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Civic attitudes and behavioural intentions among 14-year-olds. How can education make a difference towards a more democratic and cohesive Europe?

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Executive summary

Using data from the 2016 International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS), this policy report provides a detailed analysis of adolescents' civic attitudes and behavioural intentions, and the mechanisms shaping them, with a particular emphasis on the broader role of education. ICCS 2016 offers broad information on 14-year-old students' civic and citizenship knowledge, their civic attitudes and behaviours, as well as their individual characteristics and the school and community contexts. In this way, it provides an opportunity to obtain greater insights into the role that educational policies in general, and educational institutions in particular, may play in shaping civic outcomes.

There are a number of key findings worth highlighting, namely:

- Civic and citizenship education in general, and increasing students' civic self-efficacy and their civic knowledge in particular, are all crucial and not yet fully exploited means of educating engaged and open-minded young individuals.
- Maintaining an open classroom climate is a key factor associated not only with students' civic knowledge and later engagement but also with civic attitudes and behavioural intentions. Likewise, motivating students to take part in various forms of within-school activism is likely to increase their interest in actively engaging in democratic processes in later life.
- Active community involvement (which could be promoted by the school) is also positively associated with attitudes towards social-movement-related citizenship in almost all the participating countries.
- Both civic and citizenship knowledge and civic efficacy are important predictors of students' civic outcomes. Their roles are very different, though: while efficacy is consistently positively related to all the non-cognitive outcomes across all the countries, for civic knowledge this is true regarding only some attitudes.
- There is no systematic, universal gap between immigrant and native students' democratic attitudes. A significant gap between immigrant and native students is apparent in most Member States participating in ICCS only with regard to expected electoral participation. On the other hand, immigrant students are generally more in favour of equal rights for minorities.

All in all, schools seem to have the potential to shape adolescents' civic attitudes and behavioural intentions in relation to later civic participation. Our results therefore point to interesting policy challenges for education and training policymakers in their endeavours to improve democratic attitudes in the European Union.

1. Introduction

Recent financial, social and political crises across European Union (EU) countries have stimulated renewed reflection on the meanings of citizenship in an attempt to make young people become active and responsible members of society. In this regard, schools are meant to be central to nurturing the mentality of younger generations in relation to civic values and behaviour, such as antiracism, tolerance, trust and willingness to participate in the democratic decision-making process, with the aim of building democratic and socially inclusive societies. Social and civic competencies were included among the eight key competencies listed by the European Parliament and Council of the European Union in 2006 as fundamental for each individual.¹ More recently, in the light of extremist attacks and the migration challenge in Europe, the 2015 Paris “Declaration on promoting citizenship and the common values of freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination through education” set “Ensuring that children and young people acquire social, civic and intercultural competencies, by promoting democratic values and fundamental rights, social inclusion and non-discrimination as well as active citizenship” as one of the main common objectives of EU Member States (European Commission et al., 2016). As also recognised in the Conclusions of the Council and Member States meeting on “Inclusion in diversity to achieve a high quality education for all”, the diverse and multi-ethnic social fabric of current European society poses significant opportunities and challenges to education policies and education and training systems, in fostering inclusion and common values so as to facilitate the coexistence of different cultural and religious realities in a peaceful and democratic Europe. (Council of the European Union 2016)

To respond to these calls, the European Council has recently published a report on the state of citizenship and human rights education in Europe (Council of Europe, 2017) that looks at the main achievements and gaps in this area and also provides recommendations for further actions. Likewise, the latest Eurydice report presents a detailed overview of national policies in the area of citizenship education in schools across the Member States (EU MS) (European Commission et al., 2017). Our report further responds to this call with a detailed analysis of adolescents’ civic attitudes and behaviours, and the mechanisms shaping them, with a particular emphasis on the role of education in the EU MS. This empirical evidence can support the development and implementation of policies intended to promote social inclusion and democracy across Europe.

Data from the **2016 International Civic and Citizenship Education Study** (ICCS), released by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), for 14 European countries,² is used in this report. ICCS offers a unique opportunity to investigate, in the face of this changing Europe, the role of the different educational systems in promoting educational outcomes related to civic and citizenship competencies across EU Member States. Accordingly, ICCS provides detailed information on (14-year-old) student characteristics, school and community contexts, as well as on key non-cognitive civic and democratic outcomes.

