (0.5)	8.6 (1.3)	3.9 (2.5)	
Ireland	4.0 (3.7)	-35.3 (6.2)	18.3 (2.0)	-6.9 (4.4)	13.2 (2.3)	-0.2 (1.4)	10.3 (1.2)	12.6 (1.7)	11.9 (3.9)	
Italy	9.3 (3.2)	-34.2 (6.7)	16.5 (1.8)	1.9 (4.9)	8.3 (2.1)	5.9 (2.2)	10.4 (0.9)	12.0 (1.6)	-2.0 (4.3)	
Korea, Republic of ¹	12.7 (4.6)	-23.5 (24.7)	13.9 (1.9)	1.1 (5.8)	12.2 (2.2)	6.7 (1.6)	14.6 (1.6)	0.1 (1.8)	28.9 (2.6)	
Latvia	17.4 (4.5)	-25.9 (8.4)	9.8 (2.6)	-1.8 (5.7)	8.9 (2.8)	1.8 (2.4)	8.1 (1.2)	7.1 (2.3)	11.7 (4.7)	
Lithuania	17.5 (3.7)	-10.6 (8.9)	12.0 (1.7)	3.5 (4.8)	0.8 (2.1)	4.5 (2.0)	14.8 (0.9)	1.0 (1.7)	13.6 (3.9)	
Malta [^]	24.5 (6.5)	-14.9 (6.1)	9.6 (1.8)	2.1 (3.5)	7.0 (2.0)	5.5 (1.5)	5.9 (0.8)	6.7 (1.5)	12.4 (3.6)	
Mexico	19.4 (3.1)	5.0 (11.9)	8.5 (1.9)	-7.7 (3.6)	3.0 (2.6)	4.4 (1.4)	6.0 (0.6)	7.1 (1.5)	11.8 (2.7)	
New Zealand †	15.8 (3.6)	-37.1 (5.3)	13.7 (1.7)	3.8 (4.3)	4.0 (1.9)	5.0 (1.6)	14.2 (1.0)	11.6 (1.6)	17.1 (3.6)	
Norway †	11.4 (3.5)	-37.1 (6.5)	19.4 (2.1)	9.7 (5.1)	5.4 (3.3)	5.0 (2.1)	8.6 (1.1)	14.0 (2.5)	42.0 (6.1)	
Paraguay ¹ ~	14.0 (4.3)	-7.1 (4.3)	11.0 (2.1)	-2.0 (3.7)	5.5 (2.2)	2.4 (1.9)	6.7 (0.7)	11.1 (2.0)	14.9 (4.1)	
Poland	20.6 (4.2)	-7.1 (20.4)	20.2 (2.0)	-14.6 (4.6)	12.1 (2.8)	5.0 (2.6)	13.7 (1.1)	7.5 (1.9)	39.5 (4.6)	





Table F.2: Multilevel results for Model 2 (contd.)

Country	Student Background			Home Background				Individual Learning Context			
	Gender (female)	Use of other language at home	Index of socioeconomic background	Parental interest in political/social issues	Discussion with parents of political/social issues	Media information on political/social issues	Expected years further education	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Voting for class representative or school parliament		
Russian Federation	5.5 (3.4)	-21.3 (7.3)	10.2 (1.6)	4.9 (3.0)	1.4 (2.4)	3.9 (1.6)	9.5 (0.7)	12.4 (1.9)	3.4 (3.4)		
Slovak Republic ²	5.7 (3.6)	-33.8 (10.7)	8.3 (1.9)	7.1 (3.5)	4.3 (2.3)	1.1 (2.0)	12.7 (1.0)	9.3 (1.6)	11.3 (3.5)		
Slovenia	18.2 (3.5)	-19.8 (6.3)	13.7 (1.7)	7.8 (4.1)	9.9 (2.9)	8.6 (1.9)	16.6 (1.0)	9.5 (1.8)	19.9 (3.5)		
Spain	10.9 (3.6)	-16.2 (6.9)	9.9 (2.0)	6.9 (3.3)	9.1 (1.9)	3.5 (1.5)	9.2 (0.7)	2.3 (1.8)	21.2 (3.3)		
Sweden	13.0 (4.6)	-46.1 (6.5)	26.5 (2.5)	-5.7 (4.9)	10.8 (3.0)	9.1 (2.5)	10.8 (1.4)	13.9 (2.2)	7.6 (4.0)		
Switzerland †	5.5 (3.4)	-28.2 (5.1)	11.8 (1.9)	4.2 (4.2)	5.8 (2.4)	5.7 (2.0)	2.6 (0.7)	1.7 (1.9)	10.5 (4.5)		
Thailand †	27.4 (2.9)	5.6 (5.9)	1.5 (1.8)	-2.3 (3.8)	-5.7 (1.7)	9.4 (2.0)	5.1 (0.8)	10.9 (1.4)	9.1 (3.9)		
ICCS average	12.9 (0.6)	-22.6 (1.6)	12.8 (0.3)	1.9 (0.7)	5.9 (0.4)	4.9 (0.3)	8.8 (0.2)	9.1 (0.3)	17.0 (0.6)		

Notes:

- * Statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in bold.
- ~ The percentages of cases included in analysis was below 85 percent.
- ^ School census data with two classrooms per school
- () Standard errors appear in parentheses.
- † 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table F.3: Multilevel results for Model 3

