CHAPTER 1:

Introduction to the International Study of Civic and Citizenship Education

Civic and citizenship education aims to provide young people with the knowledge, understanding, and dispositions that enable them to participate as citizens in society. It seeks to support emerging citizens by helping them understand and engage with society's principles and institutions, develop and exercise informed critical judgment, and learn about and appreciate citizens' rights and responsibilities. These attributes are vital to the proper functioning of a democracy, where citizens are actively involved agents of decision-making, governance, and change rather than as passive subjects. Recognition of the essential relationship between education and democracy has a long tradition in the literature on educational policy and practice (see, for example, Dewey, 1916), while comparative research confirms that many countries include civic and citizenship education in their national curricula (Ainley, Schulz, & Friedman, 2013; Cox, 2010; Eurydice, 2005).

Civic competencies can also be viewed as an essential part of a broader skill-set required in workplaces. As such, they are not only of interest to political and community leaders, but also of value to and valued by a growing number of employers (Gould, 2011; Torney-Purta & Wilkenfeld, 2009). Although today's business leaders acknowledge the ongoing importance of technical skills, they are increasingly recognizing that these skills are not sufficient on their own for ensuring prosperity in today's global economy. Consequently, the people whom employers in the 21st century are most likely to want to hire and promote appear to be those who know about significant changes in society and who exhibit intercultural literacy, ethical judgment, humanitarian values, social responsibility, and civic engagement (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2015).

The concepts underlying civic and citizenship education have typically aligned with the notion of nation states. However, the establishment of supranational organizations (such as the European Union), increased migration across borders, and pressure from globalization are challenging these traditional precepts of civics and citizenship and prompting the development of concepts of global citizenship (Brodie, 2004; O'Sullivan, & Pashby, 2008; Reid, Gill, & Sears, 2010; Schattle, 2012; Veugelers, 2011). Despite these challenges, the notion of a nation state still seems to prevail across curricula for civic and citizenship education (Kennedy, 2012).

Specific events and issues in recent years have also brought challenges to civic and citizenship education as well as changes in the contexts in which that education takes place. Among them are the impact of the global financial crisis of 2007–2008 and the recession that followed (Grant & Wilson, 2012), concerns about the impact of human activity on the environment (Dringer, 2013), efforts to ensure harmonious relations within school communities (Mickelson & Nkomo, 2012), the movement of large numbers of refugees from Middle-Eastern countries to other countries (mostly in Europe), ongoing migration in general (Schachner, Noack, van de Vijver, & Eckstein, 2016), and the increased use of information and communication technologies (ICT) as vehicles for civic participation (Kahne, Middaugh, & Allen, 2014).

Within this broader context, the second cycle of the IEA International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS 2016) sought to investigate the ways in which a range of countries are preparing their young people to undertake their roles as citizens in the second decade of the 21st century. The 2016 iteration of the study therefore explored students' knowledge and understanding of civics and citizenship as well as students' attitudes, perceptions, and activities related to civics and citizenship. Based on nationally representative samples of students, the study also examined differences among countries in relation to these outcomes of civic and citizenship

education, and explored the extent to which these differences relate to student characteristics, school and community contexts, and national characteristics.

As the second cycle of ICCS, the 2016 study is a continuation and an extension of ICCS 2009. The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) commissioned ICCS in order to meet the need for continuing research on civic and citizenship education and in response to widespread interest in establishing regular international assessments of this field of education. The 2016 iteration of ICCS accordingly explored both the enduring and the emerging challenges to educating young people in a world where contexts of democracy and civic participation continue to change.

Despite considerable diversity in the content and conduct of civic and citizenship education within and across countries, there is much commonality in the overarching goals of this area of education. ICCS therefore endeavors to provide each participating country with an indication of its progress toward achievement of those goals by collecting information on the student outcomes shaped by civic and citizenship education programs. These outcomes include the knowledge, understanding, skills, and dispositions that prepare young people to comprehend the world, hold productive employment, and be informed, active citizens. ICCS collects this information from students, teachers, schools, and education systems and uses it to analyze and describe how student outcomes relate to the civic and citizenship education contexts and learning environments in which the students learn.

ICCS 2016 also provides measures of enduring aspects of civic and citizenship outcomes and their contexts, supports comparisons of those outcomes and contexts between 2009 and 2016, and includes measurement of further aspects of civic and citizenship education that have emerged since 2009. New developments of this kind addressed in the second cycle of ICCS include the increasing use of social media by young people as a tool for civic engagement, growing concerns about global threats to the world's future (especially in terms of sustainable development), and widespread recognition of the role of schools in fostering peaceful modes of interaction among young people.

The ICCS 2016 research team systematically investigated how countries provide civic and citizenship education by drawing on diverse sources of information ranging from national policy and resourcing perspectives through to classroom practice. The team also explored the cognitive and affective-behavioral outcomes of civic and citizenship education within and across the participating countries. In total, the ICCS researchers gathered data from more than 94,000 students enrolled in their eighth year of schooling (Grade 8 or equivalent) at about 3800 schools in 24 countries. These student data were augmented by data from more than 37,000 teachers in those schools and by contextual data collected from school principals and the ICCS national research centers.

