Initial Findings from the IEA International Civic and Citizenship Education Study

Wolfram Schulz
John Ainley
Julian Fraillon
David Kerr
Bruno Losito

Initial Findings from the IEA International Civic and Citizenship Education Study

Wolfram Schulz
John Ainley
Julian Fraillon
David Kerr
Bruno Losito

ROMA TRE UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI Università degli Studi Roma Tre
Laboratorio di Pedagogia sperimentale

ISBN/EAN: 978-90-79549-06-1

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 a project of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), an international organization which, for over 50 years, has conducted international comparative studies on educational achievement and reported on key aspects of education systems and processes.

In 1971, the IEA conducted its first study of civic and citizenship education in nine countries. Eighteen years later, in 1999, the association conducted a second such study with 28 countries. The first study showed that not all countries approached teaching civic-related values in a formal way, and it provided inconclusive data about the impact of schooling on students' civic knowledge and civic attitudes. The results of the second study, however, clarified the role of school in preparing young people for their roles as citizens. The results highlighted the rich array of experiences in schools that can be considered important in this respect, including those associated with an open climate for discussion and expression in the classroom. The second civic education study also showed differences between student outcomes that can be attributed to factors beyond school. 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.

The 2009 IEA study of civic and citizenship education (ICCS), conducted in 38 countries around the world, built on the previous IEA studies of civic education, but took place in a context characterized by significant societal change, including the rapid development of new communication technologies, increased movement of people between countries, and the growth of supranational organizations. The data gathered from more than 140,000 students and 62,000 teachers in over 5,300 schools during the course of the study offers information that countries and education systems worldwide can use to inform and improve policy and practice in civic and citizenship education.

This report of the initial findings is the first in a series of publications presenting the study outcomes. The next report will draw on a wider range of data than that presented in this present publication, and it will provide more extensive analyses of student knowledge and attitudes in relation to characteristics of teachers, schools, and communities. It will be followed by three regional reports for Asia, Europe, and Latin America. These 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, and a technical report documenting procedures and providing evidence of the high quality of the data that were collected. IEA will also make available an international database that the broader research community can use for secondary analysis.

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, on behalf of IEA, thanks 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.

Special thanks also go to the members of the Project Advisory Committee for their assistance and expertise, and to the reviewers of this report, particularly Judith Torney-Purta (University of Maryland), the leader of two previous IEA civic education studies, Christian Monseur (University of Liège), and John Creswell (ACER). The IEA Publication and Editorial Committee provided helpful suggestions for improvement of earlier versions of the report, and Paula Wagemaker edited the document.

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

Finally, I would like to thank the study's funders. A project of this size requires 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, the Inter-American Development Bank through SREDECC (The Regional System for the Evaluation and Development of Citizenship Competencies), and the ministries of education and many other organizations in the participating countries.

Dr Hans Wagemaker
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, IEA

Contents

List of Tables and Figures

Tables

Figures

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. It investigated 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.

ICCS considered six research questions concerned with the following:

1. Variations in civic knowledge;
2. Changes in content knowledge since 1999;
3. Student 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 student background related to the outcomes of civic and citizenship education.

ICCS gathered data from more than 140,000 Grade 8 (or equivalent) students in over 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.

Different approaches to provision of civic and citizenship education were evident in the ICCS countries. These approaches included having a specific subject, integrating relevant content into other subjects, and including content as a cross-curricular theme. Twenty-one of the 38 countries in ICCS included a specific subject concerned with civic and citizenship education in their curriculum. Civic and citizenship education covered a wide range of topics, including 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.

Variations in civic knowledge

Civic knowledge is broadly defined in ICCS. It encompasses not only understanding but also what might be more conventionally thought of as knowing facts. Civic knowledge is therefore concerned with knowing about and understanding the elements and concepts of both citizenship and traditional civics.

The ICCS assessment of civic knowledge is based on a 79-item test that covers content concerned with civic society and systems, civic principles, civic participation, and civic identities. The majority of the test items (75%) require students to exercise reasoning and analysis when considering matters associated with civics and citizenship; the remaining items draw on student knowledge about civics and citizenship.

The study revealed considerable variation across and within participating countries in civic knowledge. On a scale with a standard deviation of 100 points, the difference between the top and bottom quartiles of the country distribution was 60 points. In the four highest-performing countries, more than half of the students were at the highest of three proficiency levels. In the four lowest-performing countries, more than 70 percent of student scores were in the lowest three proficiency levels. Girls gained significantly higher civic knowledge scores than did boys in nearly all of the ICCS countries.

Civic knowledge was associated with students' characteristics and family background. The aspect of family background most strongly and consistently associated with civic knowledge was parental occupational status, which is often used as an indicator of socioeconomic status. However, the strength of this association varied considerably across countries. In some countries, there was relatively little difference in the civic knowledge scores of those students whose parents had high-status occupations and those students whose parents had low-status occupations. In other countries, the difference associated with parental occupational status was considerably larger. Associations between civic knowledge and parental interest in social and political issues and immigrant background also emerged from the data. These relationships were relatively weak, however.

In 1999, IEA conducted a study of civic education, called CIVED. Because the ICCS assessment contains some of the items used in CIVED, it was possible to obtain, for 15 of the countries participating in ICCS, estimates of civic content knowledge scores from both studies and to compare them. The comparison suggested, for seven of the 15 countries, a significant decline in students' civic content knowledge across the 10 years. A significant increase occurred in only one country. It is not yet possible to offer an explanation for this decline, but it is important to recognize that civic content knowledge is just one aspect of civic and citizenship education.

Student 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 assessment of perceptions and behaviors as it allocated to assessment of civic knowledge.

ICCS provided a number of interesting findings about how students think about civic society and how they engage in it. Trust in civic institutions varied across the ICCS countries. The least trusted institution was political parties. In many countries, students did not express a preference for a particular political party. However, both trust and support for political parties varied noticeably. In some countries, political parties attracted higher levels of trust or support; in other countries, only small minorities of students expressed trust in these institutions or stated a preference for one of them.

Similar to the situation in CIVED, the students participating in ICCS endorsed gender equality, although the strength of this endorsement varied across countries. As in CIVED, the results from ICCS showed that, in all countries, female students gave significantly more support to gender equality than did male students.

Student interest in political and social issues was most evident in regard to domestic political and social issues and least evident in regard 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 little affected by immigrant background or socioeconomic background (measured through parental occupational status), but was associated with students' reports of parental interest in those issues. While understanding of how interactions in homes shape student interest remains limited, this association appears to be independent of influences emanating from socioeconomic background.

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

Classrooms, schools, and communities

ICCS used surveys of students, teachers, and school principals to study school and community contexts. The surveys focused on factors relevant to learning about civic and citizenship education. These factors included how schools implement civic and citizenship education in their classes, how they view the aims of this type of education, how they make links to the local community, and how open their classroom climates are to discussions about political and social issues.

Although the schools participating in ICCS adopted different approaches to teaching civic and citizenship education, these approaches often had little connection to how the schools defined civic and citizenship education. Generally, only minorities of students in the target grade were attending schools where principals reported no specific provision for civic and citizenship education.

Most teachers regarded the development of knowledge and skills as the most important aim of civic and citizenship education. For teachers, 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."

In all countries, teachers rarely named "development of active participation" as an important objective of civic and citizenship education. However, it needs to be remembered that the ICCS teacher sample consisted of teachers teaching across different subject areas. According to the teachers, student participation in civic-related activities is relatively widespread but its focus is sports events and cultural activities. Only minorities of teachers reported student involvement in human rights projects or activities to help the underprivileged.

For the future

This report on the initial findings from ICCS provides some important insights about civic and citizenship education. Because the analyses presented here are based on data from 38 countries, the patterns they reveal might not be evident in the more constrained context of single countries. Subsequent analyses will investigate in greater detail the relationships between civic knowledge and attitudes to aspects of civics and citizenship and the relationships among outcomes of and approaches to civic and citizenship education and characteristics of students and their societies. These analyses will also use a wider range of the collected data and include more comprehensive multivariate analyses of factors that have the potential to explain central outcome variables.

1. Introduction

Purpose

The development of knowledge, understanding, skills, and dispositions that prepare young people to comprehend the world, hold productive employment, and be informed active citizens are among the characteristics that education systems, schools, and teachers value and attempt to foster. The International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) examined the ways in which countries prepare their young people to undertake their roles as citizens. It investigated student knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship as well as student attitudes, perceptions, and activities related to civics and citizenship.

ICCS examined differences across countries in these outcomes and how those differences relate to national characteristics. It also examined variations across countries in the relationships that emerged between these outcomes and student characteristics and between these outcomes and school and community contexts. Data pertaining to students and to school and community contexts are used to explain variation in the outcomes.

The initial findings from ICCS reported in this publication emerged from data gathered from more than 140,000 Grade 8 (or equivalent) students in more than 5,300 schools from 38 countries. These student data are 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 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (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 civic-related domains: democracy and citizenship, national identity and international relations, and social cohesion and diversity. Its findings influenced civic and citizenship education policies and practices across the world and also research in this area (Birzea et al., 2004; Kerr, Ireland, Lopes, Craig, & Cleaver, 2004; Mellor & Prior, 2004; Menezes, Ferreira, Carneiro, & Cruz, 2004; Torney-Purta, 2009).

In the 10 years since CIVED, the world has seen considerable change in civics and citizenship (especially in terms of governance and international relations). CIVED was informed by political change that swept across the globe in the late 1980s and 1990s, change that has since become more manifest and 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; Zadja, 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; Zadja, 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).

In this report, we use the term *civic and citizenship education* to emphasize a broadening of the concept, processes, and practices that have occurred in this area since the CIVED study of 1999. Many countries now use the narrower term *civic education* alongside civic and citizenship education or they have superseded the latter with the broader term *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 through which citizens 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 solidarity, equity, and tolerance. There is also some evidence that young people are becoming increasingly engaged in alternative forms of participation involving community-based action with peers of similar age and internet-based campaigns relating to such issues as the environment and ethical consumerism (Sherrod, Torney-Purta, & Flanagan, 2010).

Research conducted in recent years has provided insights into the following: the gaps between policy declarations and curriculum provision, between the intended and implemented curriculum, between theory and practice (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); emphasis on active and experiential teaching and learning (Ross, 2009); and 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, and increased collaboration and sharing of expertise within and across countries and regions is increasing. In general, since the late 1980s, the scale and complexity of the challenges facing democracy and citizenship have considerably changed the environment for civic and citizenship education (Barr, 2005; Youniss & Levine, 2009).

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 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? (see Section 3 of this report)*

RQ 2 *What changes in civic knowledge have occurred since the last international assessment in 1999? (see Section 3)*

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? (see Section 4)*

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? (to be explored in subsequent reports)*

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;*
- *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?*

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? (see Section 6)*

Participating countries, population, and sample design

Thirty-eight countries[2] participated in ICCS. Among these were five from Asia, 26 from Europe, six from Latin America, and one from Australasia. Figure 1 provides an alphabetical list of these countries and shows 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.

An innovative feature of ICCS was the establishment of regional modules. These included countries from the same geographic region and 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. Most 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.

Additional student instruments were developed for each regional module. The European and Latin American instruments consisted of a short cognitive test as well as a questionnaire. The Asian instrument was based on a questionnaire. The regional instruments were administered after completion of the international student test and questionnaire.

2 A few of the ICCS participants are 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: Countries participating in ICCS 2009

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.

Within each sampled 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 from between 3,000 and 4,500 students. Appendix B documents the achieved samples for each country.

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

- 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; and
- A *cognitive dimension* describing the thinking processes to be assessed.

Table 1: Coverage of cognitive or affective-behavioral and content domains in the ICCS student survey

	Content Domain				Total
	Civic society & systems	Civic principles	Civic participation	Civic identities	
Cognitive domains					
Knowing	15	3	1	0	19
Analysing 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
Behaviours			14		14
Total	24	30	53	14	121

Note: ^ The table does not include 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 their 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 (above) shows the coverage of these domains in the international student survey instruments (test and questionnaire).

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 three Southern Hemisphere countries, the data collection took place in early 2009, at the beginning of the next 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 concerned with 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.

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, as well as the provision of civic and citizenship education in their schools.

National research coordinators (NRCs) coordinated information gained 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.

The countries participating in the regional modules received an additional instrument specific to their region.

- *The Asian regional instrument* was a 15-minute region-specific questionnaire.
- *The European regional instrument* consisted of a 12-minute region-specific cognitive test and a 17-minute region-specific questionnaire (29 minutes total).
- *The Latin American regional instrument* consisted of a 15-minute region-specific 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 for national centers to consider. 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 about household composition, and 29 chose to include the items about religion in the student questionnaire. Three national centers opted for asking only part of the option on students' religion. Thirty-seven national centers chose to administer the set of specific questions for teachers of civic and citizenship education.

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 in some countries assessed different grades across the two surveys. Greece, Norway, and Slovenia collected and assessed additional samples from Grade 9 students to obtain comparable data.[3] For four other countries (Cyprus, Denmark, Hong Kong SAR, and the Russian Federation), no comparable data were collected because of differences in the target population or changes to the test instrument.

3 In this report, these additional grade data are used only for comparisons with the previous IEA survey. They are not included in the reporting on other outcomes of ICCS.

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

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]

Report context and scope

This report on initial findings from ICCS is the first of the intended international publications on ICCS and its findings. It will be followed by an extended ICCS international report and regional reports for Asia, Europe, and Latin America. These reports will be complemented by the ICCS technical report and the ICCS international database and user guide. A compilation of accounts of policy and practice in civic and citizenship education in each of the participating countries will also appear.

In the second (next) section of this current report, we summarize the national context for civic and citizenship education in participating countries. In the third, we report on the levels of civic and citizenship knowledge across countries and changes in civic content knowledge since 1999. We describe how the ICCS cognitive test was used to measure civic and citizenship knowledge and outline how the participating countries compared on this scale.

The fourth section of the report concerns affective and behavioral aspects of civics and citizenship. Here, we describe and analyze the variation across countries in student attitudes toward and student interest in civics and citizenship, as well as students' present and expected future civic participation.

In the fifth section of the report, we address aspects of school contexts related to civic and citizenship education. We describe the variation in school and community contexts with reference to approaches to civic and citizenship education, teachers' perceptions of the importance of its aims, student participation in civic-related activities in the local community, and classroom climate. In Section 6, we report on the association between aspects of student background and civic knowledge.

The final section of this report provides a summary of the main findings of ICCS and preliminary interpretations of these findings in relation to current practices and policies. We also point, in this section, to aspects of the study that will be explored in greater detail in the extended ICCS international report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming) and the regional reports that will follow.

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

2. The contexts for civic and citizenship education

As emphasized in the *ICCS Assessment Framework* (Schulz et al., 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 recognized 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 and within trans-national 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.

ICCS used the school, teacher, and student questionnaires to collect information about the contexts of schools, classrooms, home environments, and the individual. The national contexts survey was used to collect data about the context of the wider community, and more specifically the national and community contexts.

This section 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. Here, we outline the background and purpose of the national contexts survey. We follow this with a description, based on key variables from the national contexts survey, of approaches to civic and citizenship education at the national level. These variables have a bearing on the outcomes reported in the other sections.

Note that we include only a few selected key aspects of the results from the ICCS national contexts survey in this initial report on ICCS. A more detailed picture of national contexts for civic and citizenship education will be provided in the extended report on ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming).

Collecting data on contexts for civic and citizenship education

The previous IEA studies on civic and citizenship education highlighted the ways students develop civic-related dispositions and acquire knowledge and understanding with regard to their roles as citizens. The findings of these studies revealed 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 et al., 1999).

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 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 constructed an online national contexts survey for this purpose that was completed by national research coordinators (NRCs) with assistance from experts within each participating country.

The national contexts survey was designed to collect relevant data from each participating country on the structure of the education system, education policy related to civic and citizenship education, school curriculum approaches to civic and citizenship education, and the extent of current debates and reforms in this area. NRCs completed the national contexts survey at the start of ICCS and then updated the information gained from it towards the end of the study so as to ensure the data for each participating country were up to date for the year of reference, namely, 2008 or 2009.

National approaches to civic and citizenship education

Table 2 outlines the approach that the countries participating in ICCS take to civic and citizenship education in their curricula for the lower levels of secondary school (which include the specific target grade for ICCS, typically Grade 8). The table also shows the type and variety of approaches that countries use when implementing civic and citizenship education in their curricula at this level. The previous studies revealed that countries consider that it is important to include civic and citizenship education in their school curricula. However, there is no one agreed route as to how it should be included. Unlike curriculum subjects such as mathematics, science, and mother tongue language, which are usually designated as specific (and often compulsory) subjects in most countries, surveys reveal that countries use various ways to implement civic and citizenship education in their overall school curricula (Cox et al., 2005; Eurydice, 2005)

Table 2 also shows that in the majority of countries participating in ICCS, students experience civic and citizenship education not only in the school curriculum at the lower secondary level but also through activities beyond the curriculum. These activities include assemblies and special events as well as extra-curricular tasks and pursuits. Civic and citizenship education is also approached in the majority of countries through what is taught in the curriculum, and it is also implicit in students' everyday experiences in the classroom and the climate of those classrooms (e.g., degree of openness to discussion).

Table 2 furthermore highlights that although there is no one agreed approach across the participating countries to civic and citizenship education, the majority of countries take three main approaches to this provision:

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

The table also reveals that many countries favor using two or three of these curricula approaches simultaneously, and that they leave schools to decide how they will blend these approaches in practice.