Country	Student Background		Home Background				Individual Learning Context				School Characteristics			
	Gender (female)	Use of other language at home	Index of socio-economic background	Parental interest in political/social issues	Discussion with parents of political/social issues	Media information on political/social issues	Expected years of further education	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Voting for class representative or school parliament	School average of socio-economic background	School location (rural)	Social tensions in local community		
Austria	12.1 (4.3)	-47.8 (5.4)	8.0 (2.9)	14.1 (4.6)	7.7 (2.5)	5.8 (1.7)	6.7 (1.0)	8.2 (1.7)	16.6 (4.2)	21.8 (3.0)	1.8 (7.5)	-3.1 (3.2)		
Belgium (Flemish) †	-0.8 (3.7)	-31.9 (5.1)	8.3 (1.7)	-3.4 (3.4)	9.6 (2.0)	6.0 (1.5)	3.0 (0.8)	0.3 (0.2)	14.4 (3.4)	54.3 (6.9)	7.0 (7.4)	-0.1 (0.3)		
Bulgaria	9.9 (3.6)	-18.1 (7.0)	8.2 (2.8)	0.3 (4.7)	1.0 (2.3)	6.8 (2.0)	4.0 (0.7)	15.6 (2.2)	5.2 (4.2)	30.7 (7.5)	-8.5 (9.7)	-0.7 (4.7)		
Chile	2.3 (3.2)	-44.7 (14.0)	10.1 (2.1)	0.5 (3.0)	6.6 (1.6)	8.9 (1.5)	5.2 (0.7)	8.8 (1.5)	18.9 (3.2)	26.3 (3.4)	6.7 (6.8)	-4.9 (3.8)		
Chinese Taipei	14.8 (3.2)	-13.4 (4.5)	12.0 (1.8)	-0.3 (3.6)	4.2 (1.7)	11.0 (1.9)	16.2 (1.1)	8.3 (1.9)	19.9 (3.1)	15.6 (3.1)	-7.4 (7.0)	-3.2 (2.5)		
Colombia	4.2 (2.5)	-8.3 (8.1)	7.6 (1.4)	0.4 (2.3)	-1.2 (1.5)	3.4 (1.5)	4.4 (0.8)	15.7 (1.3)	24.0 (2.8)	18.0 (4.0)	0.7 (6.6)	-1.5 (2.8)		
Cyprus [^]	27.2 (3.5)	-18.6 (6.5)	18.2 (1.7)	6.4 (3.6)	3.3 (2.3)	5.7 (1.5)	8.5 (0.7)	11.4 (1.5)	31.7 (3.5)	2.3 (2.6)	4.1 (5.5)	-1.6 (1.8)		
Czech Republic †	8.2 (2.4)	-20.7 (9.9)	8.4 (1.5)	9.2 (2.8)	3.9 (1.6)	9.3 (1.5)	13.7 (0.7)	5.6 (1.2)	15.1 (2.4)	23.4 (2.3)	5.4 (4.7)	-3.1 (1.8)		
Denmark †	5.3 (2.9)	-34.1 (7.0)	18.8 (2.1)	5.6 (3.9)	15.8 (2.1)	7.2 (1.4)	11.7 (0.9)	12.3 (1.6)	20.2 (3.2)	12.2 (2.7)	-10.0 (5.0)	0.2 (2.2)		
Dominican Republic [~]	21.6 (2.7)	2.2 (8.3)	2.0 (1.8)	4.5 (2.4)	-2.7 (1.8)	3.6 (1.1)	3.0 (0.6)	14.3 (1.3)	13.1 (2.8)	11.7 (5.0)	-10.5 (7.0)	-2.9 (3.1)		
England †	11.2 (4.1)	-20.0 (5.7)	20.4 (2.4)	-2.6 (4.5)	9.5 (2.6)	3.2 (1.5)	8.0 (1.3)	17.3 (2.3)	26.0 (4.6)	20.3 (7.7)	-5.5 (11.7)	-5.5 (6.3)		
Estonia	16.3 (4.1)	-46.6 (12.3)	11.8 (2.0)	3.7 (4.0)	10.9 (3.0)	1.8 (2.5)	11.2 (0.9)	1.3 (2.3)	9.0 (4.2)	10.8 (4.6)	0.4 (6.6)	-13.9 (4.1)		
Finland	28.2 (3.8)	-42.1 (9.3)	19.7 (2.1)	-4.6 (5.4)	17.0 (3.3)	4.3 (2.0)	6.4 (1.0)	1.2 (1.7)	18.9 (3.9)	-0.6 (3.1)	2.7 (6.0)	2.0 (2.3)		
Greece	19.4 (4.4)	-25.4 (8.7)	12.5 (2.4)	12.5 (4.1)	4.1 (2.5)	-0.9 (1.7)	10.3 (1.1)	15.7 (1.8)	35.8 (4.6)	4.0 (6.1)	-7.9 (9.3)	5.7 (6.8)		
Guatemala ¹	-4.3 (2.7)	-12.1 (5.3)	8.0 (1.9)	3.9 (3.4)	-4.1 (2.1)	-1.3 (1.9)	1.1 (0.6)	11.3 (1.6)	19.6 (3.2)	27.6 (4.1)	-8.3 (6.9)	3.8 (3.1)		
Indonesia	12.9 (2.2)	9.7 (3.4)	2.5 (1.5)	-0.3 (3.3)	0.0 (1.5)	6.1 (1.7)	3.7 (0.5)	8.7 (1.3)	3.9 (2.5)	9.9 (4.6)	-14.5 (9.1)	-4.3 (3.5)		
Ireland	3.6 (3.7)	-36.3 (6.2)	16.4 (2.0)	-7.4 (4.4)	13.0 (2.3)	-0.1 (1.4)	10.3 (1.2)	12.3 (1.7)	11.6 (3.9)	25.3 (4.6)	0.8 (8.5)	-6.3 (4.8)		
Italy	9.1 (3.2)	-34.4 (6.7)	15.2 (1.9)	1.8 (4.9)	8.2 (2.1)	5.8 (2.2)	10.3 (0.9)	12.1 (1.7)	-2.3 (4.3)	6.9 (3.5)	3.0 (5.2)	-2.3 (2.5)		
Korea, Republic of ¹	12.7 (4.6)	-24.3 (24.5)	13.3 (2.0)	1.2 (5.9)	12.2 (2.2)	6.7 (1.6)	14.6 (1.5)	0.1 (1.8)	28.9 (2.5)	3.1 (2.0)	2.7 (6.4)	-3.9 (1.8)		
Latvia	17.2 (4.5)	-26.0 (8.4)	9.4 (2.6)	-1.7 (5.8)	8.9 (2.9)	1.7 (2.4)	8.0 (1.2)	7.1 (2.3)	11.9 (4.7)	3.6 (6.2)	-8.9 (10.1)	-6.8 (4.5)		
Lithuania	17.5 (3.7)	-10.6 (8.4)	11.2 (1.8)	3.4 (4.8)	0.8 (2.1)	4.5 (2.0)	14.7 (0.9)	1.0 (1.7)	13.8 (3.9)	4.8 (4.3)	-5.5 (7.7)	-4.9 (3.8)		
Malta [^]	23.6 (6.2)	-18.6 (6.0)	8.6 (1.7)	1.5 (3.5)	7.2 (2.0)	5.6 (1.5)	5.9 (0.8)	6.0 (1.5)	12.0 (3.6)	38.2 (5.7)	1.9 (16.3)	-5.7 (5.5)		
Mexico	19.2 (3.1)	5.9 (12.5)	6.1 (1.9)	-8.2 (3.6)	3.1 (2.7)	4.5 (1.4)	5.8 (0.7)	7.4 (1.5)	12.3 (2.6)	22.9 (4.4)	0.3 (7.6)	-4.6 (2.9)		
New Zealand †	15.6 (3.5)	-37.3 (5.3)	12.3 (1.7)	3.7 (4.3)	4.0 (1.9)	5.1 (1.6)	14.0 (1.0)	11.5 (1.6)	16.3 (3.6)	32.1 (4.2)	25.1 (10.4)	-5.0 (3.9)		
Norway †	11.4 (3.4)	-37.9 (6.6)	19.1 (2.0)	10.0 (5.2)	5.3 (3.2)	5.1 (2.1)	8.5 (1.1)	13.9 (2.5)	42.1 (6.1)	2.5 (3.4)	2.9 (7.0)	3.5 (3.2)		
Paraguay ¹ [~]	14.1 (4.3)	-4.2 (4.3)	9.1 (2.1)	-1.9 (3.7)	5.6 (2.2)	2.5 (1.9)	6.6 (0.7)	10.7 (2.0)	14.1 (4.1)	21.5 (4.1)	1.8 (9.2)	-3.2 (3.6)		
Poland	20.4 (4.2)	-7.1 (20.4)	18.3 (2.2)	-14.4 (4.6)	11.9 (2.7)	5.2 (2.6)	13.6 (1.1)	7.4 (2.0)	39.7 (4.6)	12.5 (4.9)	1.5 (8.8)	-3.8 (3.2)		