Background

Previous IEA studies of civic and citizenship education and the establishment of ICCS

ICCS builds on previous IEA studies of civic education and is a response to the challenge of educating young people in changing contexts of democracy and civic participation (see Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). 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, 1976). 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, took place 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 social and political engagement and actions of 14-year-olds and upper-secondary school students.

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

ICCS 2009 (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010) was designed in a way that provided explicit links to CIVED. It was also designed as a baseline study for future cycles of ICCS. Like its predecessor, ICCS 2009 included a student test of civic knowledge and understanding, as well as questionnaires for students, teachers, and school principals. ICCS 2009 adopted the term *civic and citizenship education* to emphasize a broadening of the concept, processes, and practices that had occurred in this area of educational provision since the turn of the century. Many countries also now use the term civic and citizenship education rather than the narrower term of civic education, or they have superseded the latter with another broader term—citizenship education. While maintaining many aspects of CIVED, ICCS 2009 also extended its design and scope in a number of ways. In particular, the assessment framework was broadened to (i) have a stronger focus on the motivations for and mechanisms of participation associated with citizenship education, (ii) include a wider range of content, and (iii) place a greater emphasis on the development of reasoning and analyzing while continuing the focus on the acquisition of knowledge.

The test design established for ICCS 2009 included provision for a set of secure common items that makes it possible to compare the test performance of students in countries participating in more than one ICCS cycle. The ICCS 2009 instruments also included some of the material that featured in CIVED as well as other material adapted from CIVED to allow (limited) comparisons of findings between the two studies. The ICCS 2016 student, teacher, and school instruments held an even larger number of items (with identical format and wording) in common with the corresponding ICCS 2009 instruments so that the countries participating in the two studies could review changes over time.

The ICCS teacher questionnaire endeavored to gather data from all teachers teaching the target grade in selected schools.[1] The aim of this instrument was to gather information that would provide a better understanding of the influence the school environment has on civic-related learning outcomes. This aim was particularly important given the large proportion of countries in which civic and citizenship education is a cross-curricular responsibility. ICCS 2016 also gathered data on national contexts through an online questionnaire completed by local experts nominated by the ICCS national research centers.

The ICCS surveys furthermore offer optional regional instruments. During its first cycle in 2009, ICCS developed separate student questionnaires designed to address aspects of civics and citizenship relevant to the geographic regions of Asia, Europe, and Latin America. The ICCS 2016 research team revised the regional questionnaire for European and Latin American countries to include new aspects and accommodate changes in regional contexts since 2009.

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1 CIVED 1999 collected data from two or more teachers of civic-related subjects in the selected class (see Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

Global developments since ICCS 2009

The conception and development of ICCS 2016 has maintained continuity with and extended the scope of ICCS 2009 by measuring changes in civic and citizenship education contexts, processes, and outcomes, as well as outcomes between 2009 and 2016. Because changing national, regional, and global contexts also affect civic and citizenship education, ICCS is designed to respond to such changes.

Since ICCS 2009, several global developments have had implications for civic and citizenship education. When developing ICIS 2016, the research team considered the following recent developments as important:

- The global financial crisis of 2007–2008 and the global recession that followed had a severe impact on many societies and underlined the importance of the economy for social cohesion and political stability (Chossudovsky & Marshall, 2010; Grant & Wilson, 2012; Shahin, Woodward, & Terzis, 2012).

- Worldwide, the impact of human activity on the environment (especially on the global climate) as well as concern over the long-term sustainability of development have increasingly become key issues in debates about future political, social, and economic development (Dringer, 2013; Edenhofer et al., 2014). In many societies, awareness of the environment and its long-term protection are now widely regarded as integral to responsible citizenship and therefore has implications for the development of civic and citizenship curricula (Lotz-Sisitka, Fien, & Ketlhoilwe, 2013).

- Concern is also increasing in many countries as to how schools can ensure peaceful coexistence within school communities. Abuse and bullying directed toward students (by other students and often aimed at social minorities) have become particularly salient in discussions about schools and learning environments. Across different education systems, civic and citizenship education includes goals focused on promoting student engagement with the school community (Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Willms, Friesen, & Milton, 2009), fostering a peaceful coexistence, and providing students with mechanisms for conflict resolution (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Mickelson & Nkomo, 2012).

- The recent movement of large numbers of refugees from the Middle-Eastern region to other countries (mostly in Europe), as well as ongoing migration (within Europe and across a broader range of countries) have increased the need for integrating people from different backgrounds into a range of societies. In this context, school and teaching policies and practices have ramifications for the lives of students of immigrant background (Banks & Banks, 2009). One paradigm in the field articulates two perspectives: an emphasis on fostering equality and inclusion; and an emphasis on valuing diversity (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Although schools and systems appear to combine elements of each approach, valuing diversity appears to promote student motivation and school belonging (Schachner et al., 2016).

