Active civic education using project-based learning: Israeli college students' attitudes towards civic engagement

Osnat Akirav (The Western Galilee College)

2023 SUMMER ISSUE

Active civic education using project-based learning: Israeli college students' attitudes towards civic engagement

Osnat Akirav (The Western Galilee College)

ABSTRACT

The paper investigates the effect of active civic education using project-based learning (PjBL) on attitudes towards civic engagement in a heterogeneous society. The study used a qualitative research approach involving a content analysis of responses to open-ended questionnaires, students' reports and weekly discussions with the students. The study examines whether the PjBL approach, which was developed in medical schools, can be an effective instructional tool for promoting the civic engagement of college students in a multi-ethnic society. Our findings indicate that PjBL is effective. The approach prompted non-Jewish minority students in Israeli society to consider future civic engagement. It also improved their understanding of the concepts of accountability, transparency, civil and human rights, and the ability of individuals in a democracy to obtain answers from their government. Finally, PjBL underscored their ability and obligation to contribute to their communities.

Keywords: active civic education, project-based learning (PjBL), problem-based learning (PBL), attitudes towards civic engagement, non-Jewish minority

Active civic education using project-based learning: Israeli college students' attitudes towards civic engagement

Why and when do citizens become involved in civic activities? What is the role of academic organizations in promoting civic activities? What is the best way to do it? How does civic engagement work in a diverse society? These are some of the long-standing questions posed by previous scholars regarding civic education and engagement.

As a complex concept, citizenship must be supported by an ongoing educational process in order to maintain it (McMurray & Niens, 2012; Heggart et al., 2019; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020). Scholars have indicated that formal and informal civic education creates pro-active, participatory, and democratically inclined citizens (Henderson & Tudball, 2017; Kennedy, 2019; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020; Papworth, 2020). We argue that active civic education is mandatory for strengthening citizenship and attitudes towards civic engagement, especially among young adults who are no longer part of the formal educational system. Furthermore, civic education can help young people improve their understanding of democracy (Kennedy, 2019). Active civic education can provide a participatory experience that enables young people to feel that they belong to the community and encourages them to become more active in it (Kiwan, 2008; Bekerman & Zembylas, 2017). Thus, universities and colleges play an increased role in the civic education process.

We investigate the puzzle of what happens in culturally diverse societies. Do the different groups in a society react in a similar way to active civic education? While cultural diversity is beneficial for organizations, communities, and nations, it can also create conflict and resentment (Galinsky et al., 2015). This situation is quite evident in Israel, which is considered a multi-ethnic society characterized by unusual ethnic diversity between Jews and Arabs, in addition to ethnic differences among Jews. Since Arab and Jewish citizens of Israel usually meet for the first time as equal learners only in

universities and colleges, their civic education experience is different. Furthermore, their basic attitudes toward the state of Israel are different as well. For example, while Druze men, who are members of the Arab minority, are required to serve in the Israeli army along with all Israeli Jews, Muslims and Christian citizens do not have this obligation. The Arab community in Israel perceives itself as a national minority and increasingly demands to be recognized as such, calling for both individual equality and national equality with Jewish Israelis (Peled, 2013; Zeedan, 2019; Agbaria et al., 2021).

We argue that in Israel, the concept of citizenship and cultural diversity is more complex than in other democracies. This situation provides us with an appropriate and interesting case study for analyzing how civic education in heterogeneous democracies operates. Hence, our main research question asks whether active civic education using project-based learning (PjBL) impacts the attitudes of minority groups and majority groups towards civic engagement differently.

We first review the literature to establish a definition of citizenship, civic education, and civic engagement. We also develop our hypotheses based on the extant research. Second, we review the components of PjBL and problem-based learning (PBL) as strategies for creating active instruction in civic education.

Third, we present the concept of cultural diversity and its management in Israel. Fourth, we describe the methodology, data collection strategy and data analysis. Fifth, we test both research hypotheses using both thematic and statistical analyses. Finally, we present the implications and conclusions of the research. This study is significant because it sheds light on the attitudes of majority and minority members towards civic engagement in a deeply conflicted society and provides a practical method for improving their involvement in it.

Literature Review

Citizenship, Civic Education and Civic Engagement

Scholars agree that citizenship is a complex concept. It is often regarded as a form of enclosure in which clear boundaries are set between inside and outside groups. Furthermore, countries vary widely in the levels of opportunities, security, and rights they offer to their citizens (Marshall, 1964; McMurray & Niens, 2012; Goren & Yemini, 2018; Heggart et al., 2019). Marshall (1964) was the first scholar to define citizenship, which he regarded as a developmental process. He described how the civil, political, and social elements of the concept emerged in subsequent centuries. From his point of view, the three elements of citizenship are interrelated and overlapping. Evidence from previous studies argued that

citizenship faces more challenges and complexities in divided societies that contain conflicting national or cultural identities. Minority groups might feel that their cultural identity and distinctiveness are threatened when there is a superordinate identity (Levinson, 2012). To establish and strengthen citizenship, continuous civic education is necessary (Amnå, 2012; Henderson & Tudball, 2017; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020). Furthermore, civic education in divided societies plays an even more significant role in promoting social capital through the development of democratic values, attitudes, and skills (Niens & Chastenay, 2008; Duffy et al., 2022).

Civic education occurs formally and informally, interacting with each other (Sanchez-Jankowski, 2002). Both aspects are important agents in socializing minority youth toward civic engagement. Furthermore, in divided societies, where most young people are educated in segregated schools, the formal study of civics occurs during high school. Informal education, on the other hand, takes place in the community, in schools and in the military (Lemish, 2003; Gallagher & Duffy, 2016; Goren & Yemini, 2018; Duffy et al., 2022). However, the curricula in the separate schools are comparable in terms of the inclusion of topics relevant to citizenship such as identity, equality, and participation (Niens & Chastenay, 2008; Papworth, 2020). Nevertheless, Goren and Yemini (2018) noted that citizenship education needs to be articulated differently in conflict-ridden states than in other Western contexts.

Participatory learning can provide a rare opportunity for the development of interper¬sonal relationships across community divisions and create bridging capital in the long term (Levinson, 2012; McMurray & Niens, 2012). A participatory experience that provides young people with a sense of belonging to the community, a sense of empowerment and an enhancement of their personal development may motivate further engagement in society (Bekerman & Zembylas, 2017; Henderson & Tudball, 2017; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020). Brodie-McKenzie (2020) noted that citizenship education could empower young people as citizens. He encouraged an approach to citizenship education that recognizes students as citizens. In addition, he noted that young people oversee how they interpret and enact their citizenship.