Table 2: Approaches to civic and citizenship education in 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) [1]			●	●	●	●	●
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 Rep. of	●		●	●	●	●	●
Latvia			●	●	●	●	●
Liechtenstein			●		●	●	●
Lithuania	●		●	●	●	●	●
Luxembourg	●		●	●	●	●	●
Malta			●	✱	●	●	●
Mexico	●		●	●	●	●	●
Netherlands			●			●	
New Zealand [4]			●	●	●	●	●
Norway			●		●		●
Paraguay	●		●			●	
Poland	●				●	●	
Russian Federation	●			●	●	●	●
Slovak Republic	●			✱	✱	✱	✱
Slovenia	●		●		●		●
Spain	●		●	●	●	●	●
Sweden			●	●			
Switzerland [5]	●		●	●			●
Thailand			●		●	●	●

Source: ICCS 2009 National Contexts Survey; reference year is 2008/09.

Symbols

● For all study programs and school types

✱ For some study programs

[1] The data relate to the < 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 <target grade> and there is no intended integration. However, civic and citizenship education 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 approach between the Swiss cantons. In some cantons, civic and citizenship education is a curriculum subject, while in others it is integrated in several subjects.

Twenty-one of the 38 countries provide a specific subject or course in civic and citizenship education that is compulsory in general education (or both general education and vocational education) in Grade 8. In most of these 21 countries, civic and citizenship education can be integrated in other subjects and included as part of a cross-curricular approach.

Thirty-two of the participating countries provide civic and citizenship education by integrating it into several subjects. Twenty-nine countries provide civic and citizenship education through a cross-curricular approach. Most of the countries providing civic and citizenship education through integration in other subjects also provide civic and citizenship education through a cross-curricular approach.

In a large number of countries, the national ICCS centers reported provision of civic and citizenship education by way of assemblies and special events (28 countries), the classroom experience and ethos (29 countries), or extra-curricular activities (28 countries).

Emphasis on civic processes and topics in national curricula

It is also important to review the emphasis participating countries give to civic and citizenship processes in the curriculum at the target grade. The earlier studies indicated that the participating countries increasingly were seeing civic and citizenship education as including not just knowledge and understanding but also activities that promote civic attitudes and values alongside opportunities for students to participate in activities in and beyond the school (Eurydice, 2005; Torney-Purta et al., 1999).

CIVED, for example, identified a movement in some countries to broaden the role that civic and citizenship education plays in preparing young people as citizens by positioning this area of education in community-based activities. The Eurydice report (2005) showed many countries in Europe positioning civic and citizenship education not only in terms of what students learn in classrooms but also in terms of the opportunities students have to put that learning into practice through participation in the school and wider communities beyond school. The report's authors defined this approach to citizenship education as "an active learning by doing" approach that emphasizes "student participation" and the "idea of a democratic school."

Table 3 shows the emphasis participating countries give to civic process in their curricula for civic and citizenship education. Here, we can see a continuation of the broadening of civic and citizenship education processes in the curriculum, recognized in both CIVED and the Eurydice report. All 38 ICCS countries view civic and citizenship education as encompassing a variety of processes. This area of education is designed to develop knowledge and understanding as well as skills of communication, analysis, observation, and reflection, while providing opportunities for active student involvement in and beyond school. Tied up with this is the notion of developing positive attitudes toward national identity and promoting future participation in civic and civil society.

Overall, although countries give greatest emphasis to developing knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship, they still give credence to other processes that occur alongside. These other processes vary from country to country, but in general they focus on "learning by doing" and on providing opportunities for student participation.

All 38 participating countries place some or a major emphasis on the processes underpinning knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship. Most also pay heed to the process of developing positive attitudes among students via the following means:

- Participation and engagement in civic and civil society (37 countries);
- Communicating through discussion and debate (37 countries);
- Developing a sense of national identity and allegiance (35 countries);
- Projects and written work (33 countries).

Table 3: Emphasis given to civic and citizenship education processes in curriculum for students at country's ICCS target grade

Country	Civic and Citizenship Education Processes											
	Knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship			Communicating through		Creating opportunities for student involvement in		Analyzing and observing change processes		Reflecting on and analyzing	Developing a sense of	Developing positive attitudes toward
	knowing basic facts	understanding key concepts	understanding key values & attitudes	discussion & debate	projects & written work	decision-making in school	community-based activities	in school	in the community	participation & engagement opportunities	national identity & allegiance	participation & engagement in civic & 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 Rep. of	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	●	●	●
Latvia	✱	✱	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	✱
Liechtenstein [1]	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	●
Lithuania	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍	❍	❍	✱	●
Luxembourg	✱	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●
Malta	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Mexico	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Netherlands	✱	●	●	✱	✱	❍	❍	❍	●	❍	✱	●
New Zealand	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Table 3: Emphasis given to civic and citizenship education processes in curriculum for students at 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 & attitudes	discussion & debate	projects & written work	decision-making in school	community-based activities	in school	in the community	participation & engagement opportunities	national identity & allegiance	participation & engagement in civic & civil society
Norway	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	❍	❍	✱	✱	✱	●
Paraguay	●	✱	✱	❍	❍	✱	✱	❍	❍	✱	●	✱
Poland	●	●	✱	✱	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	✱
Russian Federation	●	●	●	✱	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱
Slovak Republic	●	●	✱	✱	✱	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	✱	✱
Slovenia	✱	●	●	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	❍	✱	✱
Spain	●	●	●	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●	❍	●
Sweden	●	●	●	✱	❍	●	✱	❍	❍	✱	✱	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	✱	❍	❍	❍	❍	✱	✱	✱	●
Thailand	●	●	✱	●	●	✱	●	✱	●	✱	●	●

Source: ICCS 2009 National Contexts Survey; reference year is 2008/09.

Emphasis on processes

● major emphasis

✱ some emphasis

❍ no emphasis

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

Fewer countries emphasize these means:

- Creating opportunities for student involvement in decision-making in school (31 countries);
- Creating opportunities for student involvement in decision-making through community-based activities (30 countries);
- Analyzing and observing change processes in the community (29 countries);
- Reflecting on and analyzing participation and engagement opportunities (28 countries);
- Analyzing and observing change processes in the school (22 countries).

These findings suggest that although there is a move in most countries toward learning by doing and toward facilitating student participation in civic and citizenship activities, this approach is not always matched by opportunities for students to analyze the learning they gain from such experiences.

Table 4 focuses on the civic and citizenship topics that ICCS countries cover in the curriculum at the target grade (typically Grade 8). It also addresses the degree of emphasis given to those topics. Recent research shows a broadening of the range and scope of topics addressed in civic and citizenship education in the curriculum (Evans, 2009; Kennedy, 2009; Pasek, Feldman, Romer, & Jamieson, 2008).

This development is a response to the reconceptualizing of both citizenship and the role of civic and citizenship education in preparing young people to meet the new trends and challenges facing societies in the 21st century. The Phase 1 national case studies in CIVED showed many countries beginning to focus on abstract concepts such as rights alongside the traditional focus on knowledge of political institutions and processes. The Eurydice (2005) survey of citizenship education in Europe showed countries emphasizing knowledge of democracy and political institutions along with a growing focus on human rights. It also highlighted a move in these countries to provide a greater emphasis on European and international civic and citizenship dimensions in response to the rapid spread of globalization.

The information contained in Table 4 provides support and reinforcement for the trends in previous research. It reveals that ICCS countries seek to cover a broad range of topics through civic and citizenship education in the curriculum and that they give varying degrees of emphasis to these topics. Many countries place a major emphasis on human rights, government systems, voting and elections. There are also signs of the introduction of newer topics, such as the environment and understanding different cultures and ethnic groups, and of the growing emphasis given to them. Although the pattern is not consistent across countries, there is evidence in the table that civic and citizenship education addresses not only the political but also the economic, social, and cultural dimensions of society, including conflict resolution.

Civic and citizenship education topics also reflect the spread and reach of modernization and globalization, with many countries emphasizing the topics of communications studies (including the media) as well as global/international organizations and regional institutions and organizations (such as the European Union). Above all, the content of Table 4 underlines the breadth of topics that encompass civic and citizenship education in the curriculum in ICCS countries.

The topics that the ICCS countries most frequently nominated as a major emphasis in 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 (20 countries). Topics less frequently nominated as a major emphasis were communications studies (14 countries), legal systems and courts (13 countries), the economy and economics (12 countries), regional institutions and organizations (12 countries), and resolving conflict (11 countries). Only five countries nominated voluntary groups as a major emphasis.

Table 4: Emphasis given to civic and citizenship education topics in curriculum for students at country's ICCS target grade

Country	Civic and Citizenship Education Topics											
	Human rights	Legal systems & courts	Understanding different cultural & ethnic groups	Parliament & government systems	Voting & elections	The economy & economics	Voluntary groups	Resolving conflict	Communications studies (e.g., media)	The global community & 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 4: Emphasis given to civic and citizenship education topics in curriculum for students at country's ICCS target grade (contd.)

Country	Civic and Citizenship Education Topics											
	Human rights	Legal systems & courts	Understanding different cultural & ethnic groups	Parliament & government systems	Voting & elections	The economy & economics	Voluntary groups	Resolving conflict	Communications studies (e.g. media)	The global community & international organizations	Regional institutions and organizations	The environment
Slovak Republic	●	●	●	●	●	✱	❍	✱	✱	●	●	✱
Slovenia	●	❍	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	✱	✱	●	✱	●	●	●
Sweden	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	✱	✱	●	●	❍	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	●	●	❍	❍	✱	❍	●	●	✱
Thailand	✱	●	●	●	●	●	✱	●	✱	✱	✱	●

Source: ICCS 2009 National Contexts Survey; reference year is 2008/09.

Emphasis on topics

● major emphasis

✱ some emphasis

❍ no emphasis

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

Summary of findings on contexts for civic and citizenship education

The findings in this section highlight the variation in the national contexts in which civic and citizenship education is provided. These variations are an important part of any study of young people's civics-related learning outcomes and indicators of their civic engagement.

The national contexts survey provided valuable contextual information about how ICCS countries approach civic and citizenship education, particularly at the target grade. The data suggest ongoing shifts in the scope, processes, and topics underpinning civic and citizenship education in countries in response to the political changes that are reshaping the goals and intended outcomes of civic and citizenship education.

Overall, the findings show no agreed approach across the ICCS countries to civic and citizenship education but rather a mixed, tripartite approach, with civic and citizenship education positioned as a specific subject, integrated into other subjects, and included as a cross-curricular theme.

Civic and citizenship education emphasizes 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.

Civic and citizenship education in the curriculum furthermore includes a wide range of topics. It encompasses 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. It is important to bear in mind these contexts for civic and citizenship education when reviewing the outcomes and findings in the sections that follow.

3. Students' civic knowledge

Civic knowledge refers to the application of civic and citizenship cognitive processes to the civic and citizenship content described in the *ICCS Assessment Framework* (Schulz et al., 2008). It is a key outcome of civic and citizenship education programs and is fundamental to effective civic participation. Civic knowledge is a broad term that denotes understanding and reasoning, and it applies to all four content domains in the assessment framework.

In this section, we detail the measurement of civic knowledge in ICCS by describing the assessment instrument and the described proficiency scale of student achievement. We follow this with a description and discussion of the international student test results relating to the content knowledge domain. We also look at differences between these results and student performance on the CIVED content knowledge domain.

The contents of this section concern 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. Also covered are the changes in civic knowledge that have occurred since the last IEA study on civic education in 1999.

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 et al., 2001) and a 42-item test for 17- to 18-year-olds in 16 countries (Amadeo et al., 2002).

The ICCS civic knowledge test comprised 79 items. These were typically presented as units in which some brief contextual stimulus (an image or some text) was followed by items relating to the common context. Seventy-three items were multiple-choice and six were constructed-response. The latter required students to provide responses 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 items allowed us to measure changes in student performance for the countries that participated in both ICCS and CIVED.

As we noted in the introduction, 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;
- Civic identities, 10 percent.

The proportions across the two cognitive domains were:

- Knowing, 25 percent;
- 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 included the aforementioned secure items from CIVED, included in order to provide a link between that study and ICCS.

Each student completed one test booklet comprising 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 resulting scale had a highly satisfactory reliability of 0.84. Plausible value methodology with full conditioning was used to derive summary student achievement statistics; five separate estimates were generated for each student. These five "plausible values" made it possible to estimate the uncertainty inherent in the measurement process (see von Davier, Gonzalez, & Mislevy, 2009).

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 the scaling procedures for test items will appear in the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

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 also 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 5 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.

Table 5: List of proficiency levels with text outlining the type of knowledge and understanding at each level

Level 3: 563 score points and above

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

Students working at Level 3, for example:

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

Level 2: 479 to 562 score points

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

Students working at Level 2, for example:

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

Level 1: 395 to 478 score points

Students working at Level 1 demonstrate familiarity with equality, social cohesion, and freedom as principles of democracy. They relate these broad principles to everyday examples of situations in which protection of or challenge to the principles are demonstrated. Students also demonstrate familiarity with fundamental concepts of the individual as an active citizen: they 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.

Students working at Level 1, for example:

- Relate freedom of the press to the accuracy of information provided to the public by the media
- Justify voluntary voting in the context of freedom of political expression
- Identify that democratic leaders should be aware of the needs of the people over whom they have authority
- Justify voluntary voting in the context of freedom of political expression
- Recognize that the UN 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.

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 the 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.

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 these 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.

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.

To provide a clearer understanding of the nature of the scale items, we offer two example items. These not only indicate the types of questions that students were required to answer in the ICCS international test but also illustrate examples of items and responses corresponding to the proficiency levels of the ICCS civic knowledge scale.

Example Item 1 (Table 6) 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.[5] The coding guide allowed for the allocation of 0 (no credit), 1 (partial credit), or 2 (full credit) for each constructed-response item.

Table 6 shows the percentage of students that achieved each level of response credit. The full credit response (two points) is located in Proficiency Level 3. The partial credit (one point) response category is located in Proficiency Level 2 on the ICCS civic knowledge scale.

Example Item 1 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 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

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

Table 6: Example release item (open-ended) with overall percent correct and item parameters

Example item 1

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.

How can public debate benefit society?

Give **two different** ways.

1. _____

_____

2. _____

_____

CODING GUIDE

Code 2

ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 3

Refers to benefits from two different categories of the five categories listed below.

- 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

Code 1

ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 2

Refers only to reasons from one of the five listed categories (including responses in which different reasons from the same category are provided).

Country	Percent at least 1 point		Percent at 2 points only	
Austria	58	(2.4)	20	(2.0)
Belgium (Flemish)	63	(2.2)	19	(1.4)
Bulgaria	72	(2.4)	24	(1.7)
Chile	70	(1.5)	21	(1.1)
Chinese Taipei	76	(0.9)	27	(1.1)
Colombia	58	(1.3)	16	(1.2)
Cyprus	58	(1.9)	10	(1.1)
Czech Republic †	73	(1.0)	19	(1.1)
Denmark	83	(1.4)	38	(1.6)
England ‡	59	(1.7)	15	(1.2)
Finland	60	(1.5)	13	(1.0)
Greece	54	(1.9)	15	(1.3)
Guatemala[1]	65	(1.6)	15	(1.0)
Ireland	79	(1.5)	28	(1.4)
Italy	75	(1.8)	23	(1.4)
Korea, Republic of[1]	86	(0.9)	42	(1.2)
Liechtenstein	42	(4.5)	6	(2.3)
Lithuania	67	(1.6)	17	(1.3)
Malta	59	(2.7)	20	(2.0)
Mexico	66	(1.1)	23	(1.0)
New Zealand †	69	(1.9)	25	(1.5)
Norway †	71	(1.5)	18	(1.3)
Paraguay[1]	48	(2.5)	7	(1.1)
Poland	83	(1.5)	32	(1.4)
Russian Federation	79	(1.9)	25	(1.4)
Slovak Republic[2]	83	(1.2)	34	(1.7)
Slovenia	69	(1.5)	18	(1.3)
Spain	68	(1.6)	15	(1.3)
Sweden	73	(1.5)	22	(1.2)
Switzerland †	54	(1.8)	9	(1.2)
Thailand †	57	(1.5)	11	(0.8)
ICCS average	67	(0.3)	20	(0.2)
Countries not meeting sampling requirements				
Hong Kong SAR	69	(2.6)	14	(2.0)
Netherlands	37	(2.7)	4	(0.8)

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.

[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 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 acceptable 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 the participating countries, 20 percent of students, on average, were able to achieve full credit on this item; the achievement percentages in this level ranged from 6 to 42 percent. (Note that we computed the *ICCS average* in this and all following tables as the average of national results for those countries that met sample participation and test administration and coding requirements.)

The Example 1 students who provided one benefit to society of public debate gained partial credit (worth one score point), thereby indicating a Level 1 standard of proficiency on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. (The benefit that a student provided in response to this item could relate to any of the five categories listed in the coding guide, and was regarded as indicative of students' awareness of a concept from a single perspective.) Across all countries, 67 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 42 to 86 percent.

Example Item 2 (Table 7), a multiple-choice item, was the first of two items in a unit relating to the context established by the stimulus material. The stimulus text for this item provided students with a context and an example of ethical consumerism. 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.

The table shows the percentage of students that answered the item correctly (the correct response is indicated with an asterisk at the end of the multiple-choice response option). Students who selected the correct response to this example met a Level 1 standard of proficiency on the ICCS civic knowledge scale. On average, across all countries, 73 percent of students achieved full credit on this item. The range of percentages across the countries was 38 to 92 percent.

Comparison of civic knowledge across countries

Table 8 shows the distributions 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 8, where the length of the bars shows the distribution of student scores for each country. This 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;[6] in most countries, the distance between the lowest 5 percent and the highest 95 percent of civic knowledge scores was around 300 scale points.

We can also see from Table 8 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 is complex in that it varies within countries and between countries. These relationships will be discussed in detail in the extended ICCS international report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming).