Table F.3: Multilevel results for Model 3 (contd.)

Country	Student Background			Home Background				Individual Learning Context				School Characteristics			
	Gender (female)	Use of other language at home	Index of socio-economic background	Parental interest in political/social issues	Discussion with parents of political/social issues	Media information on political/social issues	Expected years of further education	Perception of openness in classroom discussions	Voting for class representative or school parliament	School average of socio-economic background	School location (rural)	Social tensions in local community			
Russian Federation	5.5 (3.4)	-20.7 (7.4)	10.0 (1.6)	4.9 (3.0)	1.3 (2.4)	3.9 (1.6)	9.5 (0.7)	12.4 (1.9)	3.4 (3.4)	6.5 (6.6)	2.6 (10.0)	-2.8 (5.1)			
Slovak Republic ²	5.7 (3.6)	-31.6 (10.4)	6.8 (1.9)	7.2 (3.6)	4.5 (2.3)	1.1 (2.0)	12.4 (1.0)	9.4 (1.6)	10.8 (3.4)	15.1 (4.4)	-7.0 (6.0)	4.2 (4.1)			
Slovenia	18.3 (3.5)	-19.8 (6.4)	14.1 (1.7)	7.9 (4.1)	9.8 (2.9)	8.6 (1.9)	16.6 (1.0)	9.5 (1.8)	19.8 (3.5)	-4.7 (2.5)	-9.0 (5.7)	-3.4 (2.7)			
Spain	10.8 (3.6)	-18.4 (6.8)	7.6 (2.0)	6.1 (3.3)	9.3 (1.9)	3.5 (1.5)	9.0 (0.7)	2.2 (1.8)	22.0 (3.4)	18.5 (3.2)	-1.4 (7.7)	-3.5 (2.8)			
Sweden	12.7 (4.5)	-43.5 (6.7)	24.2 (2.2)	-6.5 (5.1)	10.5 (2.9)	9.4 (2.6)	10.6 (1.4)	13.4 (2.3)	7.8 (3.9)	13.7 (3.9)	-5.2 (6.6)	-2.3 (2.7)			
Switzerland †	5.1 (3.4)	-28.3 (5.2)	10.1 (1.9)	3.6 (4.2)	5.9 (2.4)	5.7 (2.0)	2.2 (0.7)	2.2 (1.8)	10.5 (4.5)	24.7 (4.0)	-0.4 (8.9)	-9.3 (5.2)			
Thailand †	27.5 (2.9)	6.3 (5.9)	0.6 (1.8)	-2.3 (3.7)	-5.7 (1.7)	9.4 (2.0)	5.1 (0.8)	11.0 (1.4)	9.1 (3.9)	14.4 (5.1)	4.1 (9.2)	-6.0 (4.3)			
ICCS average	12.9 (0.6)	-22.3 (1.6)	11.4 (0.3)	1.7 (0.7)	5.9 (0.4)	5.0 (0.3)	8.7 (0.2)	9.0 (0.3)	16.9 (0.6)	16.2 (0.8)	-1.0 (1.4)	-2.9 (0.6)			

Notes:

- * Statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in bold.
- ~ The percentages of cases included in analysis was below 85 percent.
- ^ School census data with two classrooms per school.
- () Standard errors appear in parentheses.
- † 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 Country surveyed the same cohort of students but at the beginning of the next school year.
- ² National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

APPENDIX G: 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.

Staff at ACER

John Ainley, *project coordinator*
Wolfram Schulz, *research director*
Julian Fraillon, *coordinator of test development*
Tim Friedman, *project researcher*
Naoko Tabata, *project researcher*
Maurice Walker, *project researcher*
Eva Van De Gaer, *project researcher*
Anna-Kristin Albers, *project researcher*
Corrie Kirchhoff, *project researcher*
Renee Chow, *data analyst*
Louise Wenn, *data analyst*

Staff at NFER

David Kerr, *associate research director*
Joana Lopes, *project researcher*
Linda Sturman, *project researcher*
Jo Morrison, *data analyst*

Staff at LPS

Bruno Losito, *associate research director*
Gabriella Agrusti, *project researcher*
Elisa Caponera, *project researcher*
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.

Staff at the IEA Secretariat

Hans Wagemaker, *executive director*
Barbara Malak, *manager membership relations*
Dr Paulína Koršňáková, *senior administrative officer*
Jur Hartenberg, *financial manager*



Staff at the IEA Data Processing and Research Center (DPC)

Heiko Sibberns, *co-director*

Dirk Hastedt, *co-director*

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

Leonor Cariola, Ministry of Education, Chile

Henk Dekker, University of Leiden, The Netherlands

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

Rosario Jaramillo F., Ministry of Education, Colombia (2006–2008)

Margarita Peña B., Colombian Institute for the Evaluation of Education (2008–2010)

Judith Torney-Purta, University of Maryland, United States

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

Christian Monseur, University of Liège, Belgium

Other project consultants

Aletta Grisay, University of Liège, Belgium

Isabel Menezes, Porto University, Portugal

Barbara Fratzczak-Rudnicka, Warsaw 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.