While scholars have regarded civic education as an important part of democratic life, they debate about the content of that education. Furthermore, the teaching of citizenship must be supplemented with a more thorough understanding of the ways in which young people actually learn democratic citizenship through their participation in a range of formal and informal practices. Scholars suggest focusing on the interplay between the contexts of those actions, the relationships within and across contexts, and the dispositions that young people bring to such contexts and relationships

(Bekerman & Zembylas, 2017; Henderson & Tudball, 2017; Duffy et al., 2022). Henderson and Tudball (2017) examined the extent to which the Australian Curriculum for Civics and Citizenship Education provides opportunities to educate young people to be active and critical citizens. They found that the knowledge and skills in the curriculum lack participatory opportunities for social action.

Schools achieve the best results in fostering civic engagement when they teach the content of the curriculum and its skills rigorously, ensure an open classroom climate for discussing issues, emphasize the importance of the electoral process, and encourage a participatory school culture (Torney-Purta, 2002; Balogun & Yusuf, 2019; Blevins et al., 2021). Balogun and Yusuf (2019) noted that the daily experiences of students in school should be associated with democratic values, such as competitiveness, openness, participation, and tolerance.

However, school is not the only arena for civic education. Other socializing agencies such as families, the mass media, the army, and the government also participate in civic education. Discussing civic and political issues with one's parents, participating in extracurricular activities other than sports, and living in a civically responsive neighborhood improve a student's commitment to civic engagement (Sabbagh & Resh, 2014). The informal mechanisms of civic education that take place in Israeli-Jewish communities, schools, and the military are integral parts that collectively produce a strong commitment in students to participate in civic life. This education motivates them to contribute to the achievement of national goals and ensure that Israel retains its Jewish character (Lemish, 2003). Thus, civic education must concentrate on young people, because as "citizens in the making," they may be more open to the notions of citizenship which are taught in schools.

However, what happens after students finish their secondary school education and go into the job market or on to higher education? Does higher education have a similar effect on civic engagement as with primary and secondary schools? Colleges have become the central institution for civic engagement for young people. Scholars have found that the levels of civic engagement are higher for young adults who are in college compared with their peers who are not. Furthermore, the reemergence of a wider national movement for civic engagement and renewal has promoted civic engagement at the university level (Zaff et al., 2009). Consensus about the need to increase civic participation and strengthen democracy has led to universities and colleges playing a leading role in the effort (Evans et al., 2019).

Today, there are several forces pushing campuses toward increased civic engagement. Examples include an effort to deal with increasing criticism of higher education and a renewed call for making academic knowledge relevant (Marullo & Edwards, 2000; Martínez-Cousinou et al., 2021). In this paper we argue that active civic education is one way to increase the civic engagement of students at the college level. In addition, we maintain that the best approach to doing so is to use PjBL.

Problem-Based Learning and Project-Based Learning

Scholars have identified PBL as a pedagogical approach that enables students to learn while engaging actively with meaningful problems (Yew & Goh, 2016; Thorndahl & Stentoft, 2020; Saputro & Sunarno, 2021). The use of PBL promotes the development of their skills, increases their engagement with the material, and improves the quality of learning experiences for both undergraduate and graduate students (Wynn & Okie, 2017; Herold, 2019; Lubna, 2020). For example, Wynn and Okie (2017) found that PBL improved students' exam scores and writing skills, increased their engagement, and improved their collaborative, deliberative, and cognitive skills. Lo (2018) reported that the success of PBL depends on the cultural context and subject matter. Lubna (2020) claimed that more talented students derive greater benefit from PBL. Schmidt et al. (2011) indicated that PBL is an effective teaching method, especially when used over a long period of time.

Scholars have agreed that all varieties of PBL share five basic components: 1) stating the problem, 2) organizing the learning, 3) guiding individuals or groups in investigations, 4) presenting the results, and 5) analyzing and evaluating the learning process (Schmidt et al., 2011; Chesters, 2012; Savery, 2015; Thorndahl & Stentoft, 2020). However, in our study we rely on the concept of PjBL rather than PBL.

PjBL is an active student-centered form of instruction characterized by students' autonomy, constructive investigations, goal setting, collaboration, communication, and reflection using real-world practices (Kokotsaki et al., 2016; Mosier et al., 2016; Chen & Yang, 2019; Virtue & Hinnant-Crawford, 2019; Blevins et al., 2021). Scholars have established positive relationships between the use of PjBL and engagement, 21st-century learning, and the culture of the community and the school (Mosier et al., 2016). A recent study that investigated student perspectives of PjBL across multiple disciplines at the high school level noted that students find value in the "hard work" they engaged in while completing PjBL tasks (Virtue & Hinnant-Crawford, 2019). Umar and Ko (2022) indicated that the use of PjBL emphasizes the practical aspects of learning and makes students more attractive to employers.

The main difference between PjBL and PBL is that, whereas students in PBL are primarily focused on the process of learning, PjBL must produce a product (Kokotsaki et

al., 2016). However, both are open-ended, learner-centered approaches that emphasize students' independence and collaboration to solve a problem or develop a project (Brassler & Dettmers, 2017; Warr & West, 2020).

We chose to use PjBL because it provides students with hands-on opportunities to work with concepts from course materials, discuss their approach in peer groups, and present their work. Furthermore, the goal of PjBL is for the students to first understand a concept and then explain its importance and application to their learning (Johnson et al., 2013; Virtue & Hinnant-Crawford, 2019). Given our focus on active civic education, the implications of the learning for the students' real lives are significant.

Kokotsaki et al. (2016) identified six factors that were key to the successful adoption of a PjBL approach: student support, teacher support, effective group work, didactic instruction balanced with independent inquiry, assessments resulting from self and peer evaluations, and student choice and autonomy throughout the process (Bell, 2010; Drain, 2010; Lam et al., 2010; Crossouard, 2012; Patton, 2012). In addition, they noted that modern digital technology helps students engage with the process of designing and developing their project. They also suggested that the use of a two-phase project-based approach is an effective way to verify that students will be able to complete the entire project. In our use of PjBL to create active civic education, we will include all these elements. Several recent studies used both PBL and PjBL methods (Dole et al., 2017; Saldo & Walag, 2020). Saldo and Walag (2020) sought to develop students' communication and collaboration skills in physics. Their results revealed that both teaching methods produced a significant improvement in these areas.

In addition to PjBL and PBL, scholars have also analyzed the use of problem research-based learning, which combines PBL and research-based learning models (Ahdika, 2017; Putri, 2019; Saputro & Sunarno, 2021). In the research-based learning model, reviews of theory are an essential part that leads to defining a problem, whereas in the PBL model theoretical review does not exist. Thus, the first step in problem research-based learning is to identify the problem using the PBL model and then formulate it using the research-based learning model. We did not use either of these approaches because the theoretical aspects are taught in the classroom as the baseline before beginning PjBL.