- The ongoing development of information and communications technologies (ICT) has increased the use of these tools in civic participation. This development is especially true of social media, which have played an important role in initiating and maintaining support within the political movements in the Middle East and elsewhere, promoting action on climate change, and organizing protests against austerity measures in the aftermath of the global financial crisis (see, for example, Kahne et al., 2014; Milner, 2010; Segerberg & Bennett, 2011).

Areas of broadened scope in ICCS 2016

Mindful of the above major changes and developments since 2009, the ICCS 2016 research team identified three areas of civic and citizenship education that warranted a stronger profile in ICCS 2016 than they had been afforded in ICCS 2009. The likely relevance of this content in future cycles of ICCS also influenced its inclusion.

- *Environmental sustainability in civic and citizenship education:* Over recent decades, countries have increasingly concluded that responsible citizenship includes regard for the environment and its long-term protection, requisite for future sustainable development (Dobson, 2003; Dobson & Bell, 2006; Ferreira, 2013; Hayward, 2006). Today, many education systems emphasize protection of the environment or education for environmental sustainability in their citizenship curricula (Ainley et al., 2013; Eurydice, 2012; Schulz et al., 2010).

- *Social interaction at school:* Reviews of civic and citizenship education curricula across countries suggest that at the outset of the 21st century a large number of countries were emphasizing the non-formal aspects of civic learning through participation and engagement or social interaction within their schools (Ainley et al., 2013; Eurydice, 2005; Schulz et al., 2010). Scholars are also giving greater recognition to the role of social learning within schools (Dijkstra & de la Motte, 2014; Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Scheerens, 2011).

- *The use of social media for civic engagement:* Research continues to emphasize the growing importance of social media on civic life and to provide evidence of how these media influence young people's engagement in society (Anduiza, Jensen, & Jorba, 2012; Bachen, Raphael, Lynn, McKee, & Philippi, 2008; Banaji & Buckingham, 2013; Kahne, Lee, & Feezell, 2011).

The ICCS team also identified two other areas of content included in previous civic and citizenship surveys but now seen as deserving more explicit acknowledgement in the ICCS 2016 assessment framework:

- *Economic awareness as an aspect of citizenship:* Students' economic awareness can be conceptualized as a broad awareness of how citizens understand and engage with economic issues and therefore is regarded as an important aspect of civic and citizenship education (see, for example, Citizenship Foundation, 2013; Davies, 2006, 2015; Davies, Howie, Mangan, & Telhaj, 2002). The relevance of economic awareness to civic and citizenship education relates not only to its importance as a major focus of government policy but also to the constraints that economic conditions place on some citizenship activities, and the responsibility citizens share for economic problems and their solutions.

- *The role of morality in civic and citizenship education:* Many scholars regard concepts of morality and character as key outcomes of civic and citizenship education programs (Althof & Berkowitz, 2006; Berkowitz, Althof, & Jones, 2008; Halstead & Pike, 2006; Oser & Veugelers, 2008). Although scholars also often regard moral education as an independent field of study, many countries tend to integrate it into their civic and citizenship education (Ainley et al., 2013; Veugelers, 2011).

The ICCS 2016 assessment framework (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Losito, & Agrusti, 2016) was developed as an extension of the ICCS 2009 framework so that it could accommodate the new areas of importance in civic and citizenship education. This expanded content framed the development of new test and questionnaire items. These items, along with the core ICCS 2009 survey material, established the instruments used to collect the ICCS 2016 data.

Research questions

The key research questions for ICCS 2016 concern students' civic knowledge, dispositions to engage in society, and attitudes toward civic and citizenship issues. The questions also focus on the contexts for this learning area.

The research questions played a central role in shaping the design of ICCS 2016 and its instrumentation. They also guided the development of the assessment framework and provided a structure for this first international report on ICCS 2016.

Some of the key research questions are similar to those that were formulated for ICCS 2009. Each general research question (RQ) relates to a sub-set of specific research questions addressed during ICCS 2016. Findings resulting from analyses of the data collected in relation to each of these questions are presented in this report.

RQ 1 How is civic and citizenship education implemented in participating countries?

This question focuses on the national contexts for civic and citizenship education. Results relating to it are reported primarily in Chapter 2. Data were collected via the national contexts survey, the school and teacher questionnaires, and reference to published sources. Analysis of these data sought answers to the following specific research questions:

(a)   *What are the aims and principles of civic and citizenship education in each participating country?*
      The analyses presented in this report focus (at the country level) on information from the national contexts survey about the background to and intentions behind civic and citizenship curricula in participating countries.

(b)   *Which curricular approaches do participating countries choose to provide civic and citizenship education?*
      Analyses center on different types of civic and citizenship education implemented in participating countries.