Austria

Günther Ogris

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

Belgium (Flemish)

Saskia de Groof

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

Bulgaria

Svetla Petrova

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



Chile

Catalina Covacevich

Unidad de Curriculum y Evaluación, Ministerio de Educación

Chinese Taipei

Meihui Liu

Department of Education, Taiwan Normal University

Colombia

Margarita Peña

Instituto Colombiano para la Evaluación de la Educación (ICFES)

Cyprus

Mary Koutselini

Department of Education, University of Cyprus

Czech Republic

Petr Soukup

Institute for Information on Education

Denmark

Jens Bruun

Department of Educational Anthropology, The Danish University of Education

Dominican Republic

Ancell Scheker

Director of Evaluation in the Ministry of Education

England

Julie Nelson

National Foundation for Educational Research

Estonia

Anu Toots

Tallinn University

Finland

Pekka Kupari

Finnish Institute for Educational Research, University of Jyväskylä

Greece

Georgia Polydorides

Department of Early Childhood Education

Guatemala

Luisa Muller Durán

Dirección General de Evaluación e Investigación Educativa (DIGEDUCA)

Hong Kong SAR

Wing-On Lee

Hong Kong Institute of Education

Indonesia

Diah Haryanti

Balitbang Diknas, Depdiknas

Ireland

Jude Cosgrove

Educational Research Centre, St Patrick's College

Italy

Genny Terrinoni

INVALSI



Republic of Korea*Tae-Jun Kim*

Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI)

Latvia*Andris Kangro*

Faculty of Education and Psychology, University of Latvia

Liechtenstein*Horst Biedermann*

Universität Freiburg, Pädagogisches Institut

Lithuania*Zivile Urbiene*

National Examination Center

Luxembourg*Joseph Britz*

Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale

Romain Martin

University of Luxembourg

Malta*Raymond Camilleri*

Department of Planning and Development, Education Division

Mexico*María Concepción Medina*

Mexican Ministry of Education

Netherlands*M. P. C. van der Werf*

GION, University of Groningen

New Zealand*Kate Lang**Sharon Cox*

Comparative Education Research Unit, Ministry of Education

Norway*Rolf Mikkelsen*

University of Oslo

Paraguay*Mirna Vera*

Dirección General de Planificación

Poland*Krzysztof Kosela*

Institute of Sociology, University of Warsaw

Russia*Peter Pologevets*

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

Slovak Republic*Ervin Stava*

Department for International Measurements, National Institute for Certified Educational Measurements NUCEM

Slovenia*Marjan Simenc*

University of Ljubljana



Spain

Rosario Sánchez

Instituto de Evaluación, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia

Sweden

Fredrik Lind

The Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket)

Switzerland

Fritz Oser

Universität Freiburg, Pädagogisches Institut

Thailand

Siriporn Boonyananta

The Office of the Education Council, Ministry of Education

Somwung Pitayanuwva



References

- Ajebgo, K., Kiwan, D., & Sharma, D. (2007). *Diversity and citizenship curriculum review*. London, UK: Department for Education and Skills (DfES).
- Ajzen, I. (2001). Nature and operation of attitudes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 27–58.
- Almgren, E. (2006). *Att fostrå demokrater: Om skolan i demokratin och demokratin i skolan [To educate democracy: Of democracy in school or school in democracy]*. Dissertation. Uppsala, Sweden: University of Uppsala.
- Amadeo, J., Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Husfeldt, V., & Nikolova, R. (2002). *Civic knowledge and engagement: An IEA study of upper secondary students in sixteen countries*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Anderson, B. (1992). *Imagined communities: Reflections on the origin and spread of nationalism*. New York: Routledge.
- Angvik, M., & von Borries, B. (Eds.). (1997). *Youth and history: A comparative European survey on historical consciousness and political attitudes among adolescents* (Vol. A–B). Hamburg, Germany: Korber-Stiftung.
- Baker, D., & LeTendre, G. (2005). *National differences, global similarities: World culture and the future of schooling*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Balch, G. I. (1974). Multiple indicators in survey research: The concept “sense of political efficacy.” *Political Methodology*, 1(2), 1–43.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28(2), 117–148.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Banks, J. (2008). Diversity and citizenship education in global times. In J. Arthur, I. Davies, & C. Hahn (Eds.), *Education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 57–70). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Bankston, C. L. (2004). Social capital, cultural values, immigration, and academic achievement: The host country context and contradictory consequences. *Sociology of Education*, 77, 176–179.
- Barnes, S. H., & Kaase, M. (1979). *Political action: Mass participation in five Western democracies*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Barr, H. (2005). Toward a model of citizenship education: Coping with differences in definition. In C. White & R. Openshaw (Eds.), *Democracy at the crossroads: International perspectives on critical global citizenship education* (pp. 55–75). Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.
- Bengston, V. L., Biblarz, T. J., & Roberts, R. L. (2002). *How families still matter. A longitudinal study of youth in two generations*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bennett, L., & Bennett, S. (1989). Enduring gender differences in political interest. *American Politics Quarterly*, 17(1): 105–122.
- Bennett, S. E. (1986). *Apathy in America*. Dobbs Ferry, NY: Transnational Publishers.
- Ben-Porath, S. R. (2006). *Citizenship under fire: Democratic education in times of conflict*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Birzea, C., Kerr, D., Mikkelsen, R., Pol, M., Froumin, I., Losito, B., & Sardoc, M. (2004). *All European study on education for democratic citizenship policies*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology and education* (pp. 241–248). New York: Greenwood Press.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.



- Buchmann, C. (2002). Measuring family background in international studies of education: Conceptual issues and methodological challenges. In A. C. Porter & A. Gamoran (Eds.), *Methodological advances in cross-national surveys of educational achievement* (pp. 150–197). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Buchmann, C., & Dalton, B. (2002). Interpersonal influences and educational aspirations in 12 countries: The importance of institutional context. *Sociology of Education*, 75(2), 99–122.
- Burns, N., Lehman Schlozman, K., & Verba, S. (1997). The public consequences of private inequality: Family life and citizen participation. *American Political Science Review*, 91(2), 373–389.
- Campbell, A., Gurin, G., & Miller, W. E. (1954). *The voter decides*. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson and Company.
- Chall, J., & Henry, D. (1991). Reading and civic literacy: Are we literate enough to meet our civic responsibilities. In S. Stotsky (Ed.), *Connecting civic education and language education*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1975). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94(supplement), 95–120.
- Connell, R. (1972). *The child's construction of politics*. Melbourne, Victoria, Australia: Melbourne University Press.
- Converse, P. E. (1972). Change in the American electorate. In A. Campbell & P. E. Converse (Eds.), *The human meaning of social change* (pp. 263–337). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Cox, C., Jaramillo, R., & Reimers, F. (2005). *Education for citizenship and democracy in the Americas: An agenda for action*. Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Craig, R., Kerr, D., Wade, P., & Taylor, G. (2005). *Taking post-16 citizenship forward: Learning from the post-16 citizenship development projects* (DfES research report 604). London, UK: Department for Education and Skills (DfES).
- Curtice, J., & Seyd, B. (2003). Is there a crisis of political participation? In A. Park, J. Curtice, K. Thomson, L. Jarvis, & C. Bromley (Eds.), *British social attitudes: The 20th report. Continuity and change over two decades* (pp. 93–107). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Dalton, R. (1999). Political support in advanced industrial democracies. In P. Norris (Ed.), *Critical citizens: Global support for democratic government* (pp. 57–77). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Dalton, R. (2002). The decline of party identifications. In R. Dalton & M. Wattenberg (Eds.), *Parties without partisans* (pp. 19–36). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Dalton, R. (2006). *Citizenship norms and political participation in America: The good news is ... the bad news is wrong* (CDACS occasional paper). Washington DC: Center for Democracy and Civil Society, Georgetown University.
- Diaz-Veizades, J., Widaman, K., Little, T., & Gibbs, K. (1995). The measurement and structure of human rights attitudes. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 135(3), 313–328.
- Dürr, K. H. (2004). *The school: A democratic learning community*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.
- Ehman, L. H. (1980). Change in high school pupils political attitudes as a function of social studies classroom climate. *American Educational Research Journal*, 17, 253–265.
- Ekman, J., & Amnå, E. (2009). *Political participation and civic engagement: Towards a new typology* (Youth & Society Working Paper 2009:2). Örebro, Sweden: Örebro University.
- Elley, W. B. (1992). *How in the world do students read?* The Hague: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Eurydice. (2005). *Citizenship education at school in Europe*. Brussels, Belgium: Author.
- Eurydice. (2007). *School autonomy in Europe: Policies and measures*. Brussels, Belgium: Author.