Building on the assessment framework for ICCS (Schulz et al. 2016), our research explores to what extent specific characteristics of a given educational system are associated with students’ civic and citizenship values, beliefs, attitudes and behavioural intentions. The extent, to which these non-cognitive competencies can be fostered by increasing the level of cognitive skills and knowledge, but also students’ self-efficacy in civic and citizenship issues, is further assessed. Finally, an attempt is made to identify

¹ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=URISERV%3Ac11090>

² The EU MSs included in the survey are Belgium – Flemish region, Bulgaria, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany – North Rhine-Westphalia region, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Sweden.

educational methods and school characteristics that are associated with the best results in the different contexts.

Undoubtedly, information on this age group is particularly valuable, since adolescence is the moment when one's beliefs and values regarding civic issues, such as attitudes towards minority groups, start to take shape (Caro and Schulz, 2012; Manganelli et al., 2012). Further, it is important to recognise that attitudinal educational outcomes in the civic domain in the adolescent years do not simply capture the state of thinking of a new generation at a particular moment. It is expected that young people's attitudes towards civic issues are predictive of their future attitudes and behaviour. Research evidence from a longitudinal study suggests that young people's intention to participate in politics is a good predictor of their actual participation a few years later (Eckstein et al., 2013). In the USA, a longitudinal study has demonstrated statistically significant, medium-level stability across the life course in interpersonal trust as well as in organisational involvement (Jennings and Stoker, 2004).

The literature suggests that increased knowledge promotes a broader understanding of social processes and thus leads to openness and tolerance (Milner, 2002, 2007 – cited by De Groof et al., 2008). However, besides elements of the **formal learning** process (e.g. approaches to civic and citizenship education (CCE) in school), it is also suggested that schools have additional means to promote students' democratic values by fostering informal learning within, but also outside the school. Within the school, informal learning is expected to take place through experiencing and practising **democracy in the school** environment (Alivernini and Manganelli, 2011; De Groof et al., 2008; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015; Manganelli et al., 2012). Moreover, outside the school, active participation in the community through practising **community work** can also be a source of democratic values, and such activities can be initiated by the school.

Overall, this report concentrates on the broader role of education in shaping civic attitudes and behavioural intentions on the part of teenagers with regard to engaging in civic activities, and in fostering democratic values and fundamental rights, social inclusion and openness to diversity as well as active citizenship. Moreover, particular attention is also paid to attitudes towards ethnic minorities and towards immigrants. Without doubt, in the context of the ongoing migration challenge, tolerance towards ethnic (and other) minorities needs to be included among the key attitudes that education has to promote, not only among members of the majority groups but also among immigrant students with different cultural backgrounds.

Research on the active role of schools in general, and CCE in particular, in promoting democratic values as well as responsible and active notions of citizenship, and in preparing young people for active engagement in political and social activities, has significantly increased. However, the extent to which education can indeed make a difference, above all the complex attitude-shaping channels through other socialisation agents, such as the family, the media and also peers, is under-researched, as is the effectiveness of the various mechanisms through which education can improve democratic attitudes. We expect this report's empirical evidence to further contribute to the ongoing discussion. Likewise, we also hope to contribute to the attention paid to attitudes towards ethnic minorities and immigrants as well as to the integration of immigrant students in the European classrooms.

This report is organised as follows. Section 2 provides a comprehensive review of the civic and citizenship outcomes that educational systems aim to foster. These include not only civic knowledge and skills but, more importantly, individuals' civic attitudes and behavioural intentions, and tolerance towards others, particularly migrants. These non-cognitive outcomes are the focus of our work. Section 3 provides a literature review on the role of schools, but also family, peers and communities, as well as individuals' own characteristics, in developing teenagers' civic attitudes and behaviour. It concludes with a comprehensive framework to better explain youths' civic attitudes and behavioural intentions. Section 4 introduces ICCS 2016 and describes the choice of variables and the

methodology followed. Section 5 provides our main empirical findings. Focusing on the role of education in shaping adolescents' democratic attitudes and behavioural intentions, it first provides more insights into the process of democratic attitude development in general. Then it looks at the situation of immigrant students in Europe, as well as the influence that classrooms' ethnic diversity might have on adolescents' democratic attitudes. Section 6 summarises the main findings, discusses limitations and provides some policy implications from this study.

2. Cognitive and non-cognitive civic outcomes

Civic knowledge is important for the functioning of democratic institutions and systems; however, high quality democracy further requires individuals to develop non-cognitive civic skills. These include some degree of interest in social and political issues, but also attitudes, opinions and values as well as readiness to accept responsibilities, to develop judgement and to effectively participate in political and social life (see e.g. Schulz et al., 2016).