(c)   *What changes and/or developments in this learning area can be observed since 2009?*
      Analyses concern only those data collected from countries participating in both ICCS 2009 and ICCS 2016. The focus is on reforms and changes in the national contexts for civic and citizenship education.

RQ 2 What is the extent and variation of students' civic knowledge within and across participating countries?

The results relating to this research question, which concerns student performance on the cognitive test, are reported primarily in Chapter 3. In order to provide answers to the following specific research questions, the analyses drew on student test data supplemented by student questionnaire data.

(a)   *Are there variations in civic knowledge associated with student characteristics and background variables?*
      The analyses presented in this report investigate the relationship between students' civic knowledge and background factors such as gender, family characteristics, and socioeconomic status.

(b)   *What contextual factors explain variation in students' civic knowledge?*
      Analyses review the individual and combined influences of contextual variables such as home background, or school characteristics on variation in students' civic knowledge.

(c)   *What changes in civic knowledge have occurred since 2009?*
      Analyses are limited to the countries that participated in both cycles of ICCS and where the measures of civic knowledge were comparable across the cycles.

RQ 3 What is the extent of students' engagement in different spheres of society, and which factors within or across countries are related to it?

This research question, discussed in Chapter 4, focuses on students' current and expected future participation in civic and citizenship activities. Student questionnaire data were analyzed in order to answer the following specific research questions:

(a) *What is the extent and variation of students' civic participation in and out of school?*
The analyses in this report focus on students' reports of their past and current involvement in civic-related activities.

(b) *What beliefs do students hold regarding their own capacity to engage and the value of civic participation?*
Analyses consider students' perceptions of civic engagement.

(c) *What expectations do students have regarding civic and political participation in the near future or as adults?*
Analyses center on students' stated intentions to participate in different forms of civic or political activities.

(d) *What changes in student engagement can be observed since 2009?*
Analyses are limited to the countries that participated in both cycles of ICCS and where the measures of student engagement were comparable across the cycles.

RQ 4 What beliefs do students in participating countries hold regarding important civic issues in modern society and what are the factors influencing their variation?

This research question, discussed primarily in Chapter 5, relates to measures of student beliefs. Student questionnaire data were analyzed in order to answer the following specific research questions:

(a) *What attitudes do students hold toward civic institutions and society?*
The analyses in this report investigate the ways in which students perceive society in general, along with its rules and institutions.

(b) *What are students' beliefs regarding the importance of different principles underlying society?*
Analyses focus on students' beliefs about democracy, citizenship, and diversity.

(c) *What are students' perceptions of their communities and societies?*
Analyses concern students' perceptions of global threats to the world's future.

(d) *What changes in student beliefs, attitudes, and values can be observed since 2009?*
Analyses are limited to those countries participating in both cycles of ICCS and where the measures of students' attitudes were comparable across the cycles.

RQ 5 How are schools in the participating countries organized with regard to civic and citizenship education, and what is its association with students' learning outcomes?

This research question concerns the ways that schools and their communities provide for civic and citizenship education. Results relating to this question are reported primarily in Chapter 6. Relevant data were collected via the school, teacher, and student questionnaires, and the student test of civic knowledge. Analyses of these data sought answers to the following specific research questions:

(a) *What are the general approaches to civic and citizenship education, curriculum, and/or program content structure and delivery?*
The analyses in this report provide reviews of school-level policies and school-level resourcing as well as schools' structural approaches to managing the delivery of civic and citizenship education.

(b) *To what extent do schools in participating countries have processes in place that facilitate civic engagement?*
     Analyses focus on whether and how school-based opportunities, school climate, and classroom climate promote civic engagement among students.

(c) *To what extent do schools interact with their communities to foster students' civic engagement and learning?*
     Analyses concern interactions between schools and their local communities. Analyses also cover the opportunities that schools provide to encourage students' active civic involvement in their communities.

(d) *How do schools and teachers perceive the role of civic and citizenship education across participating countries?*
     Analyses address teachers' and principals' perceptions of the role that schools and teachers play in preparing young people for citizenship. The analyses also consider how these perceptions are reflected in school policies. In addition, comparable measures of perceptions and policy ambitions are used to measure changes in some constructs since ICCS 2009 for those countries that participated in both ICCS cycles.

Participating countries, populations, and sample design

In this report, the term "country" refers to both the countries and the sub-national entities within countries that participated in the study; twenty-four countries participated in ICCS 2016 (Figure 1.1). Sixteen of those countries were from Europe, five from Latin America, and three from Asia. In two of the participating countries, only sub-national entities participated. In Belgium, ICCS 2016 was implemented only in the Flemish education system. In Germany, one state (*Land*), North Rhine-Westphalia, took part in ICCS 2016 as a benchmarking participant. As is the case with other IEA studies, participation in ICCS is open to all IEA member countries and affiliates. Each country decides whether or not it will participate in an IEA study.