6 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 7: Example release item (multiple-choice) with overall percent correct and item parameters

Example item 2

<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.

ICCS Knowledge Scale Proficiency Level 1

Why would <Male Name> refuse to wear his new shoes?

- ☐ He thinks that shoes made by children will not last very long.
- ☐ He does not want to show support for the company that made them.*
- ☐ He does not want to support the children that made them.
- ☐ He is angry that he paid more for the shoes than they are actually worth.

Country	Percent correct response	
Austria	79	(1.4)
Belgium (Flemish)	81	(1.3)
Bulgaria	73	(1.7)
Chile	75	(1.6)
Chinese Taipei	67	(1.1)
Colombia	74	(1.4)
Cyprus	52	(1.5)
Czech Republic †	67	(1.2)
Denmark	91	(0.7)
Dominican Republic	45	(1.4)
England ‡	82	(1.3)
Estonia	72	(1.6)
Finland	92	(0.8)
Greece	73	(1.4)
Guatemala[1]	57	(2.1)
Indonesia	38	(1.5)
Ireland	85	(1.3)
Italy	85	(1.0)
Korea, Republic of[1]	77	(1.1)
Latvia	74	(1.4)
Liechtenstein	83	(2.4)
Lithuania	74	(1.4)
Luxembourg	74	(1.3)
Malta	72	(1.7)
Mexico	61	(1.2)
New Zealand †	82	(1.4)
Norway †	84	(1.5)
Paraguay[1]	56	(1.9)
Poland	76	(1.4)
Russian Federation	75	(1.1)
Slovak Republic[2]	61	(2.0)
Slovenia	75	(1.5)
Spain	82	(1.6)
Sweden	86	(1.0)
Switzerland †	85	(1.3)
Thailand †	57	(1.5)
ICCS average	73	(0.2)

Countries not meeting sampling requirements		
Hong Kong SAR	73	(1.7)
Netherlands	72	(2.9)

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.

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

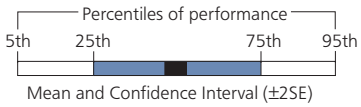
[2] National Desired Population does not cover all of International Desired Population.

Table 8: National averages for civic knowledge, by years of schooling, average age, and percentile graph

Country	Civic Knowledge				
	Years of schooling	Average age	200 300 400 500 600 700 800	Average scale score	
Finland	8	14.7		576 (2.4)	▲
Denmark †	8	14.9		576 (3.6)	▲
Korea, Republic of[1]	8	14.7		565 (1.9)	▲
Chinese Taipei	8	14.2		559 (2.4)	▲
Sweden	8	14.8		537 (3.1)	▲
Poland	8	14.9		536 (4.7)	▲
Ireland	8	14.3		534 (4.6)	▲
Switzerland †	8	14.7		531 (3.8)	▲
Liechtenstein	8	14.8		531 (3.3)	▲
Italy	8	13.8		531 (3.3)	▲
Slovak Republic[2]	8	14.4		529 (4.5)	▲
Estonia	8	15.0		525 (4.5)	▲
England ‡	9	14.0		519 (4.4)	▲
New Zealand †	9	14.0		517 (5.0)	▲
Slovenia	8	13.7		516 (2.7)	▲
Norway †	8	13.7		515 (3.4)	▲
Belgium (Flemish) †	8	13.9		514 (4.7)	▲
Czech Republic †	8	14.4		510 (2.4)	▲
Russian Federation	8	14.7		506 (3.8)	
Lithuania	8	14.7		505 (2.8)	
Spain	8	14.1		505 (4.1)	
Austria	8	14.4		503 (4.0)	
Malta	9	13.9		490 (4.5)	▼
Chile	8	14.2		483 (3.5)	▼
Latvia	8	14.8		482 (4.0)	▼
Greece	8	13.7		476 (4.4)	▼
Luxembourg	8	14.6		473 (2.2)	▼
Bulgaria	8	14.7		466 (5.0)	▼
Colombia	8	14.4		462 (2.9)	▼
Cyprus	8	13.9		453 (2.4)	▼
Mexico	8	14.1		452 (2.8)	▼
Thailand †	8	14.4		452 (3.7)	▼
Guatemala[1]	8	15.5		435 (3.8)	▼
Indonesia	8	14.3		433 (3.4)	▼
Paraguay[1]	9	14.9		424 (3.4)	▼
Dominican Republic	8	14.8		380 (2.4)	▼

Countries not meeting sample requirements

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



▲ Achievement significantly higher than the ICCS average

▼ Achievement significantly lower than the ICCS average

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.

[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 average 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.

Slight evidence of clustering of countries can be seen at some points on the scale where the difference between adjacent country averages was greater than the difference typical across the scale. For example, at the top of the scale, 17 scale points covers the spread of average scale scores in Finland, Denmark, the Republic of Korea, and Chinese Taipei, followed by a gap of 22 scale points to the next country, Sweden.

The countries in Table 9 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 9 is very similar to that in Table 8, 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 countries with similar average student civic knowledge scores.)

The data in Table 9 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 9 also shows the large differences in the distribution of ICCS civic knowledge scores across countries. If we look at both Tables 8 and 9, we can see that the four countries with the highest average ICCS civic knowledge scale scores in Table 8 were those countries in Table 9 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.

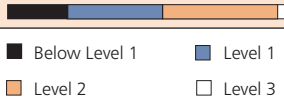
The first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971 showed that males obtained significantly higher scores than females on the study's civic knowledge test and that the differences were larger among older students (Torney et al., 1975). The CIVED survey in 1999 found only minor gender differences among lower 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 10 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 the overwhelming majority of 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.

Table 9: Percentages of students at each proficiency level across countries

Country	Below Level 1 (less then 395 score points)		Level 1 (from 395 to 479 score points)		Level 2 (from 479 to 563 score points)		Level 3 (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)

Countries ranked in descending order by percentages in 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:

( ) 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 10: Gender differences in civic knowledge

Country	Mean Scale Score Females	Mean Scale Score Males	Difference Absolute Value (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.

† 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

The magnitude of the differences in achievement between female and male students within countries extended up 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, and 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 for these two countries in a separate section of Table 11; we do not include them in the overall statistics because of the unknown effect of these differences in 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.

Another point to consider in relation to the comparison of 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 equating will be provided in the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

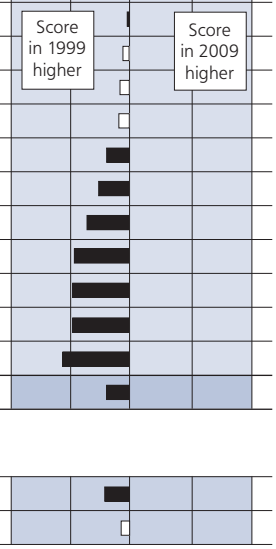
We used the same item parameters as in the CIVED study to scale the ICCS test data. We then transformed these data to the same metric as that used in CIVED to report the content knowledge scale results. (That scale had an average of 100 and a standard deviation of 20 scale points for the equally weighted 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). The equating procedures will be described in greater detail in the ICCS technical report (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

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 for Slovenia was statistically significantly higher in ICCS than in CIVED by three scale points. In seven countries, no statistically significant differences emerged between the 1999 and the 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.

Table 11: Changes in civic content knowledge between 1999 and 2009

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
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)	
Latvia	8	91 (0.6)	14.8	92 (0.9)	14.5	-1 (1.2)	
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.
† Met ICCS guidelines for sampling paticipation 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.

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 11 above show only small differences in student age between the CIVED and the ICCS data collections. The extended ICCS international report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming) will contain an analysis of any relationship between age and differences in performance between CIVED and ICCS on civic content knowledge.

Summary of findings on students' civic knowledge

Our comparisons of average civic knowledge scores showed considerable variation between 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.

When we compared the civic knowledge scores of females and males, we found that females had higher scores than males in all the participating countries and that, in a 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 the past decade.

4. Students' attitudes and civic engagement

The ICCS assessment framework defined four affective-behavioral domains—value beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors (Schulz et al., 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 C provides a description of the scaling of questionnaire items.) More detailed results on the whole range of students' value beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors will be presented and discussed in the extended ICCS international report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming).

In this initial report on findings from ICCS, we include only selected affective-behavioral measures. The aspects that we focus on relate to ICCS 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 thus describe and discuss attitudes toward gender equality, trust in selected civic institutions, and support for political parties. We also present the findings for some key indicators of civic engagement, such as students' interest in political and social issues, civic participation in the wider community and at school, expected participation in national elections, and expected participation in political activities.

Trust in civic institutions and support for political parties

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 (e.g., Newton & Norris, 2000), but some denote this decrease as relatively insubstantial (e.g., Fuchs & Klingemann, 1995). Inglehart (1997) distinguished 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, showed that low levels of trust in political institutions are typical in societies that have recently undergone political transitions.

In a study that focused on small student samples from five countries, Hahn (1998) found generally low levels of trust among students. The first two IEA civic education studies in 1971 and 1999 included items on trust in government institutions (Torney et al., 1975; Torney-Purta et al, 2001). Both found lower levels of trust among older students (Amadeo et al., 2002).

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."[7]

Table 12 presents 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.[8] In most countries, students tended to have the least amount of trust in political parties; only 41 percent, on average, expressed complete or quite a lot of trust in them.

7 Student ratings of trust in national government, local government, courts of justice, the police, political parties, and the national parliament were also used to derive a scale of general trust in civic institutions. Results for this scale will be reported in the extended international report on ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming).

8 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 roughly about a third of a standard deviation for these variables.

Table 12: National percentages for 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			people in general		
Austria	77	(0.9)	▲	48	(1.3)	△	53	(1.0)	▽	67	(1.2)	▽	64	(0.9)	△
Belgium (Flemish) †	51	(1.0)	▼	35	(1.1)	▽	48	(1.0)	▼	74	(1.2)		57	(1.1)	
Bulgaria	56	(1.3)	▽	32	(1.2)	▽	70	(1.1)	△	80	(1.0)	△	64	(1.1)	△
Chile	65	(1.0)	△	34	(1.0)	▽	74	(0.7)	▲	80	(0.8)	△	52	(0.9)	▽
Chinese Taipei	44	(0.9)	▼	26	(0.8)	▼	43	(0.8)	▼	71	(1.0)	▽	51	(0.9)	▽
Colombia	62	(1.2)		35	(1.1)	▽	72	(1.0)	▲	87	(0.6)	▲	49	(0.9)	▽
Cyprus	51	(0.9)	▼	31	(0.8)	▽	57	(1.2)	▽	57	(1.1)	▼	47	(0.9)	▼
Czech Republic †	55	(0.9)	▽	28	(0.8)	▼	65	(1.0)	△	73	(0.9)		63	(0.9)	△
Denmark †	72	(1.0)	▲	56	(1.2)	▲	56	(1.0)	▽	74	(1.1)		68	(0.8)	▲
Dominican Republic	74	(1.3)	▲	51	(1.2)	▲	76	(1.0)	▲	88	(1.3)	▲	61	(1.3)	
England ‡	71	(0.9)	△	43	(1.2)		46	(1.2)	▼	73	(1.0)		52	(1.0)	▽
Estonia	62	(1.4)		23	(1.3)	▼	54	(1.0)	▽	71	(1.2)	▽	58	(1.0)	
Finland	82	(0.8)	▲	61	(1.0)	▲	80	(0.8)	▲	76	(1.0)		76	(0.8)	▲
Greece	41	(1.2)	▼	25	(1.1)	▼	48	(1.0)	▼	73	(1.0)		57	(1.1)	
Guatemala[1]	45	(1.4)	▼	26	(1.0)	▼	70	(1.0)	△	88	(1.0)	▲	47	(1.1)	▼
Indonesia	96	(0.4)	▲	66	(1.1)	▲	75	(0.9)	▲	96	(0.4)	▲	77	(0.8)	▲
Ireland	52	(1.0)	▼	40	(1.1)		48	(1.0)	▼	75	(0.9)		64	(1.0)	△
Italy	74	(0.9)	▲	52	(1.1)	▲	81	(0.9)	▲	82	(0.8)	△	52	(1.0)	▽
Korea, Republic of[1]	20	(0.7)	▼	18	(0.7)	▼	51	(0.8)	▽	45	(0.8)	▼	39	(0.7)	▼
Latvia	32	(1.2)	▼	25	(1.0)	▼	65	(1.3)	△	73	(1.2)		58	(1.1)	
Liechtenstein	82	(2.1)	▲	64	(2.4)	▲	57	(2.5)		70	(2.4)		70	(2.4)	▲
Lithuania	54	(0.9)	▽	33	(1.1)	▽	67	(0.9)	△	80	(0.9)	△	66	(0.8)	△
Luxembourg	72	(0.7)	△	48	(0.7)	△	62	(0.6)		70	(1.0)	▽	64	(0.8)	△
Malta	62	(1.4)		55	(1.7)	▲	70	(1.1)	△	76	(1.7)		50	(1.3)	▽
Mexico	58	(1.0)	▽	35	(1.0)	▽	57	(0.8)	▽	72	(0.9)	▽	47	(0.8)	▼
New Zealand †	66	(1.0)	△	42	(1.2)		49	(1.3)	▼	68	(1.0)	▽	58	(1.3)	
Norway †	68	(1.1)	△	56	(1.0)	▲	51	(1.0)	▽	72	(1.2)	▽	52	(1.1)	▽
Paraguay[1]	66	(1.3)	△	32	(0.9)	▽	74	(1.5)	▲	88	(0.8)	▲	57	(1.0)	
Poland	36	(1.2)	▼	23	(1.1)	▼	52	(1.0)	▽	63	(1.4)	▼	58	(1.0)	
Russian Federation	88	(0.7)	▲	51	(0.9)	△	41	(1.0)	▼	84	(0.7)	△	51	(1.0)	▽
Slovak Republic[2]	57	(1.3)	▽	31	(1.2)	▼	58	(1.1)	▽	65	(1.2)	▽	51	(1.3)	▽
Slovenia	56	(1.4)	▽	45	(1.3)	△	64	(1.1)	△	68	(1.2)	▽	71	(0.9)	▲
Spain	62	(1.2)		40	(0.9)		69	(0.9)	△	82	(0.9)	△	59	(1.0)	
Sweden	73	(1.2)	▲	60	(1.3)	▲	54	(0.9)	▽	64	(1.2)	▼	67	(0.8)	△
Switzerland †	69	(1.0)	△	46	(1.0)	△	54	(1.1)	▽	67	(1.2)	▽	64	(1.2)	△
Thailand †	85	(0.8)	▲	61	(1.0)	▲	72	(0.9)	▲	91	(0.6)	▲	63	(0.9)	△
ICCS average	62	(0.2)		41	(0.2)		61	(0.2)		75	(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)		30	(0.9)	
Netherlands	70	(2.2)		53	(1.7)		48	(1.2)		75	(1.4)		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.
† 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, 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, Poland, the Republic of Korea, and the Slovak Republic. No ICCS country had students who trusted political parties to the same degree that they trusted national government.

Traditionally, identification with political parties is considered to be related to 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 whether students liked a particular political party more than others and, if they did, how much they were in favor of 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 13 shows the percentages of students in each of the four categories. As is evident, the percentages of students who reported no preferences for a political party varied considerably. In the Dominican Republic, Indonesia, Malta, and Mexico, less than a third of students had no preference, 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.

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.

Attitudes toward gender equality

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, and these findings were consistent with the outcomes of other research studies (Angvik & 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 tended to disagree with statements against equal rights for women. However, students in countries with lower GDP per capita and higher unemployment rates were less supportive of women's political rights (Torney-Purta et al., 2001, p. 107).

Table 13: National percentages for 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

▼ more than 10 percentage points below ICCS average

▽ significantly below ICCS average

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.
[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.

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 should women;
- Men are better qualified to be political leaders than are women.

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.

Figure 3 in Appendix D shows the item-by-score map and the average percentage in the item category across countries. Students with an average scale score of 50 tended to strongly agree with positively worded items and to disagree with 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 14 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, students overwhelmingly tended to agree with positively worded statements and to disagree 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.

Interest in political and social issues

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). 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; Ingleheart, 1997).

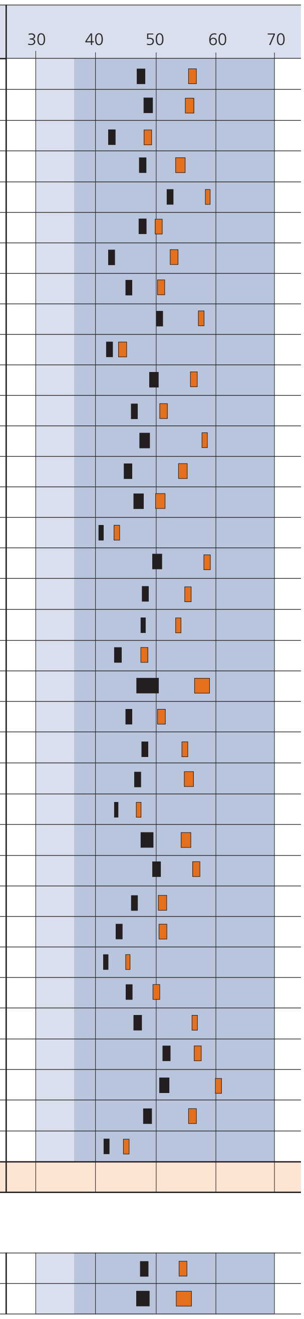
In many research studies, women are reported as less interested in politics than are men (Bennett, 1986; Bennett & Bennett, 1989). Even though some of the earlier studies indicate a narrowing gender gap in interest in some countries (Hahn, 1998), more recent research shows that considerable gender differences 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, Schlozman, & Verba, 2001) or the wording and format of the survey question (Mondak & Anderson, 2004; Oswald & Schmid, 1998).