Project-Based Learning, Problem-Based Learning and Civic Education

The use of PjBL or PBL in civic education has become more frequent in recent decades (Du et al., 2007; Johnson & Morris, 2010; Larmer, 2018; Du & Chaaban, 2020; Pratiwi & Wuryandani, 2020; Bauml et al., 2021; Blevins et al., 2021;

Martínez-Cousinou et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2021). For example, Du et al. (2007) found that PBL courses on democracy conducted in different parts of the world were more effective than lectures in promoting democratic principles. While PBL proponents are aware that students benefit from studying theoretical subjects, they maintain that PBL promotes democratic traits such as critical thinking, a focus on real-life problems, and communication and collaboration with other students and the community (Larmer, 2018). According to Johnson and Morris (2010), the use of innovative learning models such as PBL can increase students' motivation and their learning outcomes in civic education learning. Pratiwi and Wuryandani (2020), indicated that the use of PBL promoted the students' desire to learn and improved the outcomes of citizenship education. Blevins et al. (2021) reported that using real-life issues of concern to the local community makes civic education more successful.

Martínez-Cousinou et al. (2021) analyzed changes in attitudes towards politics among students after engaging in an educational project including formal education in civics conducted in an open classroom climate and using collaborative learning strategies. Bauml et al. (2021) examined how activities in a week-long summer civics camp influenced young adolescents' thinking about the topic. Their findings revealed four key considerations for promoting civics in young adolescents. One of them was using active civics as a curricular mechanism. Smith et al. (2021) used Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) citizenship typology during a summer civics institute to help students grapple with their understanding of "good" citizenship.

Based on this research, we suggest that active civic studies, as practiced using PjBL, can enhance citizenship, strengthen attitudes towards civic engagement, and promote actual civic engagement. The participatory experience that PjBL provides can strengthen the participants' sense of belonging to the community and enhance their sense of empowerment and personal development. This experience can motivate further engagement in society, especially among young adults who are no longer in the formal K-12 educational system (Kiwan, 2008; Bekerman & Zembylas, 2017).

In this research, we assessed the level of civic engagement in terms of increased knowledge about and awareness of civic life, more discussion about civics, and improvement in the relevant analytical skills (Niemi et al., 2000; Adler & Goggin, 2005; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020). Thus, we posit that H1: Active civic academic studies using PjBL will affect students' attitudes towards civic engagement and their level of actual civic engagement. To assess the success of PjBL vs. direct instruction with lectures, we measured the level of the students' knowledge and awareness about civics issues, their debating skills, and their ability to engage in civic life.

Cultural Diversity in Israel

Cultural diversity has become a major issue due to its effect on individuals and national policy. Bird et al. (2010) indicated that most countries in Europe became increasingly diverse between 1945 and 1973, when mass industrialization and decolonization brought growing numbers of foreign workers to their shores. Heath et al. (2013) described the remarkable changes in Britain over the last 50 years that transformed the country into a diverse, multi-ethnic society. Israel, since its establishment, has always been a diverse, multi-ethnic society within the framework of a Jewish and democratic state (Ben-Porat & Turner, 2011; Enos & Gidron, 2016; Zeedan, 2019; Jamal, 2020).

Cultural diversity includes many types of differences among people based on ethnicity, religion, gender, race, historical origins, sexual preference, socio-economic status, and educational background. It is important to note that diversity per se is not the problem but the majority's approach to minorities because of the variances can be a problem. Furthermore, this approach changes over the years. For example, a recent study indicated that LGBTI interests are increasingly visible on the political agenda in Germany (Schotel, 2022).

Located in the Middle East, Israel is unique in that it is a democracy surrounded by non-democratic countries. Furthermore, it is a multi-ethnic society characterized by unusual ethnic diversity. Whereas the largest ethnic split is between Jews and Arabs, ethnic differences among Jews from different regions of the world are quite substantial. Arab citizens also vary in religion and consist of Muslims, Christians, and Druze. Israel has long been viewed as the prototype of an immigrant society, having the highest proportion of foreign-born citizens of any country. Among the Jews, there is an ethnic divide between two major geo-cultural groups: Jews of European or North American origin (Ashkenazim) and Jews of Asian or North African origin (Mizrachim).

In recent decades, an additional distinct group of citizens has come to Israel: Jewish immigrants from the former Soviet Union. By the end of the last century, Russian immigrants constituted almost 20% of the Jewish population of Israel. Additional differences within the Jewish groups in Israel relate to religiosity. In Israel, the Jewish religious dimension is a continuum, with traditional and Orthodox Jews situated in between the secular and ultra-Orthodox poles.

How does Israel manage the challenges of its cultural diversity? First, it is important to note that primary and secondary schools in Israel are separated into Jewish secular, Jewish religious, Jewish ultra-Orthodox religious and Arab schools. The curricular goals for Arab schools are aimed at creating loyal Arab citizens and instilling an understanding of the need for a Jewish state (Lemish, 2003; Agbaria, 2015; Erdreich, 2015). The Ministry of Education provides the textbooks for citizenship education. The main subjects taught are the interrelationship between the nationalistic ethos and the values of democracy and a political science approach to citizenship education. The curriculum, textbooks and matriculation examination in the subject are all identical in the Jewish and non-Jewish schools. Second, there are gaps between being Jewish and being Israeli, and the way these identities relate to the state and its citizenship demonstrates these gaps. Third, Jewish immigrants from the former Soviet Union and Ethiopia have not always integrated well into general Israeli society, despite the homogenizing model of citizenship that Israel has adopted (Ben-Porat & Turner, 2011). The homogeneity is about being a Jewish state for the Jewish people worldwide. Hence, Shafir and Peled (2002) argued that some Arab citizens have become genuinely interested in articulating their cultural and minority rights as counter publics within the Israeli state and urged Jewish intellectuals to respond to such demands and enter a dialogue. Based on the literature, we posit that H2: Jewish and non-Jewish students will differ in their attitudes towards civic engagement.

Educational institutions have responded to the challenge of the multicultural society by revising their curricula to be more culturally responsive to students from different racial, ethnic, cultural, religious and language groups (Banks, 2014; Lin & Jackson, 2019; Sabzalian, 2019; Duffy et al., 2022). Sabzalian (2019) indicated that studies about indigenous people complicate existing notions of citizenship education; thus, she advocated for citizenship education that explicitly counters colonialism and supports the sovereignty of indigenous people. Banks (2014) argued that citizenship and civic education should be expanded to include cultural rights for citizens from diverse racial, cultural, ethnic, and language groups. Furthermore, he contended that effective and transformative citizenship education helps students acquire the knowledge, skills, and values needed to function effectively within their cultural community, nation-state, and region and in the global community. We adopted Banks' (2014) approach and investigated the effect of active citizenship education using PjBL in an academic college on attitudes towards civic engagement in a very diverse society.