The term “civic competence” has become increasingly used to cover both the cognitive and the non-cognitive aspects of civic and citizenship outcomes (Hoskins et al., 2011, 2015; ten Dam et al., 2011). Hoskins and her colleagues for example repeatedly refer to “‘civic competence’ as a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that enables a person to become an active citizen” (Hoskins et al., 2011, p. 84). In the European Competence Framework,³ a similar approach is followed and the term “social and civic competences” encompasses knowledge, skills and also attitudes that “equip individuals to participate in an effective and constructive way in social and working life, and particularly in increasingly diverse societies and to resolve conflicts where necessary”. Clearly, while it has been widely acknowledged and well documented that civic knowledge and skills play a crucial role in guiding individuals in their current and future participation in society, through a better understanding of fundamental democratic processes, citizens’ rights and responsibilities, and institutional affairs, among other things, it may not be sufficient, unless this knowledge is connected with non-cognitive skills. That is, cognitive knowledge must be combined with civic attitudes and behavioural intentions promoting a true engagement in democracy and a responsible and active participation in political and social life. This becomes even more evident in the current world, where contexts of democracy and civic participation continue to change, as argued by Schulz et al. (2016).

According to the prevailing literature, the levels of “civic competence” can vary among countries for a number of reasons, including (1) political history, (2) economic development, and (3) education (Hoskins et al., 2011). The political history argument is linked to a country’s civic culture. The endurance of a stable democracy is critical to the development of civic norms, ensuring that civic culture is socialised from one generation to the next. On the other hand, we have countries that have experienced recent transition to democracy and whose young people are more likely to intend to participate because of the fragility of the democratic institutions (e.g. Torney-Purta et al., 2008). In this case, the political history of lack of democracy drives this positive civic competence behaviour. Equally, economic development is also related to civic attitudes and behavioural intentions, as people who grew up in a safe, wealthy environment develop values of freedom, autonomy, gender equality and tolerance close to those included in the conceptualisation of civic competence associated with democracies (Inglehart and Welzel, 2005). Finally, according to Hoskins and her colleagues, the influence of education on levels of students’ civic competencies is two-fold. On the one hand, content of CCE as a distinct curricular subject may raise cognitive understanding as well as attitudes and behavioural intentions. Depending on the civic culture context, different countries promote different types of citizenship through education (European Commission et al., 2017). At the same time, however, they also apply a wide range of different methods and educational approaches. For example, learning within the school context, especially when classrooms are open to discussions, gives students the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process, and to discuss controversial issues, enhancing their civic knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Before turning to a more nuanced discussion how education might influence civic outcomes, we continue by briefly outlining the distinction between the cognitive and non-cognitive elements of civic competencies.

³ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32006H0962&from=EN>

2.1 Civic knowledge

Civic knowledge refers to “students’ ability to answer questions requiring knowledge of civic content, and questions requiring the skills in interpreting civic-related material” (Torney-Purta, 2001, p. 44) This conceptualisation implies that students should be able to understand topics such as the fundamental democratic processes, local and national affairs, and citizens’ rights and responsibilities in a democratic system, but should also have the skills to recognise the attributes of good citizenship, and to critically analyse and interpret information. Within this context, civic knowledge is considered an important cognitive component of citizenship that plays a crucial role in guiding students in their current and future participation in society. In the 1999 IEA Civic Education Study (CIVED), cognitive civic and citizenship skills were conceptualised as a combination of knowledge and skills in interpretation of material with civic or political content (Torney-Purta, 2001). Applying a more comprehensive approach, besides knowledge, the ICCS study measures the capability for assessing and applying, where the latter refers to the ways in which students use civic and citizenship information to reach conclusions that are broader than the content of any single concept, and to make use of these in real-world contexts (Schulz et al., 2016).

Civic knowledge and skills are undoubtedly among main expected outcomes of CCE programmes (European Commission et al., 2017; Schulz et al., 2011; Torney-Purta and Lopez, 2006). The responsibility of educational systems to provide civic educational outcomes has evolved in the implementation of CCE programmes in different ways: as a distinct subject, as a set of subjects, as a cross-curricular topic or as an extra-curricular activity. In fact, the chosen arrangement entails critical decisions on the time spent on CCE in school and on the training provided to teachers in charge of the subject, which ultimately might have an impact on students’ civic outcomes (van der Wal and Waslander, 2007).