The ICCS 2016 student and teacher population definitions and sampling methods were the same as those used in ICCS 2009. The ICCS student population is defined as all 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.[2]

The population for the ICCS teacher survey was defined as all teachers teaching regular school subjects to students enrolled in the country's target grade at each sampled school. The teacher population 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 stratified two-stage cluster samples. During the first stage of sampling, PPS procedures (probability proportional to size as measured by the number of students enrolled in a school) were used to sample schools within the participating countries. The numbers required in the samples to achieve the necessary precision were estimated on the basis of national characteristics. However, as a guide, the sampling team asked each country to plan for a minimum sample size of 150 schools.[3]

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2 Malta assessed Grade 9 students because the average age of Grade 8 students in that country is below 13.5. In order to assess a similar age group as in other Nordic countries, Norway deviated from the International Defined Target Population for ICCS 2016 and assessed Grade 9 instead of Grade 8. As a consequence, all Norwegian results in this report are presented with an annotation. Norway's inclusion of Grade 9 as an additional population in ICCS 2009 made it possible to compare the 2009 and 2016 results for Norway for the chosen target population.

3 In Malta, where there were fewer than 150 schools, the survey was conducted in all schools.

Figure 1.1: Countries participating in ICCS 2016

Participating countries

Belgium (Flemish)	Croatia	Hong Kong SAR	Malta	Norway
Bulgaria	Denmark	Italy	Mexico	Peru
Chile	Dominican Republic	Korea, Republic of	Netherlands	Russian Federation
Chinese Taipei	Estonia	Latvia	North Rhine-	Slovenia
Colombia	Finland	Lithuania	Westphalia (Germany)	Sweden

Countries with a representative national sample of students at the target grade.

Country where only a sub-region of the country participated in the study.

The management of each sampled participating school provided a list of the target-grade classes.[4] An intact class was then randomly selected from that list and all students in that class were surveyed. The number of students sampled in the countries that sampled 150 schools ranged from 3000 to 4500. Appendix A documents the achieved samples for each country.

ICCS aimed to sample up to 15 teachers at random from all teachers teaching the target grade at each sampled school. Because civic and citizenship education is widely acknowledged as a cross-curricular responsibility in ICCS countries (even in countries where civic and citizenship education is taught as a standalone subject) and because of the decision not to link teacher information to individual students, teachers from civic-related as well as non-civic-related subjects were surveyed. In schools with 21 or more teachers of the target grade, 15 teachers were sampled at random. In schools with 20 or fewer such teachers, all teachers were invited to participate.

The participation rates required for students in 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. The student and the teacher samples, however, were adjudicated independently. The tables in this report use annotations to identify those countries that met these response rates only after the inclusion of replacement schools; countries that did not meet the required response rates, even after replacement, are reported separately below the main section of each table.[5]

The ICCS 2016 assessment framework

The ICCS 2016 assessment framework provided the conceptual underpinning for ICCS 2016 (Schulz et al., 2016). The 2016 framework was developed as an extension and refinement of the ICCS 2009 framework (Schulz et al., 2008). This approach not only supported the measurement and ongoing reporting of core elements of ICCS (as measured and reported in ICCS 2009) but also allowed consideration of the newer global developments likely to have influenced civic and citizenship education since ICCS 2009.

The structure of the ICCS 2016 framework and the suggested analytical implications of this structure are consistent with the corresponding features of the ICCS 2009 framework. The 2016 framework differs from the 2009 framework only in terms of the addition of new content areas and some revisions to content within the framework.

The 2016 framework consists of two parts:

- *The civics and citizenship framework:* This outlines the outcome measures addressed by the cognitive test and the student perceptions questionnaire;
- *The contextual framework:* This maps the contextual factors expected to influence outcomes and explain their variation.

The civics and citizenship framework is organized around three dimensions as shown in Table 1.1.

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

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4 An exhaustive and mutually exclusive partition of all the students in the tested grade.

5 North Rhine-Westphalia (Germany) failed to meet the IEA sample participation requirements for the student survey. Because of North Rhine-Westphalia's very low response rates, this report presents only the overall results and thus no data by sub-groups for North Rhine-Westphalia. Likewise, the very low response rates (below 30%) for teachers in Estonia and Denmark mean that the only results presented for these countries are the overall results. Concerns about the extremely low response rates (less than 10%) for the teacher surveys in North Rhine-Westphalia (Germany) led to a decision not to include the corresponding data in this report. Because the teacher survey in Hong Kong (SAR of China) did not follow international sampling procedures, data from this participant were also excluded from reporting.

The four content domains in the ICCS assessment framework are civic society and systems, civic principles, civic participation, and civic identities (Table 1.1). Each of these contains a set of sub-domains that incorporate 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 (four 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), (iii) sense of community (sense of belonging, connectedness, and common vision among individuals and communities within a society), and (iv) rule of law (equal and fair application of the law to all; separation of powers and legal transparency).

- *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). ICCS also includes global citizenship as a key concept relating to students' civic identities.