Method

We tested our hypotheses using information about students' attitudes towards civic engagement using PjBL that we collected from October 2016 to June 2017.

Research Design

Previous studies that adopted the PjBL model collected data in various ways: quasi-experimental pre-tests and post-tests, observations of students' behavior, standardized test scores, in-depth interviews, and questionnaires (e.g., Morales et al., 2013; Kokotsaki et al., 2016; Virtue & Hinnant-Crawford, 2019; Almulla, 2020; Du & Chaaban, 2020). We used mainly a qualitative research method with several sources in order to obtain a comprehensive picture about the effect of active civic education on students' attitudes and civic engagement. Thus, our measures included an open-ended questionnaire (as a post-test), students' reports about the project, and weekly class discussions about their projects. In accordance with the findings of existing research, we used the following components of PjBL: (a) a motivating question, (b) learning goals, (c) collaborations, (d) reflections, (e) resources, (f) learner choices, (g) authenticity, and (h) technology tools (Grant, 2011; Krajcik & Shin, 2014; Larmer et al., 2015).

Participants

The study took place at a public college in Israel. Most of the students, who were both Jewish and non-Jewish, were the first people in their families to attend college. Jewish and non-Jewish citizens usually meet for the first time in college where they encounter the same educational system.

The research began in October 2016 with three classes: one containing first-year students and two containing second-year students. The students were enrolled in courses in political science such as government and politics, and public policy. The topics of the courses included freedom of information as part of their civil rights, transparency and accountability in the political sphere, civic and political participation, and critical thinking.

The students explored a different motivating question in each course. For example, in the public policy course, they examined the components of the budgets of their municipalities. The students were instructed to locate the websites of their municipalities and obtain their detailed budgets, which is required to post by law. Then, the students were asked to formulate three or four questions about specific aspects of the budgets and send them to the treasurers of their municipalities. In the government and politics course, the motivating question asked about government policy and its implementation in a subject chosen by each student. One examples

included the government's policy about car accidents or domestic violence. The students identified the major players in the investigated issue, determined who was accountable for the policy and why there were gaps between the policy and its implementation. In this way, students increased their knowledge and awareness of the subject matter. Furthermore, they improved their debating skills by talking with officials in their municipality or other relevant officials.

In terms of learning goals, the aim of the public policy course was to teach students about their right to transparency and accountability from their respective municipalities and to learn how to deal with a bureaucracy. The learning goals of the government and politics course were encouraging students to be actively engaged in a learning experience about their status as citizens in a democracy, their right to ask questions and their personal ability to act.

Regarding collaboration, the students worked together in teams. In the public policy course, for example, students from the same municipality could work together on the project, but it was not mandatory. Some preferred to work as a team, whereas other preferred to work alone. In the government and politics course, the collaboration mainly involved the relevant actors. For example, one student wanted to understand the municipality's policy regarding the readiness of bomb shelters for emergencies; therefore, she collaborated with the people in the municipality who were in charge of the shelters.

The first 10-15 minutes of each class in the public policy course were dedicated to student reflections, in which we asked the students to share their experiences. Did they find the relevant website? If not, how were they going to obtain the budget from the municipality? After they completed the project, we asked them about their interaction with the treasurer. Did he or she respond quickly? Were the answers detailed? We engaged in similar reflections with the students in the government and politics course, particularly regarding the subject they chose, their search for information, the key players involved, and the actions they decided to pursue.

For resources, the students were permitted to ask their professors questions throughout the project. In terms of their choices, the students were allowed to select a particular municipality and people like civic leaders to approach and decide how often they wanted to engage with them. In the government and politics course, the students were asked to choose a subject that was important to them, which fostered authenticity. For example, one of the female students asked about the government's policy regarding violence against women. Another female student explored the representation of women in higher positions in politics.

Finally, the students used several technology tools to collect their data. First, they gathered information from official websites. Second, they emailed the relevant people to get answers to their questions and followed up with phone calls when they received no response. Third, the students interviewed some of the key players who were relevant to their project.

At the end of the projects in both courses, the students submitted a written report that required them to develop a perspective on the issue (if they did not have one already) and examine the entire process of the project through critical thinking. The project encouraged the students to be active, to understand their rights, to fight for their rights, and to consolidate their own personal perspectives.

Data Analysis

We gathered data from several qualitative and quantitative sources. First, we conducted weekly class discussions with the students in which they reflected on their projects. Each weekly class discussion was documented, and its content was analyzed. The second source of information was the students' reports. In both courses, the students wrote reports about the entire process including their personal attitudes towards the subjects they explored and their personal thoughts about their experiences during the process. The third source was the content analysis we conducted of the students' weekly reflections, the answers to the open-ended questionnaire completed by the students during the last class, and the students' reports.

We conducted a content analysis that was based on grounded theory, which served as the underlying framework for open coding and axial coding (Saldaña, 2016). The process involves interpreting the codes, categories, and properties developed in open coding to refine the constructs and make them more abstract and theoretical (Bernard et al., 2016; Elliott, 2018). The first step of the content analysis was to identify the themes that emerged from the answers in all sources of information. The main emerging themes were knowledge, persistence, ability to succeed, awareness, ability to make a difference in Israeli society, accountability, transparency, civic rights, and critical thinking. To validate the themes, another research assistant examined the sources of information separately. The research coordinator compared the outputs of the two research assistants. She looked at the themes identified in previous studies on measuring the effect of active civic education (such as more knowledge, greater awareness, better debating skills, and improved skills for engaging in civic life). The research coordinator then created the final set of themes.

We used two quantitative approaches to data analysis as well. First, we calculated the frequency with which the various themes appeared in the open-ended questionnaire. The questions, based on questionnaires used in other studies, asked about the students' experiences and the likelihood of their civic involvement in the future. Second, we quantified the answers to the open-ended questionnaire in order to conduct a statistical analysis. We first created the descriptive statistics of the various categories of the students' answers and then conducted a chi-squared analysis to determine the differences between the Jewish and non-Jewish students.

Results and Discussion

To analyze the results of this study, we begin with a look at the heterogeneity of the students in the three courses that were part of the research. Then, we test the first research hypothesis using material from the qualitative analysis. Finally, we test the second research hypothesis using the data from the quantitative analysis.