Practically speaking, the curricular goals of CCE usually support the learning of a wide variety of civic competencies (European Commission et al., 2017), including not only the above-defined cognitive component (i.e. civic knowledge and skills), but also some affective-behavioural ones (i.e. citizenship attitudes and behavioural intentions). As already mentioned, several scholars have argued that knowledge and skills alone are not sufficient, unless they are linked with attitudes that promote true engagement in democracy and a responsible and active participation in political and social life (Schulz et al., 2010; Sherrod et al., 2002; Torney-Purta, 2001). Consequently, most educational systems prioritise objectives such as the acquisition of civic knowledge and skills but also the development of values and participatory attitudes, and tolerance towards other, particularly ethnic, groups (Schulz et al., 2010; Torney-Purta, 2001).

Given the massive body of research on the development of cognitive skills in the civic and citizenship domain (Alivernini and Manganelli, 2011; Isac et al., 2014; Schulz et al., 2010, 2017; Torney-Purta, 2001), together with the more complex nature of the broad set of attitudinal and behavioural intentions, in this paper we focus on the non-cognitive elements of civic and citizenship outcomes. Still, civic and citizenship knowledge will be considered in our study, although not as an outcome per se, but as an individual characteristic that might help to develop non-cognitive civic and democratic outcomes.

2.2 Civic attitudes and behavioural intentions

While there seems to be a general agreement across researchers, policymakers and educators that, beyond cognitive skills, civic competencies also encompass non-cognitive elements promoted by the educational system, the conceptualisation and composition of these vary from context to context. This also happens because citizenship is a notion with normative aspects and, even within Europe, different “types” of citizenship coexist. A widely used categorisation proposes that the different types of citizenship reflect the different values promoted in liberal, communitarian and cosmopolitan models and the

main virtues derived from these (Hoskins et al., 2015). Instead, other authors identify specific sets of citizenship goals associated with alternative political orientations, namely liberal individualism, liberal communitarianism, egalitarian communitarianism and conservative communitarianism (Eidhof et al., 2016). There is no doubt that several specific, uncontested citizenship attitudes can be derived from one or another of these four major political orientations; still, it is suggested that a great deal of consensus can be found across them with regard to the most important values and norms that citizens should share to foster democracy (Eidhof et al., 2016). These generally accepted values form a good basis for identifying a set of consensus citizenship goals to inform CCE in Europe.

In the 2016 study by Eidhof, citizenship goals that are most commonly identified as crucial for the democratic functioning of societies are collected and grouped into three categories. First, **openness for diversity** refers to tolerance towards cultural, ethnic, socioeconomic or religious diversity within society and support for equal rights for every citizen. Second, **support of democratic principles and practices** is needed from citizens for making these principles effective and making the democratic institutions work. Finally, civic engagement in the form of **volunteering** is also suggested as part of the most contested democratic goals (Eidhof et al., 2016).

In the empirical research assessing students' non-cognitive civic outcomes, a large variety of concepts appears, referring more or less closely to the theoretical underpinnings but also reflecting the availability of empirical constructs and measurement tools. Most of the studies however deal with outcomes that fit very well into Eidhof's first two categories (i.e. openness for diversity and support of democratic principles and practices)⁴. Openness for diversity is most commonly measured by students' attitudes toward gender rights, students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups, and students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants. Support of democratic principles and practices, on the other hand, is a more complex notion that we can further divide into two subcategories: attitudes and expected behaviours (i.e. behavioural outcomes) (Torney-Purta, 2001). Examples of such attitudes include students' perceptions of good citizenship, students' trust in institutions and students' attitudes towards democratic values. Expected behaviour that expresses support for democratic principles and practices includes students' expected electoral participation and expected civic engagement.

Strictly speaking not part of the main categories elaborated, students' attitudes towards civic engagement, in particular, students' interest in political and social issues as well as students' sense of **citizenship self-efficacy** are sometimes also included among the desired outcomes of CCE. However, in the literature these qualities are often considered not as final outcomes but as individual characteristics – potentially also developed by the school – that can further guide attitudinal and behavioural outcomes in the civic domain (Isac et al., 2014; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015; Manganelli et al., 2014).

⁴ Voluntary work (Eidhof's third value) is seldom considered as a civic student outcome in empirical studies.

3. The development of civic attitudes and behaviour

As argued by Eurydice (European Commission et al., 2017), schools are meant to be among the most significant socialising factors in the development of students into well informed, responsible, participatory, active and socially integrated young individuals capable of contributing to the well-being of the society in which they live. Yet, it is also acknowledged that students' civic knowledge and civic engagement is not only the result of schooling (e.g. Sherrod et al., 2002) but they are also certainly linked with individual characteristics, and activities and experiences outside the school (family, peers, local community and, recently, social media).