The two cognitive processes in the ICCS framework are:

- *Knowing:* This refers to the learned civic and citizenship information students use when engaging in the more complex cognitive tasks that help them make sense of their civic worlds.

- *Reasoning and applying:* This refers to the ways in which students use civic and citizenship information to reach conclusions that are broader than the contents of any single concept. This process also refers to how students use these conclusions in real-world contexts.

The assessment framework identified the different types of student perceptions and behaviors relevant to civics and citizenship. Two affective-behavioral domains were identified: (i) attitudes, and (ii) engagement.[6]

- *Attitudes:* These refer to judgments or evaluations regarding ideas, persons, objects, events, situations, and/or relationships. They include students' beliefs about democracy and citizenship, students' attitudes toward the rights and responsibilities of groups in society, and students' attitudes toward institutions.

- *Engagement:* This refers to students' civic engagement, students' expectations of future civic-related action, and students' dispositions to actively engage in society (interest, sense of efficacy). The notion of engagement includes concepts such as preparedness to participate in forms of civic protest, anticipated future political participation as adults, and anticipated future participation in citizenship activities.

Table 1.1 shows the emphasis given to the different content, cognitive, and affective-behavioral domains in the international student survey instruments (test and questionnaire).

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6 The ICCS 2009 assessment framework had four affective-behavioral domains—value beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors. However, because of the difficulties encountered when distinguishing between (more deeply rooted) value beliefs and (narrower) attitudes, the ICCS 2016 team decided that ICCS 2016 should distinguish only between attitudes and engagement as affective-behavioral domains.

Table 1.1: Emphasis (shown as number of items) given to civic and citizenship education content in ICCS 2016 student test and questionnaire

	Content domain				Total
	Civic society and systems	Civic principles	Civic participation	Civic identities	
Cognitive domains					
Knowing	12	9	2	0	23
Analyzing and reasoning	24	18	19	4	65
Total	36	27	21	4	88
Affective-behavioral domains					
Attitudes	42	21	5	5	73
Engagement	5	8	35	2	50
Total	47	29	40	7	123
European questionnaire Attitudes	21	22	6	9	58
Latin American questionnaire Attitudes	11	35	16	8	70

The ICCS contextual framework

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

The context of the wider community can be viewed as multi-layered, with the *local community*, comprising students' schools and home environments, embedded within broader regional, national, and (possibly) supranational contexts. The knowledge, competencies, dispositions, and self-beliefs that students possess are potentially influenced by factors related to their *wider community* (at local, regional, national, and supranational levels), their *schools and classrooms* (the instruction they receive and their learning environments as well as the school culture they experience), their *home and peer environments* (their direct home background and their social out-of-school environment), and their *individual characteristics* (which shape how they respond to learning about civics and citizenship).

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

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

The different ICCS instruments collected data on several variables (or groups of variables; see Table 1.2 for examples). The national contexts survey and other published data sources provided data on variables related primarily to the context of country and community. The school and teacher questionnaires collected data on variables related to the context of schools and classrooms. The

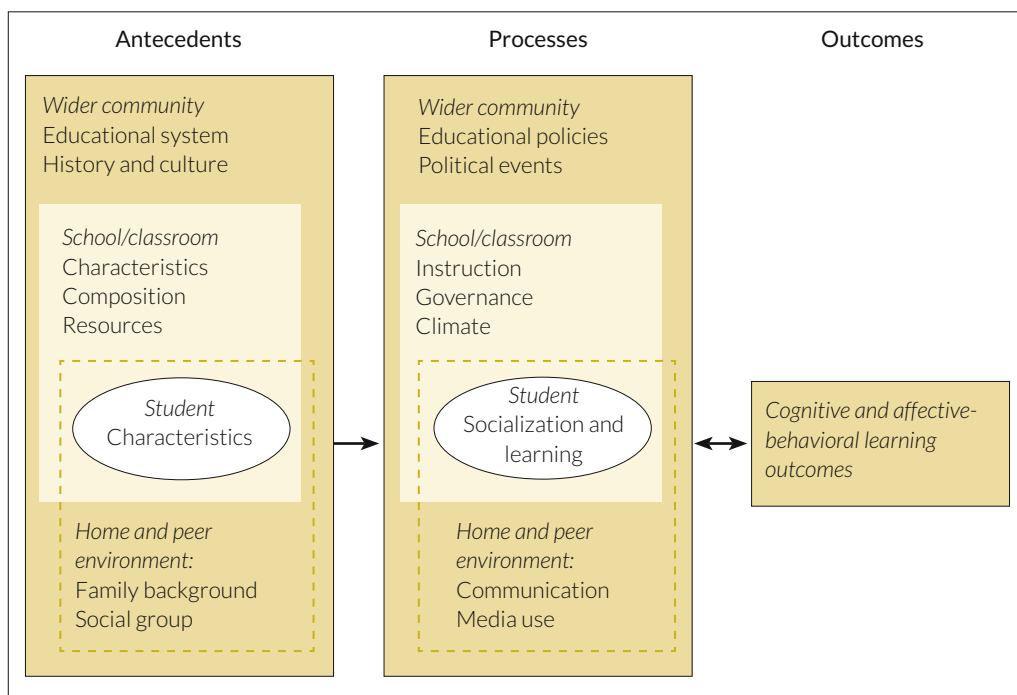*Figure 1.2: Contexts for the development of learning outcomes related to civics and citizenship*