Characteristics of the Students

One hundred six second-year students took the two public policy courses, and 32 first-year students participated in the course on government and policy. The public policy courses were predominantly female (78% female, 22% male) and Muslim. Even though the same was true of the government and politics course, the gap between men and women was smaller (57% female, 43% male). Similarly, while most of the students in the classes were Muslim, the gap between the Muslims and Jews was smaller in the government and politics course.

Active Civic Education and Attitudes Toward Civic Engagement

The first research hypothesis posited that active civic academic studies using PjBL would affect students' attitudes towards civic engagement and their level of actual civic engagement. We maintained that having greater knowledge, greater awareness, more discussion, and developed skills in this area would be indicators of increased civic engagement. The content analysis we conducted yielded eight themes: increased knowledge and awareness, persistence, ability to succeed, ability to make a difference in Israeli society, accountability, transparency, civic rights, and critical thinking.

Increased knowledge and awareness

The most significant insight the students noted was that they learned about information they did not know previously. In the comments section on the questionnaire, the students made statements such as, "I have learned about my rights; it makes me feel obligated to my community," and "I have learned about my village and where they invest the money." Knowledge is a prerequisite for civic engagement. In order to decide whether and how to become involved, one must first have some knowledge about the relevant subject.

The questionnaire asked the students whether they learned about new subjects in general. It also contained a more specific question about whether the project had given them more knowledge and awareness of the concept of civic engagement. In the public policy courses, 97.6% learned new subjects and 90.7% gained more knowledge and awareness of the concept of civic engagement. In the government and politics course, 90.9% learned new subjects and 90.9% gained more knowledge about the concept of civic engagement. As previous studies have noted, civic engagement first requires greater knowledge, which will then lead to more discussion, the development of skills, and greater efficacy (Niemi et al., 2000; Adler & Goggin, 2005; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020).

Persistence

The main difference between the two courses was about the issue of persistence and the demand for answers. In the public policy course, 26.7% of the students indicated that these issues played a role in their search for information, while in the government and politics course, the number was 50%. In the comments section of the questionnaire, the students made the following observations: "It was hard to nag for answers. I felt that the treasurer disregarded me," And "I did not know that it is possible to address politicians."

Both courses demonstrated similar percentages regarding the other indicators of civic engagement. In both courses, we encouraged the students to choose subjects that were relevant to their real lives. We felt that this approach would make them feel more invested in the project and be persistent in their demand for answers. Thus, the findings accord with recent studies indicating that using real issues that students value makes civic education more successful (Larmer, 2018; Blevins et al., 2021). Furthermore, the students valued the "hard work" they had to invest in completing the PjBL tasks (Virtue & Hinnant-Crawford, 2019).

Ability to Succeed

Four attitudes emerged during the weekly discussion groups. First, most of the students were initially skeptical about their ability to succeed in the project, because it was their first time addressing a formal authority and asking for a reply. Second, the success stories of other students encouraged and empowered them to continue pursuing answers. As previous studies have noted, participatory experience empowers students and may motivate them to engage more in society (Kiwan, 2008; Banks, 2014). Third, they understood the connection between the political agenda as a goal and the budget as the means of accomplishing it. Fourth, the students started to believe in their ability to make a difference in Israeli society. They began to develop the common sense of belonging that Modood (2007) identified as critical in creating stable and long-lasting multicultural societies. In the comments section of the questionnaire, the students wrote, "When I see a neglected playground, I am not ashamed to write to the municipality," and "It is important that we be accountable and make changes." These comments are evidence of the students' recognition of their empowerment and their personal development as individuals who realize that they can make a difference in the general society (Benton et al., 2008; Kiwan, 2008; Heggart et al., 2019; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020).

Accountability, Transparency, Civic Rights, and Critical Thinking

The weekly discussion groups enabled us to create an open dialogue about accountability, transparency, civic rights, critical thinking, active citizenship and the students' progress in the project. For most students, the project was the first occasion in which they had studied the meaning of accountability and transparency in public life from a theoretical perspective. Through their projects, they were able to put these concepts into practice. Thus, they had a participatory experience that provided them with a sense of empowerment and promoted their personal development (Bekerman & Zembylas, 2017; Kennedy, 2019). The findings accord with previous studies emphasizing the characteristics and features that emerge when students are viewed as individuals and citizens whose identities are plural, intersecting, and in constant formation (Galinsky et al., 2015; Jansen et al., 2015).

Jewish and non-Jewish Students' Attitudes Toward Civic Engagement

The second research hypothesis posited that Jewish and non-Jewish students would differ in their attitudes towards civic engagement. Given that Israeli Jews and non-Jews go to separate elementary and secondary schools, we explored whether there were differences between the two national groups in their attitudes towards civic engagement they gained from the courses. We conducted a chi-squared test for each attitude and nationality. Only one answer was significant in the public and policy courses (but none in the government and politics course): persistence and the demand

for answers ($\chi2$=4.2, sig=0.043). Jewish students were much more insistent than non-Jewish students on getting answers to their questions. However, looking beyond the significant statistics, non-Jewish students scored higher in terms of improving their self-confidence, responsibility for solving problems, the entitlement to rights and the will to accomplish the goal.

The differences in the learning processes of Jewish and non-Jewish students during their years in primary and secondary school are minimized when they study together in universities and colleges. Nevertheless, as the research findings demonstrated, the educational process needs to be active rather than passive. The weekly discussions within each class enabled the students (both Jewish and non-Jewish) to speak up, to hear others and to be heard by others—even though we are aware that social desirability becomes more salient in diverse classrooms. Nevertheless, these discussions are important, because (as scholars have noted) civic education in divided societies plays an even more significant role in the development of democratic values, attitudes, and skills (Niens & Chastenay, 2008; McMurray & Niens, 2012; Goren & Yemini, 2018).

The students were asked whether they would engage in civic life in the future. In the public policy courses, 70.7% answered yes and 29.3% answered no or maybe. In the government and politics course, 90.9% answered yes and 9.1% answered no.

We conducted a chi-squared test between the likelihood of participating in civic engagement in the future and nationality. In the public policy course, non-Jewish students were more willing to participate than Jewish students ($\chi2$=4.865, sig=0.029) based on the process they experienced during the practical project. In the government and politics course, there was no significant difference between the non-Jewish and Jewish students. Both groups were willing to participate in civic life in the future, which again strengthens the argument that civic education (we would argue, active civic education) in divided societies develops attitudes and skills that promote participation in civic life (McMurray & Niens, 2012; Duffy et al., 2022). Furthermore, a participatory experience provides young people with a sense of belonging to the community and a sense of empowerment. Their involvement also enhances their personal development, which may promote further engagement in society (Bekerman & Zembylas, 2017; Brodie-McKenzie, 2020).