This section presents the current evidence on the factors at the student, school (classroom) and community levels that are related to students' civic and citizenship outcomes, in particular to their democratic attitudes and behavioural intentions.

3.1 Civic and citizenship education, democratic school climate and community work

It is generally expected that schools will play a key role in the provision of the necessary tools to learn about the practice of democracy and social cohesion. There is less agreement, however, on the channels and means through which schools can most effectively improve civic attitudes and behavioural intentions. From the related theoretical and empirical literature, two main strands and one weaker argument seem to emerge providing an explanatory framework to describe the main educational approaches related to democratic attitudes and tolerance among students. Considering the learning processes that take place within a school, it is possible to differentiate between the formal delivery of civic and citizenship subjects aiming mostly – but not exclusively – to improve cognitive outcomes and informal learning that takes place through everyday in-school experiences, sometimes modelling larger democratic systems. To these two main channels a third can be added, which is experience in community work outside the school, but potentially promoted by the educational system.

First, **formal learning** about civic and citizenship topics ("political education" or "civic classes") has increasingly been introduced in the curricula of a growing number of countries around the world, albeit with great variations in terms of methodological approaches and subject content. Several authors argue that this formal way of subject delivery is crucial not only in the delivery of cognitive knowledge, but also in shaping values and attitudes as a means of improving civic and citizenship skills and knowledge. The argument suggests that increased knowledge promotes a broader understanding of social processes and thus leads to openness and tolerance, increased support for democratic values, and also more willingness for political participation (Milner 2002, 2007 – cited by De Groof, et al., 2008; Galston, 2001). Various studies have focused on direct associations between the formal learning process and attitudinal outcomes. In Canada, for example, providing classes on politics, but also on different religions and other cultures, was shown to positively relate to 16-year-old students' intentions with regard to both conventional and social-movement-oriented participation (Claes et al., 2009). Likewise, a Belgian study has revealed positive associations between number and frequency of civic-related topics covered in school and students' political participation (Quintelier, 2010). Some empirical research in the field has been successful in identifying links between different forms of civic and citizenship subject delivery and students' knowledge and cognitive skills (Claes et al., 2009; Hooghe and Dassonneville, 2011). Finally, other empirical findings demonstrated positive – although typically not very strong – associations between civic and citizenship knowledge and several attitudinal outcomes, including ethnic tolerance (De Groof et al., 2008; Kokkonen et al., 2010), institutional trust (Kokkonen et al., 2010), social movement citizenship (Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015) and expected civic participation (Manganelli et al., 2012, 2014; Schulz et al., 2010).

A second strand of research suggests that it is the within-school informal learning process, the experience of within-**school democracy**, rather than formally delivered knowledge, that has an influence on students' democratic attitudes. Thus, a democratic, school environment that allows students to experience the right to have their say, where they can openly discuss sensitive issues and can experience the connections between an activity and its consequences, and where students but also parents and teachers have a role in the decision-making process is expected to promote the development of democratic attitudes (Alivernini and Manganelli, 2011; Claes et al., 2009; De Groof et al., 2008; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015; Manganelli et al., 2012). In this regard, the importance of an open classroom climate that encourages students to express their views freely has been demonstrated in several studies across different countries, both in improving civic and citizenship knowledge (Alivernini and Manganelli, 2011; Hooghe and Dassonneville, 2011; Isac et al., 2011, 2014; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015; Kokkonen et al., 2010; Schulz et al., 2010; Torney-Purta, 2001) and also political self-efficacy (Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015). Further, an open classroom climate has also been associated with various non-cognitive outcomes such as social-movement-related citizenship, interethnic tolerance and institutional trust, social movement-related citizenship, expected political participation, as well as more positive attitudes towards interethnic diversity (Caro and Schulz, 2012; Isac et al., 2014; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015; Kokkonen et al., 2010; Manganelli et al., 2012; Schulz et al., 2010; Torney-Purta, 2001).

Although students' perception of open classroom climate remains the single most often applied indicator for school democracy, other approaches to operationalising the school context can also be found. Positive associations between the ratio of students in the student council and ethnic tolerance (De Groof et al., 2008) or between the opportunities for students to practise democracy in school (e.g. by active participation in a debate, voting for a class representative, taking part in decision-making) and intended political participation (Isac et al., 2014) also signal the importance of the "learning democracy by doing it" process.