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

Level of ...	Antecedents	Processes	Outcomes
Wider community	NCS & other sources: Democratic history Structure of education	NCS & other sources: Intended curriculum Political developments	
School/classroom	ScQ & TQ: School characteristics Resources	ScQ & TQ: Implemented curriculum Policies and practices	StT & StQ/RQ: Civic knowledge Attitudes and engagement
Student	StQ: Gender Age	StQ: Civic learning Civic engagement	
Home and peer environment	StQ: Parent SES Ethnicity Language Country of birth	StQ: Family communication Communication with peers Media information	

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

student background questionnaire also provided information on antecedents of the individual student and his or her home environment as well as on some relevant process-related variables (e.g., learning activities or classroom climate). The student test and parts of the student questionnaire relating to attitudes and engagement collected data on outcomes.

Contexts assessed in ICCS 2016

The context of the wider community also comprises several levels. Here, schools, as well as home and peer environments, are embedded within the local community. The local community, in turn, is embedded within broader regional and national contexts and possibly supranational or global contexts. Of these levels, ICCS deems community and national as the levels most relevant to the study.

- *The context of the education system:* ICCS 2016 collected data on the structure of national education systems, the content of education policies, and approaches to civic and citizenship education. It also collected information on teacher training in general. The data collected in regard to civic and citizenship education in particular focused on approaches to assessment and quality assurance and on current debates and reforms relating to this learning area. ICCS 2016 also used data from published sources and from the national contexts surveys to develop and compare profiles of civic and citizenship education in the participating countries.

- *The context of the local community and school–community relationships:* The ICCS school questionnaire gathered data on the contexts and characteristics of the local community. Variables pertaining to the community level included urbanization (antecedent), resources for citizenship learning in the local area (antecedent), and civic-related activities directed at promoting civic engagement within the local community (process). The school questionnaire also obtained information on the existence of social tensions in the community and how this issue affected school life. The teacher questionnaire collected data on teacher/student participation in civic-related activities in the local community and teachers' personal participation in groups or organizations in the local community. It also collected data about teachers' and students' participation in civic-related activities in the local community and the extent to which the school and its community were committed to constructive relationships between the two.

School contexts and characteristics influence not only the development of young people's knowledge about civics and citizenship but also their dispositions and competencies in relation to their roles as citizens. A major influence is the school's general ethos, culture, and climate, within which policies relating to both formal and informal civics and citizenship curricula are enacted. The school questionnaire sought information on important antecedent variables at the school level, such as principals' characteristics and schools' characteristics and resources. It also asked about process-related variables concerning school management, school climate, teacher, parent, and student participation at school, and the implementation of civic and citizenship education at school.

The teacher questionnaire gathered information about *aspects of teaching*. These included teachers' demographic characteristics (gender, age) and the subject(s) these teachers taught in general and at the target grade. The information collected also included teachers' perceptions of aspects of their school culture and climate, their participation in school decision-making, and aspects of their teaching. As in ICCS 2009, the ICCS 2016 teacher questionnaire included an international option that asked questions about civic and citizenship education at school and about the teaching practices the school had adopted in this learning area. This last part of the questionnaire was completed only by teachers of subjects related to civic and citizenship education.

The student questionnaire measured students' perceptions of the *school and classroom context*. The measures included the classroom climate for civic and citizenship education, students' reports on their civic learning experiences, students' experience of verbal and physical abuse, and students' perceptions of school climate.

The student questionnaire also asked students to report on *home and peer contexts*, including interactions. Within the context of civic and citizenship education, these contexts can have a considerable influence on the development of young people's knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs. The student questionnaire also contained questions about selected *student characteristics* such as age and gender and the level of educational qualification that the students expected to reach.

Data collection and ICCS instruments

The main survey data collection took place in the 24 participating countries between October 2015 and June 2016. The survey was carried out in countries with a Southern Hemisphere school calendar between October and December 2015, and in those with a Northern Hemisphere school calendar between February and June 2016.

Details relating to the 2016 instruments administered to students, teachers, school principals, and national centers follow.

- The 88 items measuring civic and citizenship knowledge, analysis, and reasoning contained in the international *student cognitive test* were assigned to eight booklets (each of which contained three of a total eight 11-item clusters) according to a balanced rotated design. Each student completed one of the 45-minute booklets. The test items were generally presented with contextual material that served as a brief introduction to each item or set of items.

- The international *student questionnaire* took between 30 and 40 minutes to complete and was used to obtain students' perceptions about civics and citizenship as well as information about each student's background.