Table 14: National averages for students' attitudes toward equal gender rights overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Attitude Toward Gender Equality								
	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males–females)*	
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

Country	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males–females)*	
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)



■ 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% probablity of responding to the statements regarding gender equality with:

- Disagreement to positive, agreement to negative statements
- Agreement to positive, disagreement to negative items

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.
† 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 the first IEA Civic Education Study in 1971, measures of interest in public affairs television were positive predictors of civic knowledge and participation (Torney et al., 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 students tested in CIVED, and it was statistically significant (Amadeo et al., 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 4 in Appendix D shows that students with an average ICCS scale score of 50 tended to be "not very interested" 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.

Table 15 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. Belgium (Flemish), Finland, Norway, Slovenia, and Sweden had the lowest average interest scores.

Gender differences on the ICCS interest scale were generally small. In a few countries, males showed significantly higher levels of interest in political and social issues than did females. In a few other countries, females had slight but significantly higher levels of interest. Comparison of these results with the comparable results from CIVED indicate a narrowing of the gender gap over the 10 years since that study. However, note that the measurement was different in ICCS. There, the construct focused on interest in a number of different political as well as social topics and did not have a "don't know" category.

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 were 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

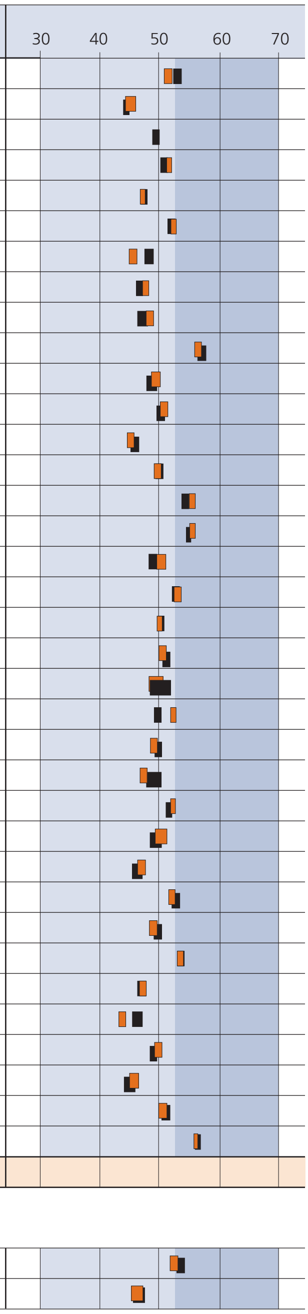
Table 15: National averages for students' interest in political and social issues overall and by gender

Gender Differences for Students' Interest in Political and Social Issues

Country	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

Country	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males-females)*	
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% probablity 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.

† 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.

organizations (e.g., 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:

- Political youth organizations;
- Environmental organizations;
- Human rights organizations;
- Voluntary groups to help the community;
- Charitable organizations;
- Cultural organizations based on ethnicity;
- Groups campaigning for an issue.

Table 16 shows the percentages of students who said they had participated in these organizations or activities in the past. Participation in youth organizations of political parties or unions was the least frequent of these involvements, and only a few students reported engaging in human rights groups and cultural organizations based on ethnicity. Participation in environmental organizations was more common. In a number of countries, such as 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 in charity collections was the most frequent form of participation among lower secondary school students across the ICCS countries. On average, about a third of 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).

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 et al., 2008).

There is also evidence in the research literature that students who are involved in civic-related activities at school tend to be more knowledgeable about civic-related matters. In their analyses of National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) data in the United States, Niemi and Junn (1998) found that participation in role-playing elections or mock trials had a positive effect on students' civic knowledge. Reported student participation in a school council or a student parliament was also a positive predictor of civic knowledge and engagement in the IEA CIVED study (Amadeo et al., 2003; Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

Table 16: National percentages for students' civic participation in the wider community

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Having Been Involved in the Activities of ...																							
	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		
Austria	11	(0.6)		19	(0.9)	▼	13	(0.8)	▽	35	(1.2)		51	(1.6)	▲	14	(0.8)		33	(1.0)	△
Belgium (Flemish) †	5	(0.5)	▽	15	(0.9)	▼	7	(0.5)	▽	23	(0.9)	▼	60	(1.1)	▲	11	(0.6)	▽	17	(0.8)	▼
Bulgaria	9	(0.7)		41	(1.3)	▲	21	(1.0)	△	37	(1.3)	△	40	(1.6)		17	(1.0)	△	37	(1.3)	△
Chile	9	(0.7)		31	(1.2)		16	(0.9)		40	(1.1)	△	40	(0.9)		10	(0.6)	▽	42	(0.9)	▲
Chinese Taipei	4	(0.3)	▽	9	(0.5)	▼	3	(0.3)	▼	20	(0.7)	▼	17	(0.7)	▼	10	(0.6)	▽	6	(0.4)	▼
Colombia	14	(0.6)	△	55	(1.1)	▲	36	(1.2)	▲	57	(0.8)	▲	41	(0.9)	△	17	(0.9)	△	45	(0.9)	▲
Cyprus	18	(0.7)	△	38	(1.0)	△	22	(0.9)	△	26	(1.0)	▽	53	(1.1)	▲	18	(0.7)	△	25	(0.9)	▽
Czech Republic †	4	(0.3)	▽	21	(1.2)	▽	9	(0.6)	▽	13	(0.7)	▼	29	(1.1)	▼	6	(0.4)	▽	19	(0.8)	▼
Denmark †	4	(0.5)	▽	3	(0.3)	▼	3	(0.3)	▼	12	(0.7)	▼	36	(1.0)	▽	6	(0.5)	▽	13	(0.7)	▼
Dominican Republic	25	(0.9)	▲	58	(1.1)	▲	50	(1.1)	▲	70	(0.9)	▲	54	(1.0)	▲	33	(1.0)	▲	58	(1.1)	▲
England ‡	15	(0.9)	△	18	(1.1)	▼	8	(0.7)	▽	39	(1.4)	△	46	(1.3)	△	12	(1.0)	▽	17	(1.0)	▼
Estonia	9	(0.8)	▽	19	(1.0)	▼	8	(0.7)	▽	44	(1.3)	▲	15	(0.6)	▼	10	(0.7)	▽	30	(1.0)	
Finland	3	(0.3)	▽	9	(0.5)	▼	1	(0.2)	▼	14	(0.6)	▼	20	(0.9)	▼	2	(0.3)	▼	10	(0.6)	▼
Greece	8	(0.6)	▽	43	(1.6)	▲	17	(1.1)		21	(0.9)	▼	37	(1.2)		16	(0.8)	△	27	(1.2)	▽
Guatemala[1]	22	(1.0)	▲	55	(1.3)	▲	34	(1.4)	▲	64	(1.0)	▲	55	(1.4)	▲	28	(1.4)	▲	62	(1.4)	▲
Indonesia	14	(0.7)	△	61	(1.0)	▲	31	(1.2)	▲	40	(1.0)	△	50	(1.1)	▲	24	(0.9)	△	21	(0.8)	▽
Ireland	8	(0.6)	▽	10	(0.7)	▼	9	(0.7)	▽	50	(1.1)	▲	43	(1.3)	△	10	(0.7)	▽	20	(0.8)	▽
Italy	5	(0.4)	▽	26	(1.2)	▽	14	(0.7)	▽	23	(1.0)	▼	24	(0.9)	▼	11	(0.7)	▽	23	(1.0)	▽
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)	▼
Latvia	9	(0.8)		33	(1.5)	△	13	(0.8)	▽	38	(1.2)	△	22	(1.3)	▼	14	(0.8)		38	(1.5)	△
Liechtenstein	11	(1.6)		17	(2.2)	▼	14	(1.8)		26	(2.4)	▽	58	(2.7)	▲	11	(1.7)		35	(2.6)	△
Lithuania	11	(0.6)		35	(1.3)	△	15	(0.8)		23	(0.9)	▼	31	(1.2)	▽	17	(0.9)	△	25	(0.9)	▽
Luxembourg	11	(0.4)		26	(0.7)	▽	17	(0.6)		28	(0.7)	▽	52	(0.9)	▲	14	(0.4)		35	(0.8)	△
Malta	14	(0.9)	△	23	(1.0)	▽	9	(0.7)	▽	36	(1.3)		28	(1.3)	▼	16	(0.9)		17	(1.0)	▼
Mexico	15	(0.7)	△	40	(1.1)	▲	25	(0.8)	△	46	(1.0)	▲	44	(1.1)	△	22	(0.9)	△	39	(0.9)	△
New Zealand †	13	(0.9)	△	21	(1.0)	▽	7	(0.6)	▽	40	(1.4)	△	47	(1.2)	△	23	(1.1)	△	14	(0.8)	▼
Norway †	8	(0.6)	▽	13	(0.9)	▼	10	(0.7)	▽	20	(0.9)	▼	52	(1.1)	▲	12	(0.7)	▽	23	(0.7)	▽
Paraguay[1]	19	(1.0)	△	49	(1.2)	▲	31	(1.2)	▲	69	(1.0)	▲	52	(1.0)	▲	22	(1.2)	△	54	(1.0)	▲
Poland	4	(0.4)	▽	50	(1.3)	▲	17	(0.9)		36	(1.3)		47	(1.4)	△	15	(0.6)		27	(1.0)	▽
Russian Federation	11	(0.8)		39	(1.6)	△	23	(1.3)	△	30	(1.5)	▽	28	(1.2)	▼	18	(1.0)	△	62	(1.3)	▲
Slovak Republic[2]	6	(0.6)	▽	19	(1.4)	▼	12	(1.0)	▽	27	(1.3)	▽	26	(1.7)	▼	9	(1.0)	▽	24	(1.5)	▽
Slovenia	6	(0.5)	▽	28	(1.3)		10	(0.6)	▽	24	(1.0)	▽	44	(1.2)	△	13	(0.7)	▽	35	(1.0)	△
Spain	5	(0.5)	▽	18	(0.8)	▼	14	(0.8)	▽	26	(0.9)	▽	32	(1.0)	▽	7	(0.5)	▽	22	(0.9)	▽
Sweden	7	(0.5)	▽	8	(0.5)	▼	7	(0.5)	▽	14	(0.7)	▼	23	(1.0)	▼	6	(0.4)	▽	14	(0.6)	▼

Table 16: National percentages for students' civic participation in the wider community (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Having Been Involved in the Activities of ...						
	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
Switzerland †	6 (0.7) ▽	21 (1.4) ▽	13 (1.0) ▽	26 (1.1) ▽	49 (1.4) △	8 (0.8) ▽	23 (0.9) ▽
Thailand †	23 (1.1) ▲	71 (0.8) ▲	39 (1.0) ▲	57 (1.0) ▲	56 (1.0) ▲	38 (1.2) ▲	59 (1.0) ▲
ICCS average	10 (0.1)	29 (0.2)	16 (0.1)	34 (0.2)	39 (0.2)	14 (0.1)	29 (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)
Netherlands	6 (1.3)	14 (1.6)	7 (0.8)	24 (2.3)	60 (2.6)	7 (1.6)	12 (0.9)

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.
† 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 students participating in ICCS were 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 a class representative or the 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.

Table 17 shows the percentages of students who said they had participated in each of these activities in the past (either in the past 12 months or before). Students were far more likely to report school-based civic participation than involvement in activities or organizations outside of school. On average, across participating countries, 76 percent of ICCS students 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.

Expected civic participation in the future

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 et al., 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 of 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.

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

The ICCS student survey included a number of questions that required students to select one of the following responses—"I will certainly do this," "I will probably do this," "I will probably not do this," and "I will certainly not do this." More specifically, the questions asked students about their participation in a number of activities that they might do as adults, including voting in national elections.

Table 18 presents the percentages of students definitely or probably expecting to vote in national elections. Here, we can see that large majorities of target grade students in participating

Table 17: National percentages for students' civic participation at school

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Having Been Involved in the Activities of ...					
	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 canditate for class representative or school parliament
Austria	52 (1.4) ▽	25 (1.1) ▼	81 (0.9) △	30 (1.2) ▼	38 (1.1) ▽	57 (1.1) ▲
Belgium (Flemish) †	47 (1.8) ▼	31 (1.2) ▼	68 (2.0) ▽	36 (1.3) ▽	24 (0.9) ▼	34 (1.2) ▽
Bulgaria	66 (1.2) △	52 (1.4) △	52 (1.9) ▼	31 (1.2) ▽	40 (1.2) ▽	34 (1.1) ▽
Chile	70 (1.0) △	49 (1.7) △	89 (0.7) ▲	39 (1.1)	35 (1.0) ▽	47 (1.0) △
Chinese Taipei	56 (0.8) ▽	17 (0.8) ▼	67 (0.9) ▽	43 (0.7) △	84 (0.7) ▲	32 (0.9) ▽
Colombia	71 (0.9) ▲	49 (1.3) △	90 (0.5) ▲	57 (0.9) ▲	41 (0.9) ▽	44 (0.8) △
Cyprus	69 (0.9) △	55 (0.9) ▲	71 (0.8) ▽	35 (1.2) ▽	39 (0.9) ▽	67 (1.0) ▲
Czech Republic †	52 (1.2) ▽	54 (1.0) △	74 (1.9)	21 (0.9) ▼	29 (0.9) ▼	31 (1.0) ▼
Denmark †	43 (1.4) ▼	57 (1.2) ▲	73 (1.1) ▽	44 (1.0) △	20 (0.8) ▼	49 (1.0) △
Dominican Republic	62 (1.3)	66 (1.5) ▲	61 (1.5) ▼	59 (1.1) ▲	49 (1.2) △	58 (1.2) ▲
England ‡	62 (1.3)	48 (1.5) △	79 (1.2) △	55 (1.5) ▲	37 (1.4) ▽	40 (1.2)
Estonia	73 (1.2) ▲	36 (1.2) ▽	75 (1.8)	24 (1.2) ▼	25 (1.3) ▼	32 (1.5) ▼
Finland	61 (1.2)	59 (1.2) ▲	83 (1.3) △	15 (0.7) ▼	23 (1.0) ▼	35 (1.4) ▽
Greece	61 (1.4)	40 (1.1) ▽	85 (1.0) △	57 (1.1) ▲	74 (1.4) ▲	68 (1.5) ▲
Guatemala[1]	76 (1.0) ▲	56 (2.0) ▲	94 (0.8) ▲	63 (1.0) ▲	51 (1.2) △	56 (1.2) ▲
Indonesia	55 (1.4) ▽	41 (1.2) ▽	72 (1.4) ▽	57 (1.3) ▲	85 (1.0) ▲	26 (1.0) ▼
Ireland	58 (1.2) ▽	66 (1.3) ▲	76 (2.2)	38 (1.3)	28 (1.1) ▼	25 (0.9) ▼
Italy	67 (1.1) △	50 (1.3) △	49 (2.3) ▼	34 (1.5) ▽	24 (1.5) ▼	21 (1.3) ▼
Korea, Republic of[1]	23 (0.7) ▼	33 (0.9) ▼	76 (0.7)	33 (0.9) ▽	26 (0.6) ▼	33 (0.7) ▽
Latvia	77 (1.2) ▲	55 (1.6) ▲	67 (2.5) ▽	31 (1.3) ▽	31 (1.5) ▼	39 (1.6)
Liechtenstein	48 (2.9) ▼	54 (2.6) △	74 (2.5)	27 (2.6) ▼	42 (2.5)	49 (2.5) △
Lithuania	63 (1.1) △	23 (0.9) ▼	84 (0.9) △	35 (1.1) ▽	38 (1.2) ▽	30 (1.1) ▼
Luxembourg	46 (0.7) ▼	19 (0.6) ▼	63 (0.8) ▼	25 (0.6) ▼	31 (0.7) ▼	36 (0.8) ▽
Malta	70 (1.3) △	30 (1.1) ▼	62 (1.2) ▼	29 (1.0) ▼	*	24 (0.9) ▼
Mexico	59 (0.8)	48 (1.1) △	74 (0.9) ▽	54 (0.9) ▲	41 (1.0) ▽	36 (0.7) ▽
New Zealand †	64 (1.2) △	42 (1.4)	75 (1.4)	48 (1.3) △	43 (1.1)	38 (1.1) ▽
Norway †	61 (1.3)	62 (1.3) ▲	90 (0.8) ▲	58 (1.6) ▲	52 (1.3) △	62 (1.0) ▲
Paraguay[1]	73 (0.9) ▲	39 (1.3) ▽	87 (1.0) ▲	56 (1.2) ▲	54 (1.4) ▲	58 (1.3) ▲
Poland	60 (1.3)	32 (1.2) ▼	95 (0.5) ▲	57 (1.1) ▲	67 (1.1) ▲	59 (0.9)
Russian Federation	67 (1.0) △	34 (1.2) ▼	76 (1.4)	32 (1.2) ▽	45 (1.1)	28 (1.1) ▼
Slovak Republic[2]	60 (1.2)	49 (1.5) △	73 (2.3)	28 (1.2) ▼	81 (1.0) ▲	43 (1.5)
Slovenia	65 (1.3) △	41 (1.2) ▽	84 (0.8) △	28 (1.2) ▼	35 (1.4) ▽	59 (1.1) ▲
Spain	65 (1.0) △	50 (1.5) △	87 (1.0) ▲	48 (1.2) △	38 (1.3) ▽	55 (1.2) ▲

Table 17: National percentages for students' civic participation at school (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Students Reporting Having Been Involved in the Activities of:					
	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 canditate for class representative or school parliament
Sweden	59 (1.4)	42 (1.6)	85 (0.9) △	54 (1.1) ▲	53 (1.1) △	40 (1.0)
Switzerland †	56 (1.3) ▽	56 (1.5) ▲	60 (2.0) ▼	28 (1.3) ▼	40 (1.4) ▽	34 (1.4) ▽
Thailand †	64 (1.1) △	36 (1.3) ▽	79 (0.9) △	46 (1.1) △	52 (1.1) △	36 (1.0) ▽
ICCS average	61 (0.2)	44 (0.2)	76 (0.2)	40 (0.2)	43 (0.2)	42 (0.2)
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)
Netherlands	47 (2.1)	20 (2.8)	52 (4.5)	27 (2.5)	11 (0.9)	22 (2.5)

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:

* Data not available

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.