Finally, we distinguish another form of active learning: **active community involvement**, that is, an unpaid work-type activity done for the wider community. Community involvement is also a form of informal learning, but it is one that is taking place outside the school. It can be done either voluntarily or as an activity made obligatory or recommended by the school as part of the CCE curriculum. Sporadic and mainly correlation-based research evidence – predominantly from outside Europe – suggests that community work can help to improve students' civic outcomes. This is most likely to happen through making students more open towards diversity, providing them with first-hand experiences of social issues and increasing their embeddedness in the local community. A US study of high school students in 1999 found that students' participation in community service is associated with an increased level of civic knowledge and civic efficacy. Very importantly from a policy point of view, there was no significant difference in the strength of association depending on whether or not the student did this work on a voluntary basis or because it was required by the school. Activities related to assisting organisations lead to slightly better results than other types of services (Schmidt et al., 2007). According to a review paper, other US studies "revealed mixed but encouraging results" (Galston, 2001, p. 230) relating to students' service learning. Service learning in this context refers to "curriculum-based community service that integrates classroom instruction with community service activities" (Galston, 2001, p. 229). In Canada, experiences with community service were positively associated with expected conventional political participation (but not with social-movement-related participation intentions), particularly among ethnic minority students (Claes et al., 2009). In Belgium, 14-year-old students' political engagement (the extent to which students were following societal and political issues) was also positively related to volunteering (as measured on the class level). However, those who volunteered at this age had a lower growth rate in political engagement as they approached the age of 24 (Neundorff et al., 2016). Using ICCS 2009 data and measuring the broader concept of

“student’s participation in the community” that includes activities in several different types of organisations outside the school, Isac and her colleagues also found small positive associations with social-movement-related citizenship and intended political participation (Isac et al., 2014). On the same data, students’ civic participation in the wider community was linked to more positive attitudes towards neighbourhood diversity across various Latin American countries (Caro and Schulz, 2012).

The latest Eurydice report on CCE across the European countries indicates that in 2016/17, eight out of the twenty-eight Member States included top-level recommendations to include voluntary work (e.g. work with community-based organisations) in the curricula at International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level ISCED1, nine countries at ISCED2 and twelve countries at ISCED3 level (European Commission et al., 2017).

3.2 The role of civic and citizenship knowledge and civic self-efficacy

As already implied in the previous sections, improving **civic and citizenship knowledge** has not only been set as an educational goal per se, but also because of its (assumed) positive impact on non-cognitive civic outcomes. Formal CCE directly targets students’ cognitive improvement in the civic domain and some studies have shown its – direct and indirect – positive associations with a range of attitudinal civic outcomes. Theory suggests that an increased cognitive understanding of civic processes might also lead to more open and positive attitudes towards democratic institutions and diversity in society (Galston, 2001).

Besides knowledge, **civic self-efficacy** has also proven to be an important factor in relation to civic attitudes and behavioural intentions. “Perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). The notion of civic self-efficacy thus refers to students’ self-confidence in their ability to handle different situations and take actions related to civic issues and civic participation. Examples include feeling confident to be able to discuss a newspaper article about a conflict between countries or speak in front of a class about a political or social issue. Research evidence rather consistently suggests that students’ self-efficacy in various subjects predicts their motivation, as well as their performance and behaviour in related fields.

In fact, civic self-efficacy is positively related to civic and citizenship knowledge (Isac et al., 2014; Solhaug, 2006), and it is often argued that education should foster civic efficacy alongside civic knowledge, as the two serve different functions in the process of civic development. A Norwegian study of upper secondary school students found self-efficacy to be a stronger predictor of students’ intentions of a series of future political activities (voting, party membership and other forms of participation) than civic knowledge. Efficacy was shown to strengthen intentions both directly and indirectly by improving students’ motivation to participate. At the same time, civic knowledge was found to be more closely related to tolerance for diversity and also to students’ willingness to contribute to the collective good than self-efficacy (Solhaug, 2006). Other studies also suggest the complementarity of knowledge and self-beliefs. On the ICCS 2009 data it has been shown that students’ social movement citizenship is more strongly related to their sense of capability for civic and political action than to their level of civic and citizenship knowledge (Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015). Similarly in Italy, civic and political self-efficacy proved to be stronger predictors of students’ expected civic participation than civic and citizenship knowledge (Manganelli et al., 2014). Students with a higher level of civic self-efficacy were found to act at higher levels of conventional and social-movement-related citizenship and intended political participation (Isac et al., 2014), including a higher level of expected political and legal protest participation (Ainley and Schulz, 2011; Manganelli et al., 2012) across several countries. All in all, evidence seems to suggest that knowledge and self-efficacy need to be

improved simultaneously as they mutually reinforce each other and contribute to the improvement of different civic and citizenship qualities that education seeks to foster. However, the promotion of knowledge and self-efficacy probably need different educational approaches. As far as civic self-efficacy is concerned, according to Bandura (1997), it can best be promoted through democratic school experiences. Indeed, students experiencing an open classroom climate also tend to report higher levels of civic and internal political efficacy (Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015), as do students who have participated in voluntary work in the community (Schmidt et al., 2007).