- Evans, M. (2009). Citizenship education, pedagogy and school contexts. In J. Arthur, I. Davies, & C. Hahn (Eds.), *Education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 519–532). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Fuchs, D. (1999). The democratic culture of unified Germany. In P. Norris (Ed.), *Critical citizens: Global support for democratic government* (pp. 123–145). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Fuchs, D., & Klingemann, H.-D. (1995). Citizens and the state: A relationship transformed. In D. Fuchs & H.-D. Klingeman (Eds.), *Citizens and the state: Beliefs in government* (Vol. 1, pp. 419–443). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Fuchs, D., & Roller, E. (2006). Learned democracy? Support for democracy in Central and Eastern Europe. *International Journal of Sociology*, 36, 70–96.
- Furnham, A., & Gunter, B. (1989). *The anatomy of adolescence: Young people's social attitudes in Britain*. New York: Routledge.
- Gabriel, O. W., & van Deth, J. W. (1995). Political interest. In J. W. van Deth & E. Scarbrough (Eds.), *The impact of values* (Vol. 4, pp. 390–411). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ganzeboom, H. B. G., de Graaf, P. M., & Treiman, D. J. (1992). A standard international socioeconomic index of occupational status. *Social Science Research*, 21, 1–56.
- Gerbner, G. (1980). The mainstreaming of America. *Journal of Communication*, 30, 10–29.
- Goldenberg, C., Gallimore, R., Reese, L., & Garnier, H. (2001). Cause or effect? A longitudinal study of immigrant Latino parents' aspirations and expectations, and their children's school performance. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(3), 547–582.
- Gorard, S., & Sundaram, V. (2008). Equity and its relationship to citizenship education. In J. Arthur, I. Davies, & C. Hahn (Eds.), *Education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 57–70). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Gottfried, A. W. (1985). Measures of socioeconomic status in child development research. Data and recommendations. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 31(1), 85–92.
- Grusec, J. E., & Kuczynski, L. (Eds.). (1997). *Parenting and children's internalization of values: A handbook of contemporary theory*. New York: John Wiley.
- Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. (1997). *Reading engagement: Motivating readers through integrated instruction*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Hahn, C. (1998). *Becoming political: Comparative perspectives on citizenship education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Hahn, L. (1999). Citizenship education: An empirical study of policy, practices and outcomes. *Oxford Review of Education*, 25, 231 – 250.
- Hart, D., Atkins, R., Markey, P., & Youniss, J. (2004). Youth bulges in communities: The effects of age structure on adolescent civic knowledge and civic participation. *Psychological Science*, 15(9), 591–597.
- Hauser, R. M. (1994). Measuring socioeconomic status in studies of child development. *Child Development*, 65, 1541–1545.
- Held, D. (1996). *Models of democracy*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Hess, R. D., & Torney, J. (1967). *The development of political attitudes in children*. Garden City, NJ: Anchor Books.
- Homana, G., Barber, C., & Torney-Purta, J. (2006). *Assessing school citizenship education climate: Implications for the social studies* (CIRCLE Working Paper 48). Retrieved from <http://www.civicyouth.org/PopUps/WorkingPapers/WP48Homana.pdf>.
- Hooghe, M., Stolle, D., & Stouthuysen, P. (2004). Head start in politics: The recruitment function of youth organizations of political parties in Belgium (Flanders). *Party Politics*, 10(2), 193–212.
- Huddy, L., & Khatib, N. (2007). American patriotism, national identity, and political involvement. *American Political Science Review*, 51(1), 63–77.