† Met guidelines for sampling paticipation 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.

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 these two groups. A similar result emerged when we compared average interest in political and social issues; 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.

The item-by-score map in Figure 5 of Appendix D shows that students with an ICCS average score of 50 did not expect to do any of these activities in later adult life. 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 local elections) 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 19 shows the national averages across 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.

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 on students' attitudes and civic engagement

The ICCS survey of student attitudes and civic engagement provided a number of interesting findings about the way students think about civic society and how they engage in it.

There was considerable variation across countries with regard to trust in civic institutions; the least-trusted institution was political parties. However, both trust and support for political parties also varied quite noticeably. Students in some countries accorded political parties higher levels of trust or support than did students in other countries. In the latter group of countries, only small minorities of students expressed confidence in political parties or stated a preference for one or more of them.

Similar to the situation in the IEA CIVED survey, ICCS showed lower secondary school students giving a generally strong endorsement to gender equality, but again there was some notable variation across countries. As was observed in CIVED, females were significantly more supportive of gender equality than were male students in all participating countries.

Table 18: National percentages for students' expectations 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
△ significantly above ICCS average
▼ more than 10 percentage points below ICCS average
▽ significantly below ICCS average

Notes:

* Statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in **bold**.
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.
† Met guidelines for sampling paticipation 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 19: National averages for students' expected participation in political activities overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Students' Expected Participation in Political Activities									
	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

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 50% probablity to expect active political participation as an adult:

	Certainly or probably **not**
	Certainly or probably

Notes:

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

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.

† Met guidelines for sampling paticipation 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.

ICCS students tended to be more interested in national than in international politics and politics in other countries. Only small minorities expressed interest in the latter. While gender differences in interest were generally small and inconsistent across countries, there were a few countries where these differences were statistically significant.

Not unexpectedly, active civic participation in the wider community was not very common among the students. Civic participation at school, however, tended to be much more frequent; large majorities of students said they had voted in class or school elections.

When the participating students were asked about their expectations with regard to civic participation as adults, a large majority of them across the participating countries said they intended to vote in national elections; only a minority expected to engage in more active forms of participation, such as standing as candidates, helping in campaigns, and joining parties or trade unions. As in previous civic education studies, expectations to vote were positively associated with both civic knowledge and interest in political and social issues. In many countries, male students were more likely than female students to say that they expected to become politically active adult citizens.

5. The roles of schools and communities

The ICCS assessment framework (Schulz et al., 2008) posited that civic and citizenship education outcomes may be influenced by factors associated with different levels of context, including family background, classrooms, schools, and the wider community. At the school level, the following factors are likely to be important: the instruction students receive, how teachers perceive civic and citizenship education, the classroom climate for respectful discussion, the school culture, and the general environment in which the school exists. The level of the wider community includes the contexts within which schools and home environments function. These contexts range from the local community context to the national or even supra-national context.

In this initial report on ICCS, we address only selected aspects connected with ICCS Research Question 5—"What aspects of schools and education systems are related to civic and citizenship knowledge and attitudes to civics and citizenship?" The areas we focus on are implementation and aims of civic and citizenship education, student activities in the local community, and students' perceptions of openness in classroom climate. The broad range of additional aspects regarding the school and community context for civic and citizenship learning will be presented and discussed in the extended international report on ICCS (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming).

Implementation and aims of civic and citizenship education

The national case studies in the IEA CIVED survey (Torney-Purta et al., 1999) showed that the status of and the priority given to civic and citizenship education were generally low across countries. Some other studies (e.g., Birzea et al., 2004) show that even when civic and citizenship education is recognized as one of the most important aims of the school, there is a gap between declarations of principle and actual implementation of civic-related policies.

The approaches that countries take to civic and citizenship education vary (Eurydice, 2005; Cox et al., 2005). In those education systems that allow schools to exercise a comparatively high level of autonomy in their development and delivery, schools are generally able to decide which approach to use in relation to civic and citizenship education (Eurydice, 2007). Thus, it is 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 schools, how school principals perceived the importance of the aims of this area of education, and how the school assigned specific responsibilities for this area of education.

In particular, 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;
- Taught as an extra-curricular activity;
- Integrated into all subjects taught at the school;
- Considered to be part of the outcomes of school experience as a whole;
- Not considered to be part of the school curriculum.

Table 20 sets out the different approaches (in percentages of students) that the participating schools adopted when delivering civic and citizenship education. As 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 participating students were attending schools whose principals reported that, regardless of the specific approaches adopted, civic and citizenship education was seen 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, relationships within the school and the classrooms).

The most widespread approach across the countries was to entrust 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 were equal to or greater than 90 percent. 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 extra-curricular activities was particularly widespread in Latvia, Lithuania, the Republic of Korea, and the Russian Federation.

In Cyprus, the Dominican Republic, Greece, Guatemala, Luxembourg, and Mexico, consistently 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 schools' curriculum, and does not necessarily mean that these schools had no provision for teaching this subject area.

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 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 21 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.

Table 20: Schools' approaches to teaching civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of students)

Country	Percentages of Students at Schools Where Civic and Citizenship Education Is ...					
	taught as 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 extra-curricular 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)
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)

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.
* Not applicable.
† Met guidelines for sampling paticipation 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 21: Teachers' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of teachers)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Considering the Following To Be an Important Aim of Civic and Citizenship Education ...									
	promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions	promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment	promoting the capacity to defend one's own point of view	developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution	promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities	promoting students' participation in the <local community>	promoting students' critical and independent thinking	promoting students' participation in school life	supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia	preparing students for future political 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[1]	38 (1.4)	50 (1.5)	18 (1.0)	43 (1.4)	63 (1.5)	12 (1.0)	41 (1.6)	15 (1.5)	16 (1.5)	1 (0.3)
Slovenia	24 (1.0)	55 (1.0)	31 (0.9)	40 (1.0)	49 (1.1)	5 (0.5)	64 (1.0)	17 (1.0)	13 (0.7)	1 (0.2)
Spain	17 (1.0)	32 (1.3)	22 (1.1)	57 (1.5)	61 (1.3)	3 (0.4)	67 (1.4)	13 (0.9)	23 (1.2)	3 (0.5)
Sweden †	16 (1.1)	37 (1.3)	24 (1.2)	30 (1.2)	62 (1.6)	2 (0.4)	84 (0.9)	10 (0.8)	31 (1.3)	2 (0.4)
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 21: Teachers' ratings of the most important aims of civic and citizenship education (in national percentages of teachers) (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Considering the Following To Be an Important Aim of Civic and Citizenship Education ...									
	promoting knowledge of social, political, and civic institutions	promoting respect for and safeguard of the environment	promoting the capacity to defend one's own point of view	developing students' skills and competencies in conflict resolution	promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities	promoting students' participation in the <local community>	promoting students' critical and independent thinking	promoting students' participation in school life	supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia	preparing students for future political 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)

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.

† Met guidelines for sampling paticipation 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.

Teachers rarely named, as important, objectives related to the development of active participation. However, we need to remember that the teacher sample for ICCS consisted of all teachers teaching at the target grade across different subject areas. As such, few, if any, social science or civic education teachers may have been included among the participating teachers in some countries or schools.

There were notable differences across the participating countries in teachers' perceptions of which aims of civic and citizenship education are the most important aims. The highest percentages of teachers viewing "promoting knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities" as one of 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, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Poland, and the Republic of Korea identified the second objective as one of the three most important aims.

Student activities in the local community

The researchers who developed the model that guided CIVED recognized the importance of students' daily lives in their social, civic, and political contexts (Torney-Purta et al., 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 pursuits organized by the school in the local community:

- Activities related to the environment and 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 AIDS World Day, World No Tobacco Day;
- Activities related to improving facilities for the local community;
- Participation in sport events.

Table 22 shows the percentages of teachers who said they had participated with their target grade students in each of these activities. In almost all countries, majorities of teachers reported that they had participated with their target grade classes in cultural activities such as theatre, music, and cinema. In most participating countries (with the exception of Chile and Cyprus), the majority stated that they had participated in sports events with their target grade classes.

Table 22: Teachers' reports on participation of target grade classes in community activities (in national percentages of teachers)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Reporting Having Taken Part with Their Target Grade Classes in ...								
	activities related to the environment geared to the local area	human rights projects	activities related to 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 <AIDS World Day, World No Tobacco Day>	activities related to improving facilities for the <local community>	participating in sports events	any 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 22: Teacher reports on participation of target grade classes in community activities (in national percentages of teachers) (contd.)

Country	Percentages of Teachers Reporting Having Taken Part with Their Target Grade Classes in ...								
	activities related to the environment geared to the local area	human rights projects	activities related to 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 <AIDS World Day, World No Tobacco Day>	activities related to improving facilities for the <local community>	participating in sports events	any 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)

Notes:

( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.
† Met guidelines for sampling paticipation 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.

Participation in national campaigns on specific issues (such as AIDS World Day, No Tobacco Day) and activities in the local area related to the environment appeared to be fairly widespread across the participating countries. Participation in projects for the defense of human rights or activities in support of underprivileged people or groups was less common, except for 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 almost all participating countries, the percentages of teachers who said they had not participated in any of these initiatives with their target grade classes were comparatively low. However, these percentages were equal to or higher than 10 percent in Chile, Chinese Taipei, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Finland, Ireland, the Republic of Korea, Liechtenstein, Poland, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden.

Student perceptions of classroom climate

Student learning in the area of civic and citizenship education is influenced by how it is taught and its purposes as well as by students' direct experience of school. Scholars often claim that democratic principles at schools foster the learning of democratic principles in general (see, for example, Mosher, Kenny, & Garrod, 1994; Pasek et al., 2008). The extent to which classrooms are "open" (receptive) to discussions in the classroom is a factor that may have an important influence on learning in this area. This notion has been the focus of many secondary analyses of CIVED data (e.g., Torney-Purta, 2009; Torney-Purta et al., 2008).

The first IEA study on civic education in 1971 (Torney et al., 1975) found that "independence of opinion encouraged in the classroom" was positively related to civic knowledge. The IEA 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 (see Schulz, 2004a). Significant gender differences emerged, and the scale was found to be a positive predictor of civic knowledge and students' expectations to vote as an adult (Amadeo et al., 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 in Appendix D presents an item-by-score map for students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussions. It shows that, on average across countries, students reported that most of these events occurred at least "sometimes." The percentages of students who "often" observed these events ranged from 52 ("encouraged to express opinions") to 11 percent ("students bringing up current events in class").

Table 23: National averages for students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussions overall and by gender

Country	Gender Differences for Students' Perceptions of Openness in Classroom Discussions												30 40 50 60 70
	All students			Females		Males		Differences (males-females)*					
Austria	48	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.4)	46	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.4)				
Belgium (Flemish) †	49	(0.3)	▽	51	(0.4)	48	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.5)				
Bulgaria	48	(0.4)	▽	50	(0.4)	46	(0.4)	**-4**	(0.5)				
Chile	52	(0.3)	△	54	(0.3)	51	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.3)				
Chinese Taipei	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.3)				
Colombia	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-1**	(0.3)				
Cyprus	51	(0.3)	△	52	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.4)				
Czech Republic †	49	(0.2)	▽	51	(0.2)	47	(0.3)	**-4**	(0.3)				
Denmark †	55	(0.3)	▲	56	(0.3)	54	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.4)				
Dominican Republic	47	(0.3)	▽	48	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.3)				
England ‡	53	(0.3)	▲	54	(0.4)	52	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.5)				
Estonia	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.3)				
Finland	49	(0.2)	▽	50	(0.2)	49	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.3)				
Greece	51	(0.3)	△	52	(0.3)	50	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)				
Guatemala[1]	53	(0.2)	△	54	(0.3)	52	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.4)				
Indonesia	55	(0.3)	▲	56	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	**-4**	(0.3)				
Ireland	52	(0.3)	△	55	(0.3)	50	(0.4)	**-4**	(0.4)				
Italy	54	(0.3)	▲	56	(0.3)	53	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.3)				
Korea, Republic of[1]	38	(0.2)	▼	39	(0.3)	38	(0.3)	**-1**	(0.3)				
Latvia	51	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.4)				
Liechtenstein	48	(0.5)	▽	50	(0.7)	47	(0.7)	**-3**	(1.0)				
Lithuania	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	**-4**	(0.4)				
Luxembourg	48	(0.2)	▽	49	(0.2)	47	(0.2)	**-2**	(0.3)				
Malta	46	(0.2)	▼	47	(0.4)	44	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.4)				
Mexico	50	(0.2)		51	(0.3)	49	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.3)				
New Zealand †	53	(0.3)	▲	55	(0.4)	51	(0.4)	**-4**	(0.6)				
Norway †	52	(0.3)	△	53	(0.4)	51	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.4)				
Paraguay[1]	49	(0.3)	▽	50	(0.3)	48	(0.3)	**-2**	(0.3)				
Poland	51	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	**-4**	(0.3)				
Russian Federation	49	(0.3)	▽	51	(0.3)	47	(0.3)	**-5**	(0.3)				
Slovak Republic[2]	50	(0.3)		52	(0.2)	48	(0.3)	**-3**	(0.3)				
Slovenia	50	(0.3)		52	(0.3)	48	(0.4)	**-4**	(0.4)				
Spain	48	(0.2)	▽	50	(0.3)	46	(0.3)	**-4**	(0.4)				
Sweden	51	(0.3)	△	53	(0.3)	49	(0.4)	**-3**	(0.4)				
Switzerland †	48	(0.3)	▽	49	(0.3)	47	(0.4)	**-2**	(0.4)				
Thailand †	51	(0.2)	△	53	(0.2)	49	(0.3)	**-4**	(0.3)				
ICCS average	50	(0.0)		51	(0.1)	49	(0.1)	**-3**	(0.1)				
Countries not meeting sampling requirements													
Hong Kong SAR	53	(0.4)		54	(0.5)	52	(0.5)	**-2**	(0.5)				
Netherlands	49	(0.5)		49	(0.5)	48	(0.5)	**-2**	(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% probablity of reporting the occurrence of things indicating openness in classroom discussions:

	Never or rarely
	Sometimes or often

Notes:

* Statistically significant gender differences ($p < 0.05$) 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.

The comparison of national scale score averages across the ICCS countries in Table 23 shows that, in most countries, the average student reported that the events listed happened at least "sometimes" during discussions of political and social issues in any of his or her regular lessons. The countries with scale scores three or more points higher than the ICCS average included Denmark, England, Indonesia, Italy, and New Zealand. Malta and the Republic of Korea had the lowest national average scores.

There were noticeable gender differences in the students' perceptions of classroom climate. In all ICCS countries, females perceived classroom climate as more open than did males. On average, across countries, there was a three-point difference between the two gender groups.

Summary of findings on the role of schools and communities

ICCS collected data on school and community context through surveys of principals, teachers, and students regarding different factors relevant to student learning in the area of 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 was linked in with the local community, and how open the classroom climate was for discussions of political and social issues.

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 education system. 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.

According to the teachers' reports, participation by the target grade students in civic-related activities was relatively widespread across the ICCS countries. Among the activities, sports events and cultural activities were the most common; only minorities of teachers reported student involvement in human rights projects or activities to help the underprivileged.

The ICCS students reported that activities reflecting openness for discussions of political and social issues occurred at least sometimes during their regular classroom lessons. As was observed in relation to the CIVED data, females were more likely than males to see their classrooms as receptive to openness.

6. The influences of family background

Research findings often emphasize the role 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 is an influential variable in regard to the political development of adolescents (Sherrod et al., 2010). The role of family background appears to be influential in providing a more stimulating environment and in enhancing the educational attainment and future prospects of adolescents—factors that, in turn, foster political involvement among individuals.

ICCS took into account the influence of family background on outcomes of civic and citizenship education. This section thus relates to Research Question 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?" We explore, in this section, the influence of key aspects of family background on students' civic knowledge and interest in politics and social issues. The extended report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming) will provide a more detailed investigation of the effects of family background. It will consider outcome variables and indicators of family context not considered in this present report.

The measures of family background investigated in this section include immigrant background (as a measure of cultural and ethnic background), parental occupational status (as one aspect of socioeconomic background), and parental interest in social and political issues (as an aspect of cultural background). We first present the results of analyses directed toward determining the association of these measures of family background with civic knowledge. We then report the results of regression analyses that we conducted in order to examine the combined influence and the net effects of these measures.

Because we replicated each analysis for each ICCS country, we were able to compare the strength of the relationships between outcomes and background measures across the participating systems. The results made it possible not only to observe general patterns but also to examine the extent to which the strength of relationships varied among countries.

Immigrant background

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 et al., 2000). 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. Furthermore, ethnic minorities often have a lower socioeconomic status, a variable that correlates highly with learning and engagement (Fuligni, 1997; Kao & Thomson, 2003). 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 et al., 2010).

One set of the analyses reported in this publication is based on a trichotomous measure that used the place of birth of the student[9] and of his or her parents. 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.

9 Note that students who were not proficient in the test language were excluded from the ICCS survey.

In addition to exploring the differences across these three categories, we used a variable with two categories (0 = students with no immigrant background, 1 = student with immigrant background) as a predictor in our regression analysis.