Summary and Conclusions

The study demonstrates the differences in the impact of active civic education using PjBL on Jewish and non-Jewish college students and illustrates how the two groups assess the role of civic engagement in political and social life in Israel. We also show the differences in attitudes of the two groups regarding the impact of these forms of civic engagements on society. Our main conclusion is that active civic education using PjBL has an impact on non-Jewish college students' engagement in civic activity.

The study is among the few that have investigated the impact of civic education using a PjBL approach at the college level rather than the primary or secondary school level. Many scholars contend that this season in the lives of young people is when they are more receptive to citizenship initiatives.

This study also sheds light on the issue of attitudes towards civic engagement by using Israel as a case study. Israel is an appropriate subject for understanding the limitations of civic and citizenship education that seeks to advance democratic values—such as human rights, liberty, justice, tolerance, civility, coexistence, and pluralism—in deeply conflicted societies in which there is a large majority and minority.

Another theoretical contribution of this study is the expansion of the knowledge about minorities in Israeli society. We found that non-Jewish college students have different attitudes towards civic engagement than Jewish students. The latter learned more from the project about persistence and the demand for answers. As part of an active civic education, the students increased their knowledge and awareness about civic engagement; however, it was the non-Jewish students who emphasized the value of this lesson. Through active civic education, the non-Jewish students came to understand the concepts of accountability, transparency, civil and human rights, and the ability of individuals in a democracy to make their voices heard. Most of all, these students learned about their obligation to their communities, their ability to influence them, and the fact that they are a significant part of Israeli society. As citizens, students must act in order to exercise these rights to improve their life in Israeli society. Furthermore, since most of the students were female, part of the discussions revolved around their lives in both a traditional, religious Arab society and a Western democracy, such as Israel.

In addition to the theoretical implications, the study also demonstrates the role of active civic education using the PjBL approach in promoting civic engagement in a diverse society. Hence, the first practical implication of the study is to increase the number of academic courses in citizenship on the college level that use PjBL. Such actions accord with the AIM (all-inclusive multiculturalism) model for creating inclusive societies (Celeste et.al 2019; Rios 2022). The second practical implication is that colleges must acknowledge the diversity of their enrollment and respond to it accordingly. The third implication of the study is about the curriculum of

active civic education courses. We should encourage active learning by increasing the number of practical activities in university courses in general and in those courses particularly related to citizenship. The fourth implication is the need to strengthen the components of civic education among non-Jewish citizens in Israel in colleges and universities, as well as in elementary, middle, and high schools.

Future studies should expand the research model in other academic institutions in Israel and in other heterogeneous societies such as Northern Ireland or Quebec, Canada. Furthermore, expanding the content of active civic education both theoretically and empirically should provide additional insights.

References

Adler, R. P., & Goggin, J. (2005). What do we mean by "civic engagement"? Journal of Transformative Education, 3(3):236–253.

Agbaria, A. K. (2015). Arab civil society and education in Israel: the Arab Pedagogical Council as a contentious performance to achieve national recognition. Race Ethnicity and Education, 18(5), 675-695.

Agbaria, A. K., Mustafa, M., & Mahajnah, S. (2021). On Secular and Religious Politics of Belonging. In Mayseless, O., and Russo-Netzer, P. (Eds.). Finding Meaning: An Existential Quest in Post-Modern Israel. Oxford University Press. 254-274

Ahdika, A. (2017). Improvement of quality, interest, critical, and analytical thinking ability of students through the application of research based learning (RBL) in introduction to stochastic processes subject. International Electronic Journal of Mathematics Education, 12(2), 167-191.

Almulla, M. A. (2020). The effectiveness of the project-based learning (PBL) approach as a way to engage students in learning. Sage Open, 10(3), 2158244020938702.

Amnå, E. (2012). How is civic engagement developed over time? Emerging answers from a multidisciplinary field. Journal of Adolescence, 35(3):611-627. DOI: 10.1016/j.adolescence.2012.04.011

Balogun, I. N. & Yusuf A. (2019). Teaching Civic Education to Learners through Best Practices, Anatolian Journal of Education .4(1):39-48.

Banks, J. A. (2014). Diversity, group identity, and citizenship education in a global age. Journal of Education, 194(3), 1-12.

Bauml, M., Quinn, B. P., Blevins, B., Magill, K. R., & LeCompte, K. (2021). "I Really Want to Do Something": How Civic Education Activities Promote Thinking Toward Civic Purpose Among Early Adolescents. Journal of Adolescent Research, 07435584211006785.

Bekerman, Z., & Zembylas, M. (2017). Engaging with religious epistemologies in the classroom: Implications for civic education. Research in Comparative and International Education, 12(1):127-139. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745499917698311

Bell, S. (2010). Project-based learning for the 21st century: Skills for the future. The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas, 83, 39–43.

Ben-Porat, G., & Turner, B. S. (Eds.). (2011). The contradictions of Israeli citizenship: land, religion and state. Taylor & Francis.

Benton, T., Cleaver, E., Featherstone, G., Kerr, D., Lopes, J., & Whitby, K. (2008). Study (CELS): Sixth Annual Report. Young People's Civic Participation in and Beyond School: Attitudes, Intentions and Influences. London: National Foundation for Educational Research.

Bernard, H. R., Wutich, A., & Ryan, G. W. (2016). Analyzing qualitative data: Systematic approaches. SAGE publications.

Bird, K., Saalfeld, T., & Wüst, A. M. (Eds.). (2010). The political representation of immigrants and minorities: Voters, parties and parliaments in liberal democracies (Vol. 70). Routledge.

Blevins, B., LeCompte, K. N., Riggers-Piehl, T., Scholten, N., & Magill, K. R. (2021). The Impact of an Action Civics Program on the Community & Political Engagement of Youth. The Social Studies, 112(3), 146-160.

Brassler, M., & Dettmers, J. (2017). How to enhance interdisciplinary

competence—Interdisciplinary problem-based learning versus interdisciplinary project-based learning. Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning,

11(2), 12.

Brodie-McKenzie, A. (2020). Empowering students as citizens: Subjectification and civic knowledge in civics and citizenship education. Journal of Applied Youth Studies, 3(3), 209-222.

Celeste, L., Baysu, G., Phalet, K., Meeussen, L., & Kende, J. (2019). Can school diversity policies reduce belonging and achievement gaps between minority and majority youth? Multiculturalism, colorblindness, and assimilationism assessed. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 45(11), 1603-1618.

Chen, C. H., & Yang, Y. C. (2019). Revisiting the effects of project-based learning on students' academic achievement: A meta-analysis investigating moderators. Educational Research Review, 26, 71-81.