- Husfeldt, V., & Nikolova, R. (2003). Students' concepts of democracy. *European Educational Research Journal*, 2(3), 396–409.
- Inglehart, R. (1997). *Modernization and postmodernization: Cultural, economic and political change in 43 societies*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Inglehart, R., & Norris, P. (2003). *Rising tide: Gender equality and cultural change around the world*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- International Labour Organisation (ILO). (1990). *International Standard Classification of Occupations: ISCO-88*. Geneva: International Labour Office.
- Janoski, T. (1998). *Citizenship and civil society: A framework of rights and obligations in liberal, traditional and social democratic regimes*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Janoski, T., & Wilson, J. (1995). Pathways to voluntarism: Family socialization and status transmission models. *Social Forces*, 74(1), 271–292.
- Jennings, M. K., Stoker, L., & Bowers, J. (2001). *Politics across the generations: Family transmission reexamined* (working paper 2001-15). Berkeley, CA: Institute of Governmental Studies.
- Jerome, L. (2008). Assessing citizenship education. In J. Arthur, I. Davies, & C. Hahn (Eds.), *Sage handbook of education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 545–558). London, UK: Sage.
- Kaase, M. (1990). Mass participation. In M. K. Jennings & J. W. van Deth (Eds.), *Continuities in political action* (pp. 23–67). New York: Walter de Gruyter.
- Kahne, J., & Sporte, S. (2008). Developing citizens: The impact of civic learning opportunities on students' commitment to civic participation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(3), 738–766.
- Kao, G. (2004). Social capital and its relevance to minority and immigrant populations. *Sociology of Education*, 77, 172–183.
- Kao, G., & Thompson, J. S. (2003). Racial and ethnic stratification in educational achievement and attainment. In K. S. Cook & J. Hagan (Eds.), *Annual review of sociology* (Vol. 29, pp. 417–442). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.
- Keating, A., Kerr, D., Lopes, J., Featherstone, G., & Benton, T. (2009). *Embedding citizenship education in secondary schools in England (2002–08): Citizenship education longitudinal study, seventh annual report*. London, UK: Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF).
- Kennedy, K. (2009). The citizenship curriculum: Ideology, content and organization. In J. Arthur, I. Davies, & C. Hahn (Eds.), *Education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 483–491). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Kerr, D., Ireland, E., Lopes, J., & Craig, R., with Cleaver, E. (2004). *Citizenship education longitudinal study, second annual report*. First longitudinal survey: Making citizenship real (DfES research report 531). London, UK: Department for Education and Skills (DfES).
- Kerr, D., Keating, A., & Ireland, E. (2009). *Pupil assessment in citizenship education: Purposes, practices and possibilities*. Report of a CIDREE Collaborative Project. Slough, UK: National Foundation for Educational Research/Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe (NFER/CIDREE).
- Klingemann, H. (1999). *Mapping support in the 1990s: A global analysis*. In P. Norris (Ed.), *Critical citizen: Global support for democratic governance* (pp. 40–44). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Lauglo, J., & Øia, T. (2006). *Education and civic engagement among Norwegian youths* (NOVA report 14/06). Oslo, Norway: Norwegian Social Research.
- Lee, W. O., Grossman, D. L., Kennedy, K., & Fairbrother, G. P. (Eds.). (2004). *Citizenship education in Asia and the Pacific: Concepts and issues*. Hong Kong SAR: Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC) and Kluwer Academic Publishers.



- Lehmann, R. (1996). Reading literacy among immigrant students in the United States and former West Germany. In M. Binkley, K. Rust, & T. Williams (Eds.), *Reading literacy in an international perspective* (pp. 101–114). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics (NCES).
- Losito, B., & D'Apice A. (2003). Democracy, citizenship, participation: The results of the second IEA Civic Education Study in Italy. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 39(6), 609–620.
- Losito, B., & Mintrop, H. (2001). The teaching of civic education. In J. Torney-Purta, R. Lehmann, H. Oswald, & W. Schulz (Eds.), *Citizenship and education in twenty-eight countries* (pp. 157–173). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Lutkus, A. D., & Weiss, A. R. (2007). *The nation's report card: Civics 2006* (NCES 2007-476). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Lutkus, A. D., Weiss, A. R., Campbell, J. R., Mazzeo, J., & Lazer, S. (1999). *The NAEP civics report card for the nation*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Marjoribanks, K. (2003). Family background, individual and environmental influences, aspirations and young adults' educational attainment: A follow-up study. *Educational Studies*, 29(2/3), 233–242.
- Masters, G. N., & Wright, B. D. (1997). The partial credit model. In W. J. van der Linden & R. K. Hambleton (Eds.), *Handbook of modern item response theory* (pp. 100–222). New York: Springer.
- Matthew, R., & Shambaugh, G. (2005). The pendulum effect: Explaining shifts in the democratic response to terrorism. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy*, 5(1), 223–233.
- Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training, and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA). (2006). *National Assessment Program: Civics and citizenship Years 6 and 10 report 2004*. Carlton South, UK: Author.
- Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training, and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA). (2008). *National Assessment Program: Civics and Citizenship Years 6 and 10 Report 2007*. Carlton South, UK: Author.
- Medrano, J., & Koenig, M. (2005). Nationalism, citizenship and immigration in social science research: Editorial introduction. *International Journal on Multicultural Societies*, 7(2), 82–89.
- Mellor, S., & Prior, W. (2004). Citizenship education in Asia and the Pacific: Promoting social tolerance and cohesion in the Solomon Islands and Vanuatu. In W. O. Lee, D. L. Grossman, K. Kennedy, & G. P. Fairbrother (Eds.), *Citizenship education in Asia and the Pacific: Concepts and issues* (pp. 175–194). Hong Kong, SAR: Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC) and Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Menezes, I., Ferreira, P. D., Carneiro, N. S., & Cruz, J. B. (2004). Citizenship, empowerment and participation: Implications for community interventions. In A. Sánchez Vidal, A. Zambrano Constanzo, & L. M. Palacín (Eds.), *Psicología comunitaria Europea: Comunidad, ética y valores* [European community psychology: Community, ethics and values] (pp. 301–308). Barcelona, Spain: Publicacions Universitat de Barcelona.
- Merolla, J. L., & Zechmeister, E. J. (2009). *Democracy at risk: How terrorist threats affect the public*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Mintrop, H. (2003). The old and new face of civic education: Expert, teacher and student view. *European Educational Research Journal*, 2, 446–460.
- Mondak, J., & Anderson, M. (2004). The knowledge gap: A reexamination of gender-based differences in political knowledge. *The Journal of Politics*, 66(2), 492–512.
- Monseur, C., & Berezner, A. (2007). The computation of equating errors in international surveys in education. *Journal of Applied Measurement*, 8(3), 323–335.
- Mosher, R., Kenny, R. A., & Garrod, A. (1994). *Preparing for citizenship: Teaching youth to live democratically*. Westport/London: Praeger.