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. We did this to ensure that our report was not 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 24 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 had been born in another country. There was considerable variation across countries: Luxembourg and Hong Kong SAR had the highest percentages of students with an immigrant background, with 43 percent and 36 percent respectively. High percentages of students from immigrant families were also found in New Zealand and Switzerland (76% and 77% respectively). In contrast, several countries had very few students with an immigrant background.

Students with no immigrant background typically scored higher than other students on the civic knowledge scale. As is evident in Table 24, the ICCS average for the difference was 37 scale points, and the effect was statistically significant in 22 out of the 38 countries. However, the difference accounted for an average of less than two percent of the variance in student scores. There were also differences among the three categories of students. In general, students with no immigrant background scored higher (the ICCS average was 505 points) than students with parents who had been born abroad (the ICCS average was 476 points). This second group of students, in turn, scored higher than students who themselves were born abroad (the ICCS average was 464 points).

Although the size of the difference between students with or without an immigrant background varied across countries, in every system except Hong Kong SAR, the pattern was for students without such a background to score higher than students from immigrant families. The largest difference was 67 scale points in Denmark, followed by Mexico, where the difference was 62 scale points, and a number of countries for which the difference was between 50 and 60 scale points.

Parental occupational status

Parental occupational status is an important aspect of socioeconomic background, a construct that is usually viewed as being manifest in occupation, education, and wealth (Hauser, 1994). Socioeconomic background is widely regarded in the literature as an important correlate of a range of learning outcomes (Sirin, 2005). Caveats relating to the validity and cross-national comparability of socioeconomic background measures are typically imposed on researchers conducting international studies (Buchmann, 2002).

With respect to the ICCS data, we coded parental occupations, as reported by students in response to constructed-response questions, according to the ISCO-88 classification (International Labour Organisation, 1990).[10] We then transformed this classification into a score on the International Socio-economic Index (ISEI) of occupational status (Ganzeboom, de Graaf, & Trieman, 1992). When students provided data for two parents, we used the highest SEI score as an indicator of parental occupational status.

10 Shortly before the start of ICCS, a new ISCO classification was released (ISCO-08). However, it was not possible to implement, prior to data collection, this new classification scheme and a revised transformation in the ISEI.

Table 24: Percentages of students in categories of immigrant background and its effects on civic knowledge

Country	Students with No Immigrant Background		Students with Parents Born Abroad		Students Born Abroad		Effect of Immigrant Status (0=non-immigrant; 1=immigrant) 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)	^	^	^
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.

^ Number of students too small to report group averages.

† 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 25: Percentages of students in categories of parental occupational status and its effects 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.

† 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 26: Percentages of students in categories of highest parental interest in political and social issues and its effects on civic knowledge

Country	Students with Parents Who Were ...									
	very interested		quite interested		not very interested		not interested at all			
	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Difference in score points by parental interest (very or quite interested vs. others)*	Variance explained
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 (0.8)
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 (0.6)
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 (0.4)
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 (0.5)
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 (0.3)
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 (0.4)
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 (0.5)
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 (0.7)
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 (0.8)
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 (0.2)
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 (0.9)
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 (0.7)
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 (0.6)
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 (0.9)
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 (0.5)
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 (0.4)
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 (0.8)
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 (0.6)
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 (0.4)
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 (0.5)
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 (2.5)
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 (0.4)
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 (1.0)
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 (0.8)
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 (0.3)
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 (0.5)
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 (0.8)
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 (0.6)
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 (0.3)

Table 26: Percentages of students in categories of highest parental interest in political and social issues and its effects on civic knowledge (contd.)

Country	Students with Parents Who Were ...									
	very interested		quite interested		not very interested		not interested at all			
	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Percentages	Mean civic Knowledge	Difference in score points by parental interest (very or quite interested vs. others)*	Variance explained
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 (0.5)
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 (0.8)
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 (0.8)
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 (0.7)
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 (0.6)
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 (0.8)
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 (0.2)
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 (0.1)
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 (0.5)
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 (1.2)

Notes:

* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.
^ Number of students too small to report group average scores.
† Met guidelines for sampling paticipation 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 SEI scale is continuous and ranges from 16 to 90. For some of the analyses (both those presented here and those that will appear in the extended report), we divided the SEI scale into three categories 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, valid SEI scores were generated for 96 percent of the participating students.

Table 25 shows the percentages for each category of parental occupation. On average, across countries, 36 percent of parents of students had "low," 40 percent "medium," and 23 percent "high" occupational status. Civic knowledge was strongly associated with parental occupational status in all countries. As shown in Table 25, there was a difference of 72 scale points between students with parents in the high occupational status category and students with parents in the low category. However, the range varied considerably across countries.

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 had an effect of 29 scale points on the civic knowledge scale. (The regression coefficients can be interpreted as an indicator 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. Countries in which the effect of parental occupational status on civic knowledge was 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, Hong Kong SAR, Indonesia, and Latvia.

On average, across ICCS countries, parental occupational status accounted for 10 percent of the variance in scores on the civic knowledge scale. However, there were considerable differences in this percentage across countries. It ranged from 0.5 percent (Hong Kong SAR) to 20 percent (Bulgaria and Liechtenstein).

Parental interest in social and political issues

There is evidence that young people with parents who are interested in civic issues or who engage them in political discussions tend to have higher levels of civic knowledge and engagement (Lauglo & Øia, 2006; Richardson, 2003). Given this evidence, ICCS asked students to what extent their mother and father were interested in political and social issues. Interest was rated using the four response categories "not interested at all" (coded as 0), "not very interested" (coded as 1), "quite interested" (coded as 2), and "very interested" (coded as 3). The highest value recorded by each student was used in an index of parental interest.

On average, across the ICCS countries, the percentages in each category were 3, 26, 48, and 23 percent (see Table 26). Students whose parents were reported to be interested in social and political issues scored higher on the civic knowledge assessment. Table 26 also shows the mean civic knowledge scores for each of the four categories of parental interest in social and political issues. 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 did not appear to be 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. However, this pattern differed 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.

There is some evidence in the literature that parents may convey their cultural orientations to their children (see, for example, Vollebergh et al., 2001). This influence of parents on their children could be reflected in the children's knowledge of, and interest in, civic and citizenship matters. However, in ICCS, the civic knowledge scores of students who considered their parents to be "very interested" in these matters were much the same as the scores of students who thought their parents were "quite interested."

Because of the non-linear association between student 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 were "not very interested" and a value of 1 for students who reported 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 over 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 the Czech Republic (4%). In contrast, in the Dominican Republic, Mexico, and Thailand, this predictor explained almost none of the variance in civic knowledge.

Combined influences of family background

We used regression analyses to investigate the combined effects of these three family background measures on civic knowledge. 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 three as follows:

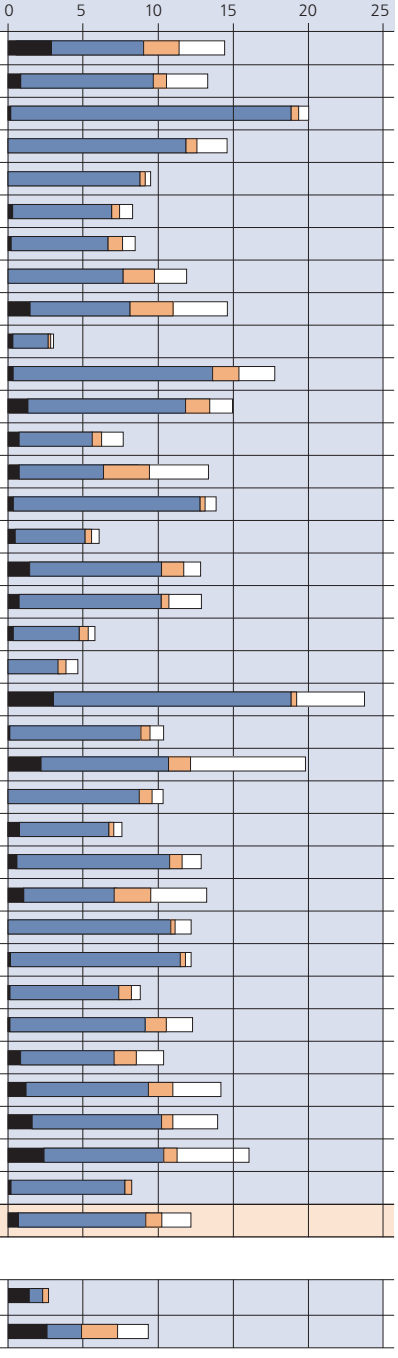
- *Immigrant background:* Students who were born abroad or born in the country of the test but whose parents had been born abroad were assigned a code of 1; all other students were assigned a code of 0.
- *Parental occupational status:* SEI scores were standardized to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 across equally weighted ICCS countries.
- *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.

The regression coefficients and the percentage of variance explained are shown in Table 27. On average, the combination of the three family background measures accounted for 12 percent of the variance in student civic knowledge scores within a country. This statistic varied between 3 percent (Dominican Republic) and 24 percent (Liechtenstein).

Use of different indicators of family background in a regression model can result in more than one predictor explaining the variance in the criterion variable. It is possible to estimate how much of the explained variance is attributable uniquely to each of the predictors and how much of this variance is explained by these variables in combination.

Table 27: Regression models for civic knowledge predicted by immigrant background, parental occupation, and parental interest

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients*				
	Immigrant background (0=non-immigrant; 1=immigrant)	Parental occupation (SEI score)	Parental interest (0=not or not very interested; 1=quite or very interested)	Percentage of explained variance	Proportion of unique variance explained by each factor and of variance explained by more than one factor
Austria	**-41.4** (6.0)	**26.0** (2.7)	**36.6** (5.4)	14 (1.6)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	**-24.4** (5.4)	**26.2** (2.4)	**15.6** (3.2)	13 (1.9)	
Bulgaria	-19.1 (16.8)	**45.8** (3.3)	**15.8** (4.3)	20 (2.2)	
Chile	7.1 (11.9)	**31.9** (2.0)	**15.0** (3.0)	15 (1.5)	
Chinese Taipei	-5.8 (19.0)	**30.2** (2.0)	**10.4** (2.5)	10 (1.2)	
Colombia	**-56.2** (16.0)	**20.8** (1.8)	**9.7** (2.6)	8 (1.2)	
Cyprus	-13.8 (8.3)	**24.3** (1.8)	**19.3** (4.2)	9 (1.1)	
Czech Republic †	-4.0 (11.8)	**29.9** (2.0)	**26.1** (2.8)	12 (1.3)	
Denmark †	**-44.2** (8.3)	**27.4** (2.1)	**39.4** (4.4)	15 (1.2)	
Dominican Republic	**-27.2** (9.8)	**9.8** (1.6)	5.8 (3.0)	3 (0.9)	
England ‡	-14.7 (8.6)	**39.0** (3.6)	**30.0** (5.3)	18 (2.3)	
Estonia	**-41.4** (9.0)	**30.2** (2.6)	**24.6** (3.7)	15 (2.0)	
Finland	**-49.7** (11.8)	**19.5** (1.8)	**16.0** (4.1)	8 (1.2)	
Greece	**-28.8** (8.0)	**23.9** (2.7)	**37.6** (4.4)	13 (1.6)	
Guatemala[1]	**-27.4** (11.0)	**32.4** (4.4)	**9.3** (3.4)	14 (3.7)	
Indonesia	**-36.2** (11.1)	**15.2** (2.4)	**11.1** (3.7)	6 (1.7)	
Ireland	**-37.5** (6.7)	**30.6** (2.9)	**29.7** (5.7)	13 (1.7)	
Italy	**-27.6** (9.3)	**28.6** (1.9)	**16.2** (4.6)	13 (1.4)	
Korea, Republic of[1]	**-158.9** (36.4)	**19.0** (1.9)	**21.7** (5.1)	6 (1.0)	
Latvia	-4.3 (12.2)	**14.9** (2.3)	**16.7** (5.6)	5 (1.1)	
Liechtenstein	**-32.4** (9.9)	**36.4** (4.7)	13.6 (12.6)	24 (3.7)	
Lithuania	-17.3 (10.8)	**24.1** (1.8)	**17.7** (4.0)	10 (1.4)	
Luxembourg	**-30.4** (4.5)	**29.7** (1.9)	**25.2** (4.4)	20 (1.6)	
Malta	-6.1 (21.0)	**28.3** (2.8)	**20.3** (6.6)	10 (1.7)	
Mexico	**-51.7** (8.7)	**19.2** (1.8)	3.7 (3.2)	8 (1.3)	
New Zealand †	**-19.2** (5.2)	**35.8** (3.0)	**24.6** (5.1)	13 (1.8)	
Norway †	**-32.1** (7.7)	**25.2** (2.3)	**35.8** (4.3)	13 (1.5)	
Paraguay[1]	-0.5 (13.3)	**27.1** (2.8)	10.2 (5.4)	12 (2.2)	
Poland	18.2 (13.4)	**35.4** (2.3)	**16.6** (5.7)	12 (1.6)	
Russian Federation	-7.4 (7.3)	**24.6** (2.3)	**19.6** (4.6)	9 (1.4)	
Slovak Republic[2]	-16.5 (18.0)	**30.6** (2.5)	**20.7** (4.4)	12 (1.6)	
Slovenia	**-25.8** (5.2)	**21.5** (1.7)	**23.1** (4.2)	10 (1.2)	
Spain	**-31.1** (8.3)	**23.6** (1.8)	**22.5** (3.7)	14 (1.6)	
Sweden	**-36.2** (6.6)	**29.9** (2.5)	**18.3** (4.6)	14 (1.7)	
Switzerland †	**-31.1** (4.9)	**24.6** (2.1)	**21.0** (5.8)	16 (1.9)	
Thailand †	12.3 (14.8)	**24.6** (2.8)	**10.0** (3.7)	8 (1.7)	
ICCS average	**-26.7** (2.1)	**26.8** (0.4)	**19.7** (0.8)	12 (0.3)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements					
Hong Kong SAR	**26.1** (5.4)	**10.3** (3.8)	**14.7** (4.5)	3 (0.7)	
Netherlands	**-44.1** (13.1)	**14.7** (4.5)	**31.2** (6.8)	3 (1.6)	



■ Variance uniquely explained by immigrant status ■ Variance uniquely explained by parental occupation
■ Variance uniquely explained by parental interest □ Variance explained by all factors

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.

We did this, in the model used here, by comparing the variance explanation of three additional regression models (each without one of the three predictors) with the model that had all predictors in combination. The difference between each of the comparison models with the full model provided an estimate of the unique variance attributable to each variable, that is, the difference between the sums of unique variances. The explained variance by all predictors provided an estimate of the common variance attributable to more than one variable.

Of the three family background measures investigated, the most consistent predictor of civic knowledge was parental occupational status. On average, parental occupational status uniquely accounted for eight percent of the variance in civic knowledge compared to only one percent for each of the other two predictors—parental interest and immigrant background. Two percent was the common variance attributable to all of these factors in combination. The results also confirmed observations from the bivariate analyses shown previously in this report that the influence of parental occupational status on civic knowledge was greatest in Bulgaria, England, and Liechtenstein.

In Section 4 of this report, we described the ICCS scale concerned with student interest in politics and social issues and presented the average scores on this scale in relation to participation. The scale has a metric with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 for equally weighted ICCS countries.

Table 28 presents the results of our multiple regression analysis of this scale with respect to immigrant background, parental occupational status, and parental interest in politics and social issues. The results indicated very little association of student interest in political and social issues with immigrant background or parental occupational status. In general, students with an immigrant background expressed slightly greater interest in politics and social issues than did students with a non-immigrant background. The average difference was 1.3 scale points (i.e., 0.1 of a standard deviation), but the magnitude differed among countries. The effect was greatest in Norway and Sweden, where the difference was greater than four points or 0.4 of a standard deviation. Parental occupational status had only a weak influence on student interest in politics and social issues. Immigrant background and parental occupation status each uniquely explained less than half a percent of the variance in student interest in politics and social issues.

The data also showed, across ICCS countries, small to moderate effects of parental interest in politics and social issues on student interest in politics and social issues. On average, whether students had at least one parent who was quite interested or very interested or not had a net effect of six points on the student interest scale. Parental interest uniquely explained almost eight percent of the variance in these scale scores across ICCS countries. In the Czech Republic, England, and Estonia, parental interest accounted for approximately 12 percent of the variance in student interest. Among the three predictors, parental interest appeared to be the strongest predictor of student interest in political and social issues.

Summary of findings on the influence of family background

Our examination of ICCS data indicated that aspects of family background influence students' civic knowledge. The aspect of family background most strongly and consistently associated with civic knowledge was parental occupational status. However, the strength of this association varied considerably across countries. In some countries, there was relatively little difference in the civic knowledge scores of those students whose parents had high-status occupations and those whose parents had low-status occupations. In other countries, there was a rather larger difference associated with parental occupational status. There were also associations between civic knowledge and immigrant background and between civic knowledge and parental interest in political and social issues.