- The 30-minute *teacher questionnaire* asked respondents about their perceptions of civic and citizenship education in their schools. It also asked them to provide information about their schools' organization and culture as well as their own teaching assignments and backgrounds.

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

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

In addition to the international and regional instruments, ICCS offered several international options in the questionnaires and invited the national centers to consider using them. These options contained items concerning students' ethnicity, household composition, and religion, and a number of specific questions for teachers of civic and citizenship education.

- The regional instruments, an innovative feature of ICCS 2009, were again made available to ICCS 2016 countries in regions with five or more participating countries. The purpose of the regional instruments was to allow assessment of region-specific aspects of civic and citizenship education. The questions in the instruments, which took roughly 15 minutes to answer, focused on particular issues associated with civics and citizenship in the two regions that elected to participate in the regional option. They were Europe and Latin America.

Development of the ICCS instruments was a three-phase process.

- The first phase consisted of the writing of test and questionnaire items guided by the ICCS assessment framework. The items were piloted in six countries and were also subject to extensive consultation with the NRCs and experts from fields such as social psychology and political studies.

- The second phase involved implementation of an international field trial in all participating countries and analysis of the data collected from smaller samples of schools, students, and teachers.
- The third phase included a final revision of the material in light of the ICCS 2016 field trial results and further feedback from national centers and expert consultants.

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

Links to ICCS and reporting changes since 2009

Twenty-one of the countries that participated in ICCS 2009 also participated in ICCS 2016. Of the student test items used in ICCS 2016, about half were secure items from ICCS 2009. The inclusion of these items meant that student achievement in ICCS 2009 and ICCS 2016 could be reported on the same scale and compared. The ICCS 2016 questionnaire instruments (for students, teachers, schools, and national centers) also included selected sets of questions from the corresponding 2009 instruments, thus allowing for comparisons across the two cycles in these selected areas.[7]

Although 21 countries participated in both ICCS 2009 and ICCS 2016, this current report presents only the changes for those countries where data collections met the technical standards associated with sampling, instrument preparation, field operations, scoring, and data management during both cycles. This stipulation means that our reporting of changes over time does not cover all 21 countries or all questions and instruments. The number of countries included in comparisons of data collected by the various questions and instruments consequently vary.

Report context and scope

This publication reports on the findings from ICCS 2016. It will be complemented by the regional reports for Europe and Latin America, a technical report, and an ICCS international database and user guide. The six content-related chapters following this introductory chapter typically focus on a particular ICCS research question. The last (eighth) chapter concludes the report with a more general discussion of outcomes.

Chapter 2 describes the national contexts for civic and citizenship education in ICCS countries. It addresses common patterns as well as interesting policies and practices in specific countries and groups of countries.

Chapter 3 reports on the levels of civic and citizenship knowledge across countries and changes in civic content knowledge since 2009. It describes how the ICCS cognitive test was used to measure civic and citizenship knowledge, and it documents how countries compared on the resultant scale. Chapter 3 also reports on the relationships between student civic knowledge and the student characteristics of age and gender as well as student home characteristics associated with socioeconomic status and immigrant and language backgrounds.

Chapter 4 explores aspects of students' civic engagement. Drawing on data from the student questionnaire, the chapter reports on students' personal engagement with the media (including new social media), their level of interest in political and social issues, their confidence to engage in their civic worlds, and the nature of their current and expected citizenship participation.

Chapter 5 focuses on issues relating to students' attitudes toward important issues in society. The chapter reports data associated with students' perceptions of democracy and citizenship

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7   Details of the equating procedures enabling comparison of the 2009 and 2016 results will be provided in the ICCS 2016 technical report (Schulz, Carstens, Losito, & Fraillon, forthcoming).

and students' attitudes toward gender equality and rights for people from a range of ethnic and racial groups in their countries. The chapter also illustrates students' views on the seriousness of problems affecting the world, as well as on students' trust in civic institutions, groups, and sources of information. The chapter concludes with a look at the attitudes of students in selected countries toward the influence of religion in society.

Chapter 6 describes school and community contexts related to civic and citizenship education. This chapter includes data from the school, teacher, and student questionnaires. It reports on teachers' and students' participation in school life, the quality of social interactions in schools, the place of students and schools in their local communities as they pertain to civic-related activities, activities relating to environmental sustainability, and civic learning processes and teacher preparedness in schools.

Chapter 7 considers the results of multilevel analyses of the relationships between aspects of student background, aspects of civic learning, and other contexts of civic and citizenship education and students' civic knowledge. The chapter also reviews the results of the (single-level) multiple regression analyses designed to identify associations between student background, civic engagement experiences and attitudes, civic knowledge, and two indicators of students' prospective engagement—expected electoral participation and more active political participation.

Chapter 8 provides a summary of the main findings that emerged from ICCS 2016 in relation to its underlying research questions. It also discusses the possible implications of these findings for policy and practice.

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