- Mullis, I. V. S., Martin, M. O., Gonzalez, E. J., Gregory, K. D., Garden, R. A., O'Connor, K. M., Chrostowski, S. J., & Smith, T. A. (2000). *TIMSS 1999 international mathematics report: Findings from IEA's repeat of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study at the eighth grade*. Chestnut Hill, MA: Boston College.
- Mullis, I., Martin, M., Kennedy, A., & Foy, P. (2007). *PIRLS 2006 international report: IEA's Progress in International Reading Literacy Study in primary schools in 40 countries*. Chestnut Hill, MA: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Boston College.
- Nelson, J., & Kerr, D. (2006). *Active citizenship in INCA countries: Definitions, policies, practices and outcomes: Final report*. London, UK: Qualification and Curriculum Authority.
- Newton, P., & Norris, P. (2000). Confidence in public institutions: Faith, culture or performance? In S. J. Pharr & R. D. Putnam (Eds.), *Disaffecting democracies: What's troubling the trilateral countries?* (pp. 52–73). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Nie, N. H., Junn, J., & Stehlik-Barry, K. (1996). *Education and democratic citizenship in America*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Niemi, R., & Junn, J. (1998). *Civic education: What makes students learn?* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Norris, P. (1999). *Critical citizens: Global support for democratic government*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Norris, P. (2000). *A virtuous circle: Political communication in postindustrial societies*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Norris, P. (2002). *Count every voice: Democratic participation worldwide*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Nugent, J. K. (1994). The development of children's relationships with their country. *Children's Environments*, 11, 281–291.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (1999). *Classifying educational programmes: Manual for ISCED-97 implementation in OECD countries*. Paris: Author.
- O'Rourke, K. H., & Sinnott, R. (2006). The determinants of individual attitudes towards immigration. *European Journal of Political Economy*, 22(4), 838–861.
- Osler, A., & Starkey, H. (2005). *Changing citizenship: Democracy and inclusion in education*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.
- Osler, A., & Vincent, K. (2002). *Citizenship and the challenge of global education*. Stoke on Trent, UK: Trentham.
- Oswald, H., & Schmid, C. (1998). Political participation of young people in East Germany. *German Politics*, 7, 147–164.
- Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 19(2), 139–158.
- Pajares, F. (2005). *Gender differences in mathematics self-efficacy beliefs*. In A. M. Gallagher & J. C. Kaufman (Eds.), *Gender differences in mathematics: An integrative psychological approach* (pp. 294–315). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Pajares, F., Miller, M. D., & Johnson, M. J. (1999). Gender differences in writing self-beliefs of elementary school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 9(1), 50–61.
- Parker, W. (2004). Diversity, globalization and democratic education: Curriculum possibilities. In J. A. Banks (Ed.), *Diversity and citizenship education: Global perspectives*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Pasek, J., Feldman, L., Romer, D., & Jamieson, K. (2008). Schools as incubators of democratic participation: Building long-term political efficacy with civic education. *Applied Developmental Science*, 12(1), 236–237.



- Perliger, A., Canetti-Nisim, D., & Pedahzur, A. (2006). Democratic attitudes among high-school pupils: The role played by perceptions of class climate. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 17(1), 119–140.
- Putnam, R. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Putnam, R. D. (1993). *Making democracy work*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Putnam, R. D. (1995). Tuning in, tuning out: The strange disappearance of social capital in America. *PS: Political Science and Politics*, December, 664–683.
- Quintelier, E. (2008). The effect of schools on political participation: A multilevel logistic analysis. *Research Papers in Education*, 25(2), 137–154.
- Ranson, S., Farrell, C., Peim, N., & Smith, P. (2005). Does governance matter for school improvement? *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 16(3), 305–325.
- Rasch, G. (1960). *Probabilistic models for some intelligence and attainment tests*. Copenhagen, Denmark: Nielsen & Lydiche (1960).
- Raudenbush, S. W., & Bryk, A. S. (2002). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Raudenbush, S. W., Bryk, A. S., Cheong, Y. F., & Congdon, R. (2004). *HLM 6: Hierarchical linear and nonlinear modeling*. Chicago, IL: Scientific Software International.
- Reezigt, G. J., & Creemers, B. P. M. (2005). A comprehensive framework for effective school improvement. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 16(4), 407–424.
- Reilly, J., Niens, U., & McLaughlin, R. (2005). Education for a Bill of Rights in Northern Ireland. In A. Osler (Ed.), *Teachers, human rights and diversity: Educating citizens in multicultural societies* (pp. 53–72). Stoke-on-Trent, UK: Trentham.
- Reimers, F. (2007). Civic education when democracy is in flux: The impact of empirical research on policy and practice in Latin America. *Citizenship and Teacher Education*, 3(2), 5–21.
- Renshon, S. A. (1975). The role of personality development in political socialization. In D. C. Schwartz & S. Schwartz (Eds.), *New directions in socialization* (pp. 29–68). New York: Free Press.
- Richardson, W. (2003). *Connecting political discussion to civic engagement: The role of civic knowledge, efficacy and context for adolescents*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, USA.
- Robinson, M. J. (1976). Public Affairs television and the growth of political malaise: The case of “the selling of the Pentagon.” *American Political Science Review*, 70, 409–432.
- Ross, A. (2009). Organising a curriculum for active citizenship. In J. Arthur, I. Davies, & C. Hahn (Eds.), *Education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 492–505). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Roth, K., & Burbules, N. C. (2007). *Changing notions of citizenship education in contemporary nation-states*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- Saha, L. J. (1997). Introduction: The centrality of the family in educational processes. In L. J. Saha (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of the Sociology of Education* (pp. 587–588). Oxford/New York/Tokyo: Elsevier.
- Schulz, W. (2002). *Explaining differences in civic knowledge: Multilevel regression analyses of student data from 27 countries*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (AERA), New Orleans, 1–5 April.
- Schulz, W. (2004a). Scaling procedures for Likert-type items on students’ concepts, attitudes and actions. In W. Schulz & H. Sibberns (Eds.), *IEA Civic Education Study technical report* (pp. 93–126). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).



- Schulz, W. (2004b). Mapping student scores to item responses. In W. Schulz & H. Sibberns (Eds.), *IEA Civic Education Study technical report* (pp. 127–132). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Schulz, W. (2005). *Political efficacy and expected participation among lower and upper secondary students: A comparative analysis with data from the IEA Civic Education Study*. Paper presented at the ECPR general conference, Budapest, Hungary, 8–10 September.
- Schulz, W. (2009). Questionnaire construct validation in the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study. *IERI Monograph Series Volume 2*, 113–135.
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J. & Fraillon, J. (Eds.) (forthcoming). *ICCS 2009 technical report*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J., Fraillon, J., Kerr, D., & Losito, B. (2010). *Initial findings from the IEA International Civic and Citizenship Study*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Schulz, W., Fraillon, J., Ainley, J., Losito, B., & Kerr, D. (2008). *International Civic and Citizenship Education Study: Assessment framework*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Schulz, W., & Sibberns, H. (2004). Scaling procedures for cognitive items. In W. Schulz & H. Sibberns (Eds.), *IEA Civic Education Study technical report* (pp. 69–91). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Sherrod, L., Torney-Purta, J., & Flanagan, C. (Eds.). (2010). *Handbook on civic engagement in youth*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.
- Sirin, S. R. (2005). Socioeconomic status and academic achievement: A meta-analytic review of research. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(3), 417–453.
- Snijders, T. A. B., & Bosker, R. J. (1999). *Multilevel analysis: An introduction to basic and advanced multilevel modelling*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Solhaug, T. (2006). Knowledge and self-efficacy as predictors of political participation and civic attitudes: Relevance for educational practice. *Policy Futures in Education*, 4(3), 265–278.
- Stanat, P., & Christensen, G. (2006). *Where immigrant students succeed: A comparative review of performance and engagement in PISA 2003*. Paris, France: OECD Publications.
- Stoll, L. (1999). School culture: Black hole or fertile garden for school improvement? In J. Prosser (Ed.), *School culture* (British Educational Management Series). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Stolp, S. (1994). *Leadership for school culture*. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 91, 1994).
- Theiss-Morse, E. (1993). Conceptualizations of good citizenship and political participation. *Political Behavior*, 15(4), 355–380.
- Torney, J., Oppenheim, A. N., & Farnen, R. F. (1975). *Civic education in ten countries: An empirical study*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Torney-Purta, J. (2000). An international perspective on the NAEP Civics Report Card. *The Social Studies*, 94, 148–150.
- Torney-Purta, J. (2009). International research that matters for policy and practice. *American Psychologist*, 64(8), 822–837.
- Torney-Purta, J., & Barber, C. (2004). *Democratic school participation and civic attitudes among European adolescents: Analysis of data from the IEA Civic Education Study*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.
- Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H., & Schulz, W. (2001). *Citizenship and education in twenty-eight countries: Civic knowledge and engagement at age fourteen*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).