Table 28: Regression models for students' interest in political and social issues predicted by immigrant background, parental occupation, and parental interest

Country	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients*				
	Immigrant background (0=non-immigrant; 1=immigrant)	Parental occupation (SEI score)	Parental interest (0=not or not very interested; 1=quite or very interested)	Percentage of explained variance	Proportion of unique variance explained by each factor and of variance explained by more than one factor (0 5 10 15 20 25)
Austria	**1.4** (0.4)	**0.7** (0.2)	**7.0** (0.5)	9 (1.0)	
Belgium (Flemish) †	**3.7** (0.8)	-0.5 (0.3)	**6.7** (0.5)	10 (1.2)	
Bulgaria	-2.2 (3.5)	**-0.6** (0.2)	**5.5** (0.5)	7 (1.2)	
Chile	-0.2 (1.8)	**-0.5** (0.1)	**5.8** (0.3)	9 (0.8)	
Chinese Taipei	-1.5 (1.7)	**1.2** (0.2)	**5.0** (0.2)	8 (0.7)	
Colombia	3.0 (1.6)	**-0.8** (0.1)	**5.6** (0.3)	8 (0.7)	
Cyprus	**2.6** (0.9)	0.1 (0.3)	**5.9** (0.5)	6 (0.9)	
Czech Republic †	0.9 (0.9)	**0.7** (0.2)	**5.9** (0.3)	11 (0.9)	
Denmark †	**3.1** (0.8)	**1.3** (0.2)	**6.5** (0.4)	12 (1.1)	
Dominican Republic	1.1 (1.4)	-0.3 (0.2)	**3.5** (0.4)	3 (0.6)	
England ‡	**3.5** (0.6)	**0.7** (0.2)	**7.7** (0.5)	16 (1.6)	
Estonia	1.1 (0.8)	0.2 (0.2)	**6.0** (0.4)	12 (1.2)	
Finland	**3.6** (1.2)	**0.5** (0.2)	**7.3** (0.4)	12 (1.2)	
Greece	0.1 (0.6)	**0.6** (0.2)	**5.4** (0.5)	7 (1.0)	
Guatemala[1]	0.1 (1.0)	**-1.3** (0.2)	**4.4** (0.3)	9 (1.1)	
Indonesia	-0.7 (0.8)	0.2 (0.2)	**4.0** (0.4)	5 (0.8)	
Ireland	**2.8** (0.7)	0.3 (0.2)	**7.8** (0.5)	10 (1.0)	
Italy	1.1 (0.8)	**0.4** (0.2)	**5.2** (0.4)	5 (0.9)	
Korea, Republic of[1]	**-11.2** (2.1)	**0.9** (0.1)	**5.9** (0.5)	5 (0.7)	
Latvia	2.3 (1.2)	0.0 (0.2)	**4.7** (0.5)	5 (1.1)	
Liechtenstein	0.6 (0.9)	**1.2** (0.5)	**7.0** (1.5)	13 (4.1)	
Lithuania	1.7 (1.0)	0.2 (0.2)	**6.4** (0.6)	7 (1.2)	
Luxembourg	**2.9** (0.4)	0.2 (0.2)	**6.1** (0.4)	8 (0.8)	
Malta	2.3 (1.8)	0.0 (0.3)	**5.6** (0.6)	7 (1.4)	
Mexico	**2.3** (0.9)	**-0.8** (0.1)	**4.8** (0.3)	6 (0.7)	
New Zealand †	**3.3** (0.5)	0.2 (0.2)	**7.5** (0.6)	11 (1.2)	
Norway †	**4.6** (0.6)	**1.3** (0.2)	**7.0** (0.5)	11 (1.4)	
Paraguay[1]	1.1 (1.0)	**-0.5** (0.2)	**4.3** (0.4)	6 (0.9)	
Poland	2.9 (1.9)	0.3 (0.2)	**7.1** (0.5)	8 (1.1)	
Russian Federation	0.6 (0.6)	**0.4** (0.2)	**5.2** (0.4)	8 (1.2)	
Slovak Republic[2]	-1.9 (1.9)	-0.2 (0.2)	**6.0** (0.4)	10 (1.2)	
Slovenia	-0.5 (0.7)	-0.4 (0.2)	**5.6** (0.4)	5 (0.8)	
Spain	**2.4** (0.7)	**-0.4** (0.2)	**5.4** (0.4)	7 (0.9)	
Sweden	**4.6** (0.6)	**1.0** (0.3)	**7.7** (0.4)	14 (1.5)	
Switzerland †	**3.0** (0.4)	0.0 (0.2)	**6.4** (0.6)	10 (1.6)	
Thailand †	1.2 (0.7)	-0.2 (0.1)	**3.5** (0.5)	3 (0.7)	
ICCS average	**1.3** (0.2)	**0.2** (0.0)	**5.9** (0.1)	8 (0.2)	
Countries not meeting sampling requirements					
Hong Kong SAR	**1.2** (0.4)	0.3 (0.2)	**5.7** (0.5)	8 (1.3)	
Netherlands	**3.3** (1.0)	0.5 (0.3)	**6.1** (0.6)	11 (1.3)	

■ Variance uniquely explained by immigrant status ■ Variance uniquely explained by parent occupation
■ Variance uniquely explained by parental interest □ Variance explained by all factors

Notes:
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses.
* Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) coefficients in **bold**.
† 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.

Our analyses of these data from ICCS also showed that immigrant or socioeconomic background (measured through parental occupational status) had little influence on student interest in politics and social issues, whereas reported parental interest in politics and social issues had "somewhat" of an influence. There is much more to be understood about how interactions in homes shape students' interests. However, the findings from these initial analyses show that this effect is independent of any concomitant influences of socioeconomic backgrounds.

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 education in schools but also to broader aspects of social participation. The extended international report (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, forthcoming) will explore these issues in greater detail.

7. Summary and discussion

The 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 preparation for citizenship roles involves developing relevant knowledge and understanding as well as forming 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 from the study (Schulz et al., 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.

This current report on the first findings from ICCS documented differences among countries in relation to the above outcomes. It also documented differences in the relationship of those outcomes to characteristics of countries as well as in the relationship of these outcomes with student characteristics and school contexts.

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).

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. The results from ICCS showed considerable variation across countries in the extent of this form of knowledge. The average scores for countries ranged from 380 to 576; a range that is almost two standard deviations. The difference between the bottom quartile and the top quartile (i.e., covering the middle half of the averages for countries) was 60 scale points. There was even greater variation in civic knowledge scores within 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 is great potential for researchers to conduct work directed at interpreting these differences in terms of policies and practices in civic and citizenship education.

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 the study of civic education known as CIVED (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). ICCS included some of the same items from that study, making it possible to compare the "civic content knowledge" (a sub-set of the overall civic knowledge assessment) scores in 1999 and 2009 for 15 of the countries that participated in both studies.

The comparison suggested a decline in a number of the 15 countries in civic content knowledge since 1999. This finding must, however, be interpreted with caution, given the limitations with regard to the smaller set of available link items and their restricted content coverage and changes in test design. At this stage, it is not possible to offer an explanation for this 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 ICCS participating students 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. This report on first findings from ICCS focused on trust in civic institutions, support for political parties, attitudes to gender equality, interest in political and social issues, past or current civic participation in the wider community and at school, and expected political participation as adults.

There was some variation across countries with regard to trust in civic institutions. Political parties were the institution 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. Students expressed higher levels of trust in their national governments, the media, and people in general; three quarters of students reported "quite a lot" of trust in schools.

Although students strongly endorsed 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 of gender equality than were males.

Student interest in political and social issues was stronger with regard to domestic political or social issues than with respect to foreign issues and international politics. Contrary to findings from the earlier IEA studies, gender differences on this measure were small. Students who reported that their parents were interested in political and social issues expressed greater interest in political and social 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 political party, and 14 percent said that they "liked one party more than others, a lot." It appears that a few students do form political preferences at a relatively young age.

Active civic participation in the wider community was relatively uncommon among students of the ICCS target age group; civic participation at school was considerably more common. Large majorities of students said they intended to vote as adults in national elections, but few students expected to join political parties in the future. Similar to earlier findings, student expectations to vote in national elections were positively associated with both civic knowledge and interest in political and social issues.

We have not included, in this initial report, information on students' perceptions of responses to threats to civil society (Research Question 4). Data addressing this research question will be included in subsequent reports on ICCS.

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 appeared to be related to knowledge about, and attitudes to, civics and citizenship. It embraced general approaches to civic and citizenship education, teaching practices, and aspects of school curriculum and organization. ICCS included a wide range of additional information on school and community context. The results that we presented in this initial report covered selected aspects; a more detailed investigation will be included in subsequent reports on ICCS.

Different approaches to civics and citizenship education were evident in ICCS countries. These approaches included providing a specific subject, integrating relevant content into other subjects, and including content as a cross-curricular theme. Twenty-one of the 38 countries participating in ICCS included a specific subject concerned with civic and citizenship education in their curriculum. Civic and citizenship education covered a wide range of topics. 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.

ICCS studied school and community context through surveys of students, teachers, and school principals about factors relevant to engaging in civic and citizenship education. These factors included how the participating schools had implemented civic and citizenship education, how they viewed the aims of this area of education, how it linked into the local community, and how receptive (open) their classrooms were to discussions about political and social issues.

Although schools adopted different approaches to teaching civic and citizenship education, those approaches often had little connection to how the schools defined this area of education. Generally, only minorities of ICCS students were attending schools where principals reported no specific provision for civic and citizenship education in the curriculum.

Most teachers 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, in any of the participating countries, most frequently cited as the most important. However, it is important to remember that the ICCS teacher sample consisted of teachers teaching across different subject areas. According to these teachers, student participation in civic-related activities 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.

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 all ICCS countries, students whose parents had higher-status occupations gained higher civic knowledge scores. On average, there was a difference of 87 scale points between students in the top of six occupational status categories and students in the bottom category. However, there was considerable difference among countries in this range, with some countries having a more even distribution of achievement with regard to socioeconomic background than others.

In nearly all of the participating countries, females gained higher civic knowledge scores than males; the average difference was 22 scale points. There were also differences in the civic knowledge scores of students with and students without an immigrant background. On average, the difference was 37 scale points in favor of non-immigrant students, but it varied across countries from fewer than 10 scale points to almost 70 points. However, when the influence of socioeconomic background was statistically controlled, the differences between immigrant and non-immigrant groups were quite small. Students who reported that their parents were interested in political and social issues had higher civic knowledge scores. In most countries, this association was still evident even after we had controlled for the effects of other student characteristics.

Next steps

This report on initial findings from ICCS provides an overview of selected analysis results based on the rich data collected in ICCS and will be followed by further reports and secondary research studies. Subsequent analyses will investigate in greater detail not only the relationships between civic knowledge and 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. They will also use a wider range of the data collected and will include more comprehensive multivariate analyses to review factors explaining central outcome variables.

Appendices

APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONS AND STAFF

The international study center and its partner institutions

The international study center is located at the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) and serves as the international study center for ICCS. Center staff 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*
Eva Van De Gaer, *project researcher*
Anna-Kristin Albers, *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*

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*
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, China
Christian Monseur, University of Liège, Belgium

Other project consultants

Aletta Grisay, University of Liège, Belgium
Isabel Menezes, Porto University, Portugal
Barbara Fratczak-Rudnicka, Warszaw University, Poland

ICCS sampling referee

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

National research coordinators (NRCs)

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

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

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 of Educational Measurements, National Institute for Education

Slovenia
Marjan Simenc
University of Ljubljana

Spain
Rosario Sánchez
Instituto de Evaluación, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia

Sweden
Fredrik Lind
The Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket)

Switzerland
Fritz Oser
Universität Freiburg, Pädagogisches Institut

Thailand

Siriporn Boonyananta
The Office of the Education Council, Ministry of Education

Somwung Pitiyanuwa
The Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment

APPENDIX B: ICCS PARTICIPATION RATES AND SAMPLE SIZES

Table 29: 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	3,385	75.8	83.2
Belgium (Flemish)	74.4	94.8	95.0	151	96.7	2,968	71.9	91.7
Bulgaria	99.1	100.0	100.0	158	95.4	3,257	94.5	95.4
Chile	98.3	99.4	99.4	177	96.2	5,192	94.6	95.7
Chinese Taipei	98.6	100.0	100.0	150	99.0	5,167	97.6	99.0
Colombia	93.2	99.5	99.5	196	95.3	6,204	88.8	94.8
Cyprus	100.0	100.0	100.0	68	93.4	3,194	93.4	93.4
Czech Republic	82.8	96.0	96.0	144	88.4	4,630	73.2	84.9
Denmark	53.1	84.6	84.6	193	91.7	4,508	48.7	77.6
Dominican Republic	99.4	99.4	99.3	145	95.6	4,589	95.1	95.1
England	51.6	78.5	78.5	124	93.8	2,916	48.4	73.6
Estonia	96.8	99.3	99.3	140	89.9	2,743	87.0	89.3
Finland	84.5	95.1	95.1	176	94.5	3,307	79.8	89.9
Greece	91.1	98.7	98.7	153	96.1	3,153	87.5	94.9
Guatemala	98.2	100.0	100.0	145	97.4	4,002	95.7	97.4
Hong Kong SAR	42.1	50.7	50.7	76	97.0	2,902	40.8	49.2
Indonesia	98.8	100.0	100.0	142	97.4	5,068	96.2	97.4
Ireland	81.8	87.4	87.8	144	91.6	3,355	74.9	80.1
Italy	93.2	100.0	100.0	172	96.6	3,366	90.0	96.6
Korea Rep. of	100.0	100.0	100.0	150	98.6	5,254	98.6	98.6
Latvia	85.8	93.4	93.8	150	90.9	2,761	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	3,902	93.5	94.0
Luxembourg*	100.0	100.0	100.0	31	97.2	4,852	96.5	96.5
Malta	100.0	100.0	100.0	55	93.9	2,143	93.9	93.9
Mexico	97.8	97.8	97.7	215	94.5	6,576	92.4	92.4
Netherlands	36.6	47.7	47.2	67	95.4	1,964	35.0	45.5
New Zealand	80.8	84.3	84.9	146	91.9	3,979	74.2	77.4
Norway	62.5	86.0	86.0	129	91.6	3,013	57.2	78.8
Paraguay	95.3	99.4	99.3	149	96.3	3,399	91.8	95.8
Poland	99.3	100.0	100.0	150	91.1	3,249	90.4	91.1
Russian Federation	100.0	100.0	100.0	210	96.8	4,295	96.8	96.8
Slovak Republic	87.1	97.8	97.9	138	96.3	2,970	83.9	94.1
Slovenia	92.5	95.9	95.9	163	93.9	3,070	86.9	90.1
Spain	97.1	98.7	98.7	148	91.9	3,309	89.2	90.7
Sweden	94.7	99.0	98.2	166	93.9	3,464	89.0	93.0
Switzerland	60.2	82.1	83.4	156	95.9	2,924	57.7	78.7
Thailand	75.2	100.0	100.0	149	98.1	5,263	73.8	98.1

Note:
* The weighted class participation rate in Luxembourg is 99.3 percent

Table 30: 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	1,630	53.2	68.9
Bulgaria	98.9	100.0	100.0	158	99.2	1,850	98.2	99.2
Chile	98.7	99.5	99.4	177	97.7	1,756	96.4	97.2
Chinese Taipei	94.1	95.1	95.3	143	98.6	2,367	92.8	93.8
Colombia	87.8	95.6	95.4	188	92.3	2,010	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	1,599	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	1,505	44.4	66.7
Estonia	91.4	94.6	94.3	133	93.9	1,863	85.8	88.8
Finland	84.6	94.0	94.1	174	90.2	2,295	76.3	84.8
Greece	n.a.	n.a.	63.2	98	n.a.	1,271	n.a.	n.a.
Guatemala	97.1	100.0	100.0	145	99.0	1,138	96.1	99.0
Hong Kong SAR	49.7	67.2	67.3	101	95.8	1,446	47.6	64.3
Indonesia	98.7	99.3	99.3	141	89.8	2,097	88.7	89.2
Ireland	79.0	84.6	83.5	137	87.0	1,861	68.8	73.6
Italy	90.6	97.7	97.7	168	97.8	3,023	88.6	95.6
Korea Rep. of	98.7	98.7	98.7	148	99.7	2,340	98.5	98.5
Latvia	83.9	90.0	90.0	146	92.5	2,077	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	2,774	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	1,844	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	1,347	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	1,176	74.3	79.5
Poland	99.5	100.0	100.0	150	96.2	2,081	95.8	96.2
Russian Federation	100.0	100.0	100.0	210	99.8	3,081	99.8	99.8
Slovak Republic	87.0	98.5	98.6	139	99.3	1,984	86.4	97.8
Slovenia	92.9	96.5	96.5	164	91.7	2,755	85.2	88.4
Spain	98.0	98.8	98.7	148	96.7	2,017	94.7	95.5
Sweden	89.3	92.5	92.3	156	82.7	1,942	73.9	76.4
Switzerland	56.4	75.3	77.0	144	85.2	1,571	48.0	64.2
Thailand	70.5	100.0	100.0	149	99.9	1,766	70.4	99.9

APPENDIX C: THE SCALING OF ICCS 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.)