Chesters, S. D. (2012). The Socratic Classroom. Springer Science & Business Media.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. L. (2015) Basics of qualitative research techniques and procedures for developing

Grounded Theory (4th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE

Crossouard, B. (2012). Absent presences: The recognition of social class and gender dimensions within peer assessment interactions. British Educational Research Journal, 38, 731–748.

Dole, S., Bloom, L., & Doss, K. K. (2017). Engaged learning: Impact of problem-based learning and project-based learning with elementary and middle grade students. Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 11(2), 9.

Drain, M. (2010). Justification of the dual-phase project-based pedagogical approach in a primary school technology unit. Design and Technology Education, 15, 7–14.

Du, X., & Chaaban, Y. (2020). Teachers' Readiness for a Statewide Change to project-based learning in Primary Education in Qatar. Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 14(1), n1.

Du, X., Stentoft, D., & Dahms, M. L. (2007). Power, democracy and problem-based learning. In International Problem-Based Learning Symposium, 7-9 March 2007 (pp. 271-284). Centre for Educational Development, Republic Polytechnic, Singapore.

Duffy, G., Gallagher, T., & Robinson, G. (2022). Teaching History and Citizenship in Schools in Northern Ireland. In Activist Pedagogy and Shared Education in Divided Societies (pp. 253-270). Brill.

Elliott, V. (2018). Thinking about the coding process in qualitative data analysis. The Qualitative Report, 23(11), 2850-2861.

Enos, R. D., & Gidron, N. (2016). Intergroup behavioral strategies as contextually determined: Experimental evidence from Israel. The Journal of Politics, 78(3):851-867.

Erdreich, L. (2015). Sacralized citizenship: women making known selves in an Islamic teachers' college in Israel. International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 28(4):415-436. DOI: 10.1080/09518398.2014.916001

Evans, B. J., Marsicano, C. R., & Lennartz, C. J. (2019). Cracks in the bedrock of American democracy: Differences in civic engagement across institutions of higher education. Educational Researcher, 48(1), 31-44.

Galinsky, A. D., Todd, A. R., Homan, A. C., Phillips, K. W., Apfelbaum, E. P., Sasaki, S. J., ... & Maddux, W. W. (2015). Maximizing the gains and minimizing the pains of diversity: A policy perspective. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 10(6):742-748. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691615598513

Gallagher, T., & Duffy, G. (2016). Education for Citizenship Education and Social Justice in Northern Ireland. In The Palgrave International Handbook of Education for Citizenship and Social Justice (pp. 523-544). Palgrave Macmillan UK.

Goren, H., & Yemini, M. (2018). Obstacles and opportunities for global citizenship education under intractable conflict: The case of Israel. Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 48(3), 397-413.

Grant, M. M. (2011). Learning, beliefs, and products: Students' perspectives with project-based learning. Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 5(2), 6.

Heath, A. F., Fisher, S. D., Rosenblatt, G., Sanders, D., & Sobolewska, M. (2013). The political integration of ethnic minorities in Britain. OUP Oxford.

Heggart, K., Arvanitakis, J., & Matthews, I. (2019). Civics and citizenship education: What have we learned and what does it mean for the future of Australian democracy? Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 14(2), 101-117.

Henderson, D., & Tudball, L. (2017). More than national education: Possibilities for critical participatory learning in the Australian curriculum through civics and citizenship. Curriculum Perspectives, 37(1), 51-61.

Herold, R. T. (2019). Problem Based Learning use in Higher Education: A State University Faculty Study of Pbl (Doctoral dissertation).

Jamal, A. (2020). Reconstructing the civic: Palestinian civil activism in Israel. SUNY Press.

Jansen, W. S., Otten, S., & van der Zee, K. I. (2015). Being part of diversity: The effects of an all-inclusive multicultural diversity approach on majority members' perceived inclusion and support for organizational diversity efforts. Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 18(6):817-832. DOI: 10.1177/1368430214566892

Johnson, D. R., Renzulli, L., Bunch, J., & Paino, M. (2013). Everyday observations developing a sociological perspective through a portfolio term project. Teaching Sociology, 41(3), 314–321.

Johnson, L., & Morris, P. (2010). Towards A Framework For Critical Citizenship Education. The Curriculum Journal, 21(1), 77–96.

Kennedy, K. J. (2019). Civic and citizenship education in volatile times: Preparing students for citizenship in the 21st century. Springer.

Kiwan, D. (2008) Education for Inclusive Citizenship. London and New York: Routledge.

Kokotsaki, D., Menzies, V., & Wiggins, A. (2016). Project-based learning: A review of the literature. Improving Schools, 19(3), 267-277.

Krajcik, J. S., & Shin, N. (2014). Project-based learning. In R. K. Sawyer (Ed.), The Cambridge handbook of the learning sciences (2nd ed., pp. 275–297). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Lam, S.-F., Cheng, R. W.-y., & Choy, H. C. (2010). School support and teacher motivation to implement project-based learning. Learning and Instruction, 20, 487–497.

Larmer, J. (2018). Project-based learning in social studies. Social Education, 82(1): 20-23.

Larmer, J., Mergendoller, J., & Boss, S. (2015). Setting the standard for project based learning. ASCD.

Lemish, P. (2003). Civic and citizenship education in Israel. Cambridge Journal of Education, 33(1):53-72. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764032000064640

Levinson, M. (2012). No citizen left behind. Harvard University Press, Cambridge

Lin, C., & Jackson, L. (2019). Multiculturalism in Chinese history in Hong Kong: constructing Chinese identity. Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 39(2), 209-221.

Lo, J. C. (2018). PBL in social studies classrooms: Teaching high quality and engaging projects. Social Education, 82(1):18-19.

Lubna, L. (2020). Meta-analysis effectiveness of problem based learning model in social sciences. Jurnal Tatsqif, 18(1):22-35.

Marshall, T. H. (1964). Class, citizenship, and social development: Essays
of T. H. Marshall. Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Martínez-Cousinou, G., Álvarez-Sotomayor, A., & Tomé-Alonso, B. (2021). Collaborative learning in politics: creating spaces for political socialization in the classroom. European Political Science, 20(3), 413-426.

Marullo, S., & Edwards, B. (2000). Service-learning pedagogy as universities' response to troubled times. American Behavioral Scientist, 43(5):746-755.
https://doi.org/10.1177/00027640021955568

McMurray, A., & Niens, U. (2012). Building bridging social capital in a divided society: The role of participatory citizenship education. Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 7(2):207-221.
https://doi.org/10.1177/1746197912440859

Modood, T. (2007). Multiculturalism. The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Sociology, 1-4.