- Torney-Purta, J., Richardson, W. K., & Barber, C. H. (2005). Teachers' experience and sense of confidence in relation to students' civic understanding and engagement across countries. *International Journal of Citizenship and Teacher Education*, 1(1), 32–57.
- Torney-Purta, J., Schwille, J., & Amadeo, J. A. (1999). *Civic education across countries: Twenty-four case studies from the IEA Civic Education Project*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Torney-Purta, J., Wilkenfeld, B., & Barber, C. (2008). How adolescents in twenty-seven countries understand, support, and practice human rights. *Journal of Social Issues*, 64, 857–880.
- Toth, O. (1995). Political-moral attitudes amongst young people in postcommunist Hungary. In L. Chisholm, P. Buchner, H.-H. Kruger, & M. du Bois-Reymond (Eds.), *Growing up in Europe: Contemporary horizons in childhood and youth studies* (Vol. 2, pp.189–194). Berlin, New York: Walter de Gruyter.
- United Nations Development Programme. (2009). *Indicators: Human development report 2009*. Retrieved from <http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/>.
- UNESCO. (2006). *International Standard Classification of Education: ISCED 1997*. Montreal, Quebec, Canada: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- van Deth, J. W. (2000). Interesting but irrelevant: Social capital and the saliency of politics in Western Europe. *European Journal of Political Research*, 37(2), 115–147.
- van Deth, J. W., Maraffi, M., Newton, K., & Whiteley, P. F. (1999). *Social capital and European democracy*. London, New York: Routledge.
- Van Houtte, M. (2005). Climate or culture? A plea for conceptual clarity in school effectiveness research. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 16(1), 71–89.
- Verba, S., Schlozman, K. L., & Brady, H. E. (1995). *Voice and equality: Civic voluntarism in American politics*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vollebergh, W. A. M., Iedema, J., & Raaijmakers, Q. A. W. (2001). Intergenerational transmission and the formation of cultural orientations in adolescence and young adulthood. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 63(4), 1185–1198.
- von Davier, M., Gonzalez, E., & Mislevy, R. (2009). What are plausible values and why are they useful? *IERI Monograph Series Volume 2*, 9–36.
- Wade, R. C. (2007). *Community action rooted in history: The CiviConnections model of service learning*. Silver Spring, MD: National Council for the Social Studies.
- Walker, D. (1996). Young people, politics and the media. In H. Robert & D. Sachdev (Eds.), *Young people's social attitudes* (pp. 118–127). Ilford, UK: Barnardos.
- Warm, T. A. (1989). Weighted likelihood estimation of ability in item response theory. *Psychometrika*, 54(3), 427–520.
- Watts, M. W. (1996). Political xenophobia in the transition from socialism: Threat, racism and ideology among East German youth. *Political Psychology*, 17(1), 97–126.
- Westin, C. (1998). Immigration, xenophobia and youthful opinion. In J. Nurmi (Ed.), *Adolescents, cultures and conflicts: Growing up in contemporary Europe* (pp. 225–241). New York: Garland Publishing.
- White, C., & Openshaw, R. (2005). *Democracy at the crossroads: International perspectives on critical global citizenship education*. Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.
- White, K. R. (1982). Socioeconomic status and academic achievement. *Evaluation in Education: An International Review Series*, 4, 79–81.
- Wigfield, A., Eccles, J. S., & Pintrich, P. R. (1996). Development between the ages of 11 and 25. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 148- 185). New York: Macmillan.



Wilkenfeld, B. (2009). *Does context matter? How the family, peer, school, and neighborhood contexts relate to adolescents' civic engagement* (CIRCLE Working Paper 64). Medford, MA: The Center For Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement.

Woessmann, L. (2004). *How equal are educational opportunities? Family background and student achievement in Europe and the United States* (IZA Discussion Paper 1284). Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA).

Wu, M. L., Adams, R. J., Wilson, M. R., & Haldane, S. (2007). *ACER ConQuest: General item response modelling software* [computer program]. Camberwell, Victoria, Australia: Australian Council for Educational Research.

Yeich, S., & Levine, R. (1994). Political efficacy: Enhancing the construct and its relationship to mobilization of people. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 22, 259–269.

Youniss, J., & Levine, P. (Eds.). (2009). *Engaging young people in civic life*. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press.

Zadja, J. (2009). Globalisation, nation building and cultural identity: The role of intercultural dialogue. In J. Zajda, H. Daun, & L. Saha (Eds.), *Nation-building, identity and citizenship education* (pp. 15–24). Frankfurt, Germany: Springer.



This report presents findings from 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 in a range of countries are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens. It investigated student knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship as well as students' perceptions, attitudes, and activities related to civics and citizenship. It also examined differences among countries in these outcomes and the relationship of these outcomes to students' individual characteristics and family backgrounds, to teaching practices, and to school and broader community contexts.

Thirty-eight countries worldwide participated in ICCS. Data gathered from more than 140,000 Grade 8 students and 62,000 teachers in over 5,300 schools provided evidence that may be used to improve policy and practice in civic and citizenship education. The information collected also provides a new baseline for future research on civic and citizenship education.

This report presents extensive analyses of student knowledge and attitudes in relation to teacher, school, and community characteristics in all 38 countries. While these analyses revealed considerable variation among and within countries in civic knowledge of students, they also indicated that large majorities of students in all countries strongly endorse democratic values and institutions. Among factors related to students' knowledge and/or dispositions were gender, socioeconomic background, parents' interests in political and social issues, communication experiences (including perceptions of openness in school classroom discussions), and experiences with voting.

The regional reports for Asia, Europe, and Latin America that will follow this publication address issues of civic and citizenship education of special interest in these parts of the world. IEA will also publish a civic and citizenship education encyclopedia, and a technical report, and it will make available an international database that the broader research community can use for secondary analyses.