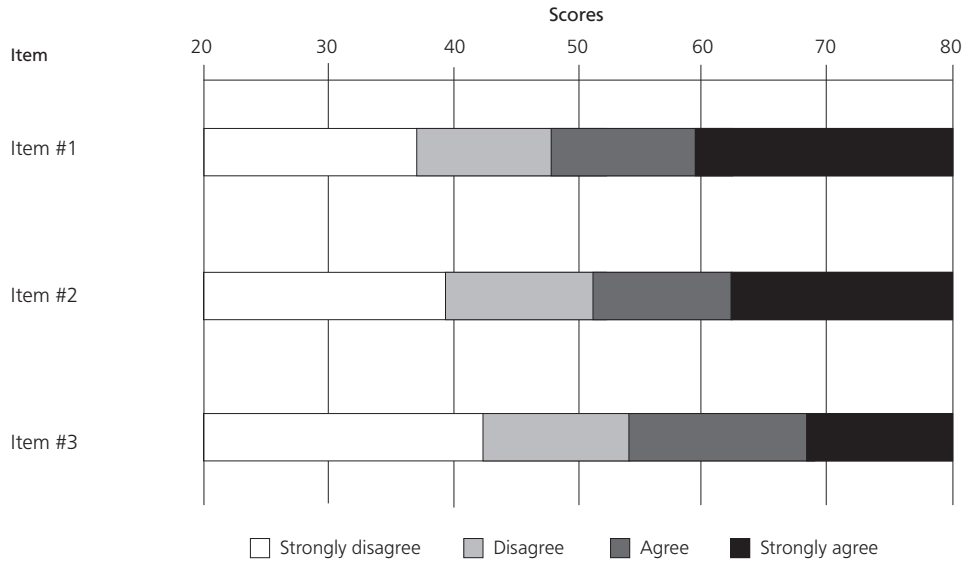
Appendix D provides item-by-score maps, which predict the minimum coded score (e.g., 0 = "strongly disagree," 1 = "disagree," 2 = "agree," and 3 = "strongly agree") a respondent would obtain on a Likert-type item. For example, for students with a certain scale score, one could predict that these students would have a 50 percent probability of agreeing (or strongly agreeing) with a particular item (see example item-by-score in Figure 2). 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 (i.e., Tables 14, 15, 18, and 19 in the main body of the text) that have two underlying colors. If national average scores are located in the area in light blue, then, on average across items, students' responses would be in the lower item categories ("disagree or strongly disagree," "not at all or not very interested," "never or rarely"). If these scores are found in the darker blue area, then students' average item responses would be in the upper item response categories ("agree or strongly agree," "quite or very interested," "sometimes or often").

APPENDIX D: ITEM-BY-SCORE MAPS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE SCALES

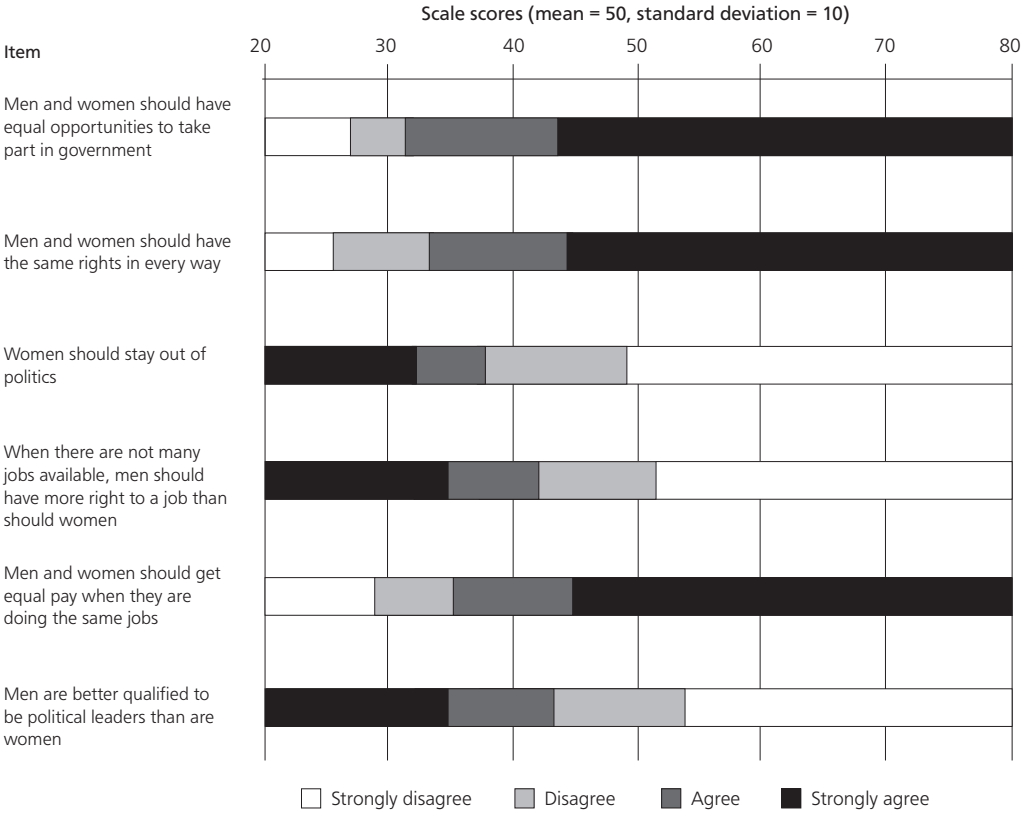
Figure 2: Example of questionnaire item-by-score map



Example of how to interpret the item-by-score map

#1:	A respondent with score 30 has more than a 50 percent probability of strongly disagreeing with all three items
#2:	A respondent with score 40 has more than a 50 percent probability of **not** strongly disagreeing with Items 1 and 2 but of strongly disagreeing with Item 3
#3:	A respondent with score 50 has more than a 50 percent probability of agreeing with Item 1 and of disagreeing with Items 2 and 3
#4:	A respondent with score 60 has more than a 50 percent probability of strongly agreeing with Item 1 and of at least agreeing with Items 2 and 3
#5:	A respondent with score 70 has more than a 50 percent probability of strongly agreeing with Items 1, 2, and 3

Figure 3: Item-by-score map for students' attitudes toward gender equality

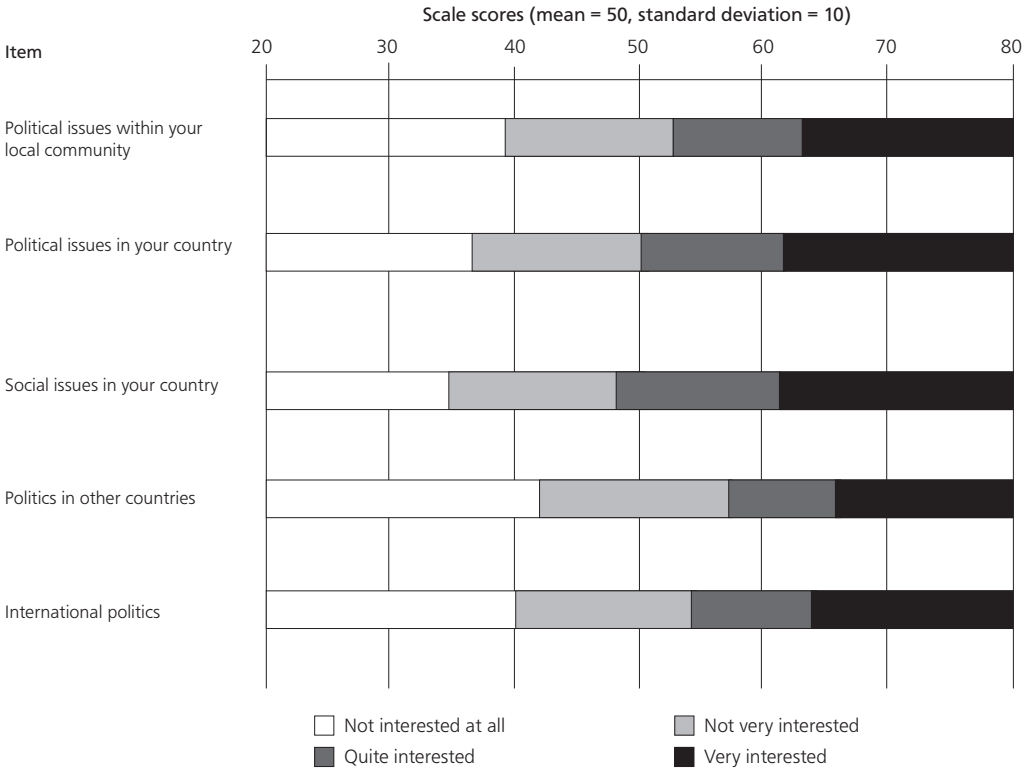


International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					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	5	9	33	52	100
When there are not many jobs available, men should have more right to a job than should women	9	16	31	44	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 are women	10	19	33	38	100

Note:
Average percentages for equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements after the inclusion of replacement schools.

Figure 4: Item-by-score map for student interest in political and social issues

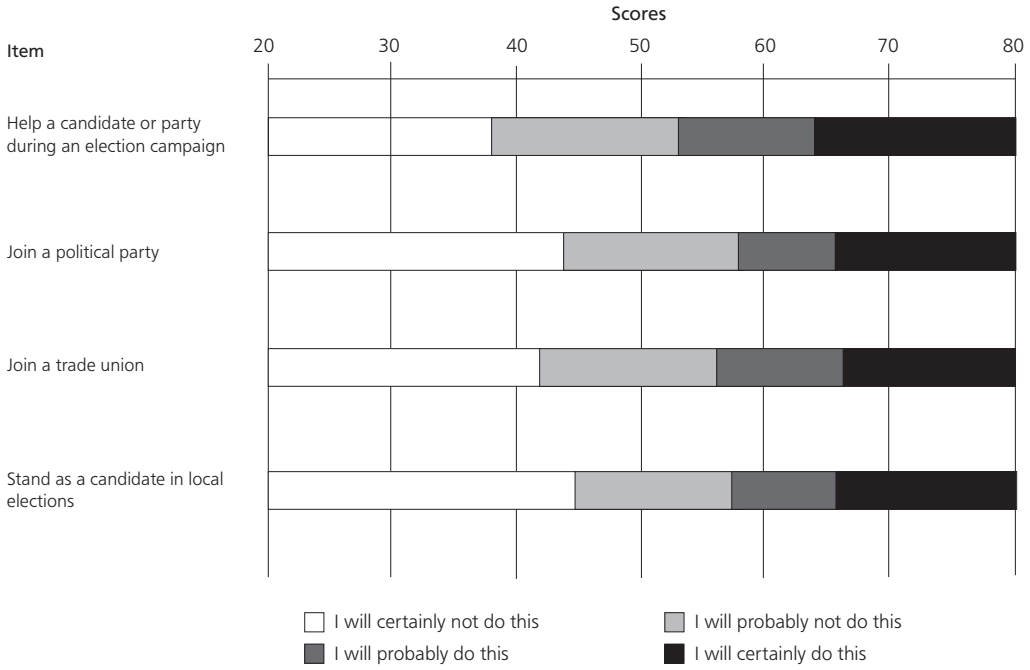


International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					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.

Figure 5: Item-by-score map for students' expected adult participation in political activities

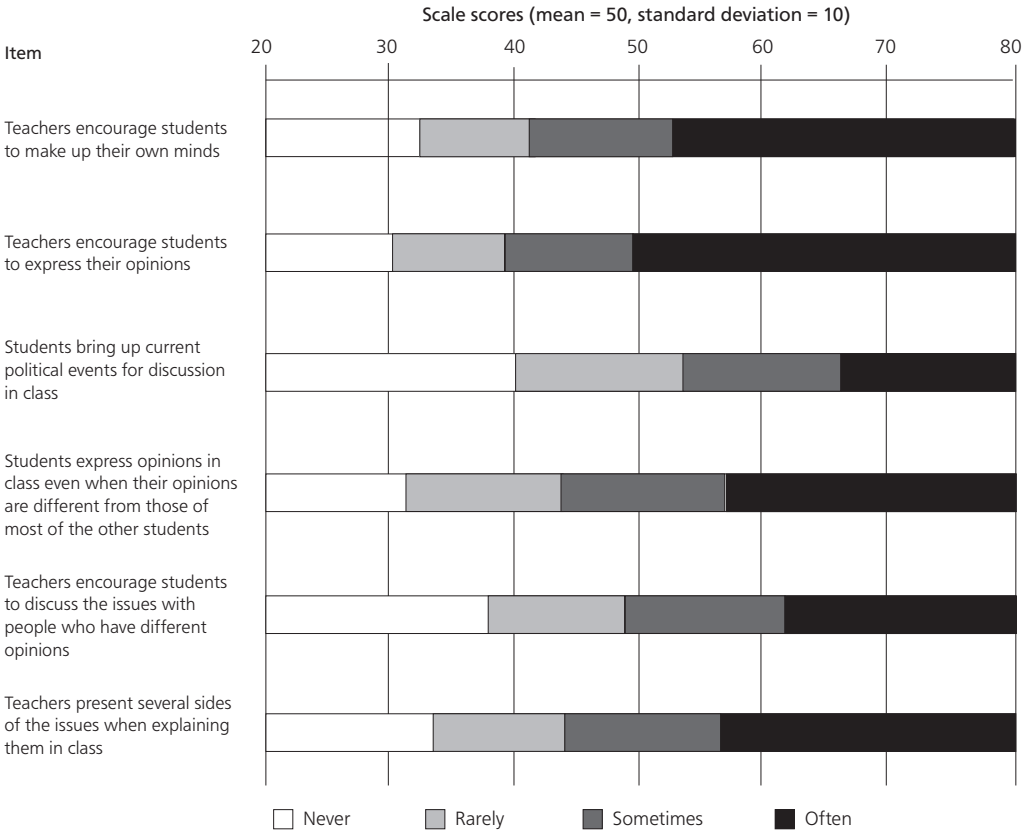


International Item Frequencies (row percentages)

					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 equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements after the inclusion of replacement schools.

Figure 6: Item-by-score map for students' perceptions of openness in classroom discussions



International Item Frequencies (row percentages)					Sum
Teachers encourage students to make up their own minds	8	16	34	42	100
Teachers encourage students to express their opinions	6	13	30	52	100
Students bring up current political events for discussion in class	23	37	29	11	100
Students express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from those of most of the other students	8	23	39	31	100
Teachers encourage students to discuss the issues with people who have different opinions	17	28	35	19	100
Teachers present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class	10	21	37	31	100

Note:
Average percentages for equally weighted participating countries that met sample participation requirements after the inclusion of replacement schools.

References

Ajegbo, K., Kiwan, D., & Sharma, D. (2007). *Diversity and citizenship curriculum review.* London, UK: Department for Education and Skills (DfES).

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).

Angvik, M., & von Borries, B. (Eds.). (1997). *Youth and history: A comparative European survey on historical consciousness and political attitudes among adolescents* (Vols. A–B). Hamburg, Germany: Korber-Stiftung.

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.

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, England: Cambridge University Press.

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

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.

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.

Burns, N., Schlozman, K. L., & Verba, S. (1997). The public consequences of private inequality: Family life and citizen participation. *American Political Science Review, 91*(2), 373–389.

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. (2002). The decline of party identifications. In R. Dalton & M. Wattenberg (Eds.), *Parties without partisans* (pp. 19–36). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Elley, W. B. (1992). *How in the world do students read?* The Hague, The Netherlands: 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., & Klingemann, H.-D. (1995). Citizens and the state: A relationship transformed. In D. Fuchs & H.-D. Klingemann (Eds.), *Citizens and the state* (Vol. 1, pp. 419–43) Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Fuligni, A. J. (1997). The academic achievement of adolescents from immigrant families: The roles of family background, attitudes, and behaviour. *Child Development*, *68*(2), 351−363.

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 socio-economic index of occupational status. *Social Science Research*, *21*, 1–56.

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.

Grusec, J. E., & Kuczynski, L. (Eds.). (1997). *Parenting and children's internalization of values: A handbook of contemporary theory*. New York: John Wiley.

Hahn, C. (1998). *Becoming political: Comparative perspectives on citizenship education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

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

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.

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, UK: Cambridge University Press.

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

Janoski, J., & Wilson, J. (1995). Pathways to voluntarism: Family socialization and status transmission models, *Social Forces*, *74*(1), 271−292.

Kao, G., & Thompson, J. (2003). Racial and ethnic stratification in educational achievement and attainment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *29*, 417−442.

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).

Klingemann, H. (1999). Mapping support in the 1990's: A global analysis. In P. Norris (Ed.), *Critical citizens: 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).

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. 101–122). New York: Springer.

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.), *Psicologia comunitaria Europea: Comunidad, ética y valores* [European community psychology: Community, ethics and values] (pp. 301–308). Barcelona, Spain: Publicacions Universitat de Barcelona.

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, CT: 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.

Newton, K., & 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.

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

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 Trend, UK: Trentham.

Oswald, H., & Schmid, C. (1998). Political participation of young people in East Germany. *German Politics, 7*, 147–164.

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.

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

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

Rasch, G. (1960). *Probabilistic models for some intelligence and attainment tests.* Copenhagen, Denmark: Nielsen and Lydiche.

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.

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.

Schulz, W. (2002). *Explaining differences in civic knowledge: Multilevel regression analyses of student data from twenty-seven countries.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (AERA), New Orleans, LA, 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 repo*rt (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 in Budapest, Hungary, 8–10 September.

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. (forthcoming). *ICCS 2009 international report: Civic knowledge, attitudes and engagement among lower secondary school students in thirty-eight countries.* 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.

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

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. (2009). International research that matters for policy and practice. *American Psychologist, 64*(8), 822−837.

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

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

Torney-Purta, J., Wilkenfeld, B., & Barber, C. (2008). How adolescents in 27 countries understand, support and practice human rights. *Journal of Social Issues, 64*(4), 857–880.

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*. New York: Routledge.

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, 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), 427–450.

White, C., & Openshaw, R. (2005). *Democracy at the crossroads: International perspectives on critical global citizenship education.* Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.

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.

Notes

Notes

Notes

This report presents initial 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 comparative research studies focusing on educational policies, practices, and outcomes in more than 80 countries around the world.

ICCS studied the ways in which young people in lower secondary schools are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens in a range of countries. It investigated student knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship as well as student 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 background, to teaching practices, and to school and broader community contexts.

Thirty-eight countries from around the world participated in ICCS. Data gathered from more than 140,000 students and 62,000 teachers in over 5,300 schools provide evidence that may be used to improve policy and practice in civic and citizenship education.

This report is the first in a series of reports from ICCS. It will be followed by a report drawing on a wider range of data and based on more extensive analyses of student knowledge and attitudes in relation to teacher, school, and community characteristics. Regional reports for Asia, Europe, and Latin America will focus on issues of civic and citizenship education of special interest in those 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 can be used for secondary analysis by the broader research community.