Ultimately, citizenship education policies and educational approaches have the potential to influence citizenship outcomes of students – cognitive, but also non-cognitive. Formal learning of civic issues, a democratic school environment and active community involvement might all have their specific roles in the education process. Improving students' civic and citizenship knowledge is not simply an educational objective per se, but it is also a means to foster (some of their) democratic attitudes and might also improve their willingness for future political participation. Besides students' understanding of civic issues, their self-efficacy is also likely to increase, which then further fosters (possibly even more strongly) some important civic attitudes. However, different educational approaches can be more successful in promoting some outcomes than others, and it is also expected that a given approach will work better in some types of cultural and social environment than in others. That said, in this report we consider both the two types of civic dispositions (i.e. civic and citizenship knowledge and self-efficacy), and the different educational approaches as determinants of the different non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes identified.

We move on now to the following section, where we provide an overview of the most important individual and contextual factors that civic education policies need to take into account.

3.3 School and individual characteristics related to students' civic attitudes and behavioural intentions

3.3.1 School characteristics

Beyond the above-listed formal and informal curriculum opportunities, which are potentially subjects for intervention via national- or school-level policies, school composition and context are also decisive in the development of civic and citizenship competencies. Although not completely outside the scope of education policy, these school characteristics are more difficult to alter. In this study, the ethnic composition of the class and some characteristics of the school neighbourhood will be considered.

England, increased level of **ethnic diversity** in the school (as well as a higher proportion of socially disadvantaged students) is linked to lower level of interethnic tolerance of the students. At the same time, increased school ethnic diversity is also associated with stronger beliefs in community participation (Keating and Benton, 2013). Likewise, ethnic diversity of the school is also negatively related to civic and citizenship knowledge in the Swedish context, but here it is also found to be positively related to instructional trust (Kokkonen et al., 2010).

Further, one might also expect that characteristics of the **neighbourhood** would also form part of the informal learning process outside the school, and thus also influence the civic learning process of adolescents. However, little evidence can be found that would support this hypothesis. Isac et al. (2014) find no evidence that social tensions in the community affect non-cognitive outcomes, but they have reported a small negative impact on civic and citizenship knowledge linked to such tensions. At the same time, intended participation is found to be lower among students in more urban school neighbourhoods.

3.3.2 Individual characteristics

Democratic attitudes and behavioural intentions are strongly linked to a range of individual characteristics including age, gender, and immigrant and socioeconomic status. **Age** is normally an indicator of school career delay within a specific cohort, which usually has a negative relation to civic knowledge (Isac et al., 2014, 2011; Schulz et al., 2010), and it is found to negatively influence social-movement-related citizenship (Isac et al., 2014). Regarding **gender**, girls seem to perform better than boys in terms of civic and citizenship knowledge, according to some studies (Alivernini and Manganelli, 2011; Isac et al., 2014; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015) but not others (Kokkonen et al., 2010; Manganelli et al., 2014). Boys outperform girls when political – rather than civic – knowledge is being assessed (Claes et al., 2009; Hooghe and Dassonneville, 2011). In terms of their attitudes and behavioural intentions, girls tend to focus more on social-movement-related citizenship (Isac et al., 2014), and to exhibit more tolerance towards minority groups (Caro and Schulz, 2012; De Groof et al., 2008; Keating and Benton, 2013; Kokkonen et al., 2010). Boys in Canada, on the other hand, expect to be more politically active in the future, at least as far as conventional political participation is concerned (Claes et al., 2009). This was also confirmed in the Czech Republic and England, while in Denmark, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Korea, New Zealand and Norway an opposite tendency was found (Schulz et al., 2010).