Morales, T. M., Bang, E., & Andre, T. (2013). A one-year case study: Understanding the rich potential of project-based learning in a virtual reality class for high school students. Journal of Science Education and Technology, 22, 791–806.

Mosier, G. G., Bradley-Levine, J., & Perkins, T. (2016). Students' perceptions of project-based learning within the New Tech school model. International Journal of Educational Reform, 25(1), 2-15.

Niemi, R. G., Hepburn, M. A., & Chapman, C. (2000). Community service by high school students: a cure for civic ills? Political Behavior, 22(1):45–69. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006690417623

Niens, U., & Chastenay, M. H. (2008). Educating for peace? Citizenship education in Quebec and Northern Ireland. Comparative Education Review, 52(4):519-540. https://doi.org/10.1086/591296

Papworth, H. S. (2020). Does Teaching Civics Increase Active Citizenship? A Comparison of Civic Education for Secondary School Students in Ethiopia and in Wales. Northeast African Studies, 20(1-2), 117-136.

Patton, M. (2012). Work that matters: The teacher's guide to project-based learning. London: Paul Hamlyn Foundation.

Peled, Y. (2013). The challenge of ethnic democracy: The state and minority groups in Israel, Poland and Northern Ireland. Routledge.

Pratiwi, V. D., & Wuryandani, W. (2020). Effect of Problem Based Learning (PBL) Models on Motivation and Learning Outcomes in Learning Civic Education. JPI (Jurnal Pendidikan Indonesia), 9(3), 401-412.

Putri, M. R. (2019). The Implementation of Research-based Teaching Method in the English for Academic Writing Course. Acitya: Journal of Teaching and Education, 1(2), 88-99.

Rios, K. (2022). Multiculturalism and colorblindness as threats to the self: A framework for understanding dominant and non-dominant group members' responses to interethnic ideologies. Personality and Social Psychology Review, 26(4), 315-341.

Sabbagh, C., & Resh, N. (2014). Citizenship orientations in a divided society: A comparison of three groups of Israeli junior-high students—secular Jews, religious Jews, and Israeli Arabs. Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 9(1):34-54. https://doi.org/10.1177/1746197913497662

Sabzalian, L. (2019). The tensions between Indigenous sovereignty and multicultural citizenship education: Toward an anticolonial approach to civic education. Theory & Research in Social Education, 47(3), 311-346.

Saldaña, J. (2016). The coding manual for qualitative researchers. London, UK: SAGE.

Saldo, I. J. P., & Walag, A. M. P. (2020). Utilizing problem-based and project-based learning in developing students' communication and collaboration skills in physics. American Journal of Educational Research, 8(5), 232-237.

Sanchez-Jankowski, M. (2002). Minority youth and civic engagement: The impact of group relations. Applied Developmental Science, 6(4):237-245. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532480XADS0604_11

Saputro, S., & Sunarno, W. (2021, March). The Conceptual Framework for Problem and Research-Based Learning (PRBL) Model in Learning The Natural Sciences to Empower Students' Analytical Thinking Skills. In Journal of Physics: Conference Series (Vol. 1842, No. 1, p. 012051). IOP Publishing.

Savery, J. (2015). Overview of problem-based learning: Definitions and distinctions. In A. Walker, H. Leary, C.

Hmelo-Silver, & P. Ertmer (Eds.), Essential readings in problem-based learning: Exploring and extending the legacy of Howard S. Barrows (pp. 5-15). West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University Press.

Schmidt, H. G., Rotgans, J. I., & Yew, E. H. (2011). The process of problem-based learning: what works and why. Medical Education, 45(8), 792-806.

Schotel, A. L. (2022). A Rainbow Bundestag? An Intersectional Analysis of LGBTI Representation in Angela Merkel's Germany. German Politics, 31(1), 101-118.

Shafir, G., & Peled, Y. (2002). Being Israeli. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Smith, V. D., Magill, K. R., Blevins, B., & Scholten, N. (2021). Sorting through citizenship: A case study on using cognitive scaffolding to unpack adolescent civic identity formation. The Journal of Social Studies Research.

Thorndahl, K. L., & Stentoft, D. (2020). Thinking critically about critical thinking and problem-based learning in higher education: A scoping review. Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 14(1).

Torney-Purta, J. (2002). The school's role in developing civic engagement: A study of adolescents in twenty-eight countries. Applied Developmental Science, 6(4):203-212. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532480XADS0604_7

Umar, M., & Ko, I. (2022). E-Learning: Direct Effect of Student Learning Effectiveness and Engagement through Project-Based Learning, Team Cohesion, and Flipped Learning during the COVID-19 Pandemic. Sustainability, 14(3), 1724.

Virtue, E. E., & Hinnant-Crawford, B. N. (2019). We're doing things that are meaningful: Student Perspectives of Project-based Learning Across the Disciplines. Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 13(2).

Warr, M., & West, R. E. (2020). Bridging academic disciplines with interdisciplinary project-based learning: Challenges and opportunities. Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 14(1).

Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. American Educational Research Journal, 41(2), 237e269

Wynn, C.T., Sr., & Okie, W. (2017). Problem-Based Learning and the Training of Secondary Social Studies Teachers: A Case Study of Candidate Perceptions during Their Field Experience. International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 11(2):n2. https://doi.org/10.20429/ijsotl.2017.110216

Yew, E. H., & Goh, K. (2016). Problem-based learning: An overview of its process and impact on learning. Health Professions Education, 2(2), 75-79.

Zaff, J. F., Youniss, J., and Gibson, C. M. (2009). An inequitable invitation to citizenship: Non-college bound youth and civic engagement. Washington, DC: Philanthropy for Active Civic Engagement.

Zeedan, R. (2019). Arab-Palestinian Society in the Israeli Political System: Integration Versus Segregation in the Twenty-first Century. Rowman & Littlefield.

Author Bio

Osnat Akirav is an associate professor in Political Science at the Western Galilee College, Israel, the head of the department of political science and the head of the research Galilee institute at the Western Galilee College. She holds a PhD from the Hebrew University in Jerusalem. Her specialization is in legislative studies, setting the agenda, candidate selection methods, local government, gender and politics, minorities and politics, research methods and Israeli political system. She has numerous publications on the representative behavior in local government and in parliaments. She served 10 years as local council representative. In 2010 and in 2015 she received a prize for outstanding teaching in political science from the American Political Science Association and in 2012 she received Edmond Safra award for outstanding achievement and excellence. In 2012 and 2016 she received a prize for best article from the Israeli Political Science Association. In 2015, 2018, 2019 and 2020 she received a prize for excellent researcher from the Western Galilee College.