Empirical evidence further shows that those from families with a **higher socioeconomic status** generally demonstrate higher levels of civic knowledge (Isac et al., 2014; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015; Manganelli et al., 2012; Schulz et al., 2010; Torney-Purta, 2001). In England, students from the higher social strata exhibit more tolerance towards ethnic minorities and stronger beliefs about the importance of community participation (Keating and Benton, 2013). Students from higher status families also report higher levels of expected political participation in Italy – although most of this influence can be attributed to their increased political efficacy (Manganelli et al., 2012, 2014). They further demonstrate more institutional trust, as well as higher levels of interethnic tolerance in Sweden (Kokkonen et al., 2010), and more positive attitudes towards neighbourhood diversity in Latin American countries (Caro and Schulz, 2012). Positive associations between parental background and expected electoral participation were found across several ICCS countries in 2009 (Schulz et al., 2010). In an analysis of the pooled sample of 31 ICCS countries in that year, no significant association emerges either between socioeconomic background and social-movement-related citizenship, or between background and intended participation in political and social activities. In the same study, parental background is negatively related to conventional citizenship attitudes (Isac et al., 2014). However, results also show that disadvantaged youth (of low socioeconomic status) might be more inclined to conceptualise citizenship in terms of law obedience and are therefore more likely to support the conventional forms of citizenship (Sherrod et al., 2002).

In addition, several studies have suggested that students' **expected level of education** is positively associated with various civic outcomes, cognitive and non-cognitive alike. Examples include a positive association with citizenship and civic knowledge (Hooghe and Dassonneville, 2011; Isac et al., 2014; Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015), level of political efficacy (Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015) and social-movement-related citizenship as well as intended political participation (Isac et al., 2014).

Previous research shows that students' **immigrant background** is associated with a lower level of civic knowledge across a range of European countries (Alivernini and Manganelli, 2011; Kokkonen et al., 2010; Schulz et al., 2010). Moreover, students with an immigrant background have lower levels of institutional trust in Sweden (Kokkonen et al., 2010) and a lower expectation of future political activity in Canada (Claes et al., 2009). In a study of 10 Western European countries plus the USA, immigrant students rather consistently hold stronger negative attitudes towards the equal rights of women as well as towards their country of residence. They also report lower trust in government-related institutions than their non-immigrant counterparts (Prokic and

Dronkers, 2010). Instead, immigrant students tend to be more open towards ethnic diversity and hold more positive attitudes towards immigrants, according to several studies (Keating and Benton, 2013; Kokkonen et al., 2010; Prokic and Dronkers, 2010). In some analyses, language spoken at home is used as a proxy for coming from a different country. Similarly to the immigrant groups defined by their place of birth, students who do not speak the language of the test at home are also systematically reported to underperform in the civic and citizenship knowledge tests (Knowles and McCafferty-Wright, 2015; Schulz et al., 2010) and they have also been found to be more tolerant towards ethnic minorities than others (De Groof et al., 2008).

The relevance of **religious activity** in shaping students' attitudes towards neighbourhood diversity is analysed in several Latin American countries. Results show that, although in general, more religious activity seems to be associated with a higher level of tolerance, in some countries a non-linear relationship between religion and tolerance exists (Caro and Schulz, 2012). This suggests that beyond a certain level of religious activity, level of tolerance stops increasing and might even start falling.

Students' **interest in political and social issues** and their interest in getting information on social, political and economic issues through greater **exposure to the media**, and **discussing them with family and peers**, have also been positively related to adolescents' civic knowledge as well as their attitudes. In various empirical studies, more exposure to information about politics and society has been related to an increased level of civic and citizenship knowledge (Claes et al., 2009; Isac et al., 2014) and political knowledge (Hooghe and Dassonneville, 2011), as well as greater expected conventional and social-movement-related political participation (Claes et al., 2009). Students who use several different channels to learn about political and social issues also attribute more importance to conventional citizenship and they are more willing to participate in political and social activities in the future (Isac et al., 2014). Associations are also identified between student's and their parents' interest and student's expected electoral participation (Schulz et al., 2010).

3.4 Our comprehensive framework to explain teenagers' civic attitudes and behaviour

Following the argument outlined above, in this report we focus on non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes and test the role of education in shaping them. Therefore, based on the variables contained in ICCS 2016 data (for details see Section 4), a set of general democratic (consensus) citizenship goals were selected as suggested by Eidhof et al., (2016), reflecting both **support for democratic principles and practices**, and **openness for diversity**.

More specifically, **support for democratic principles and practices** was captured through four attitudes and two behavioural intention measures, namely:

- students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship;
- students' perception of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship;
- students' perception of the importance of personal responsibility for citizenship;
- students' trust in civic institutions;
- students' expected electoral participation;
- students' expected active political participation.

Similarly, **openness for diversity** was measured by two attitudes:

- students' attitudes towards equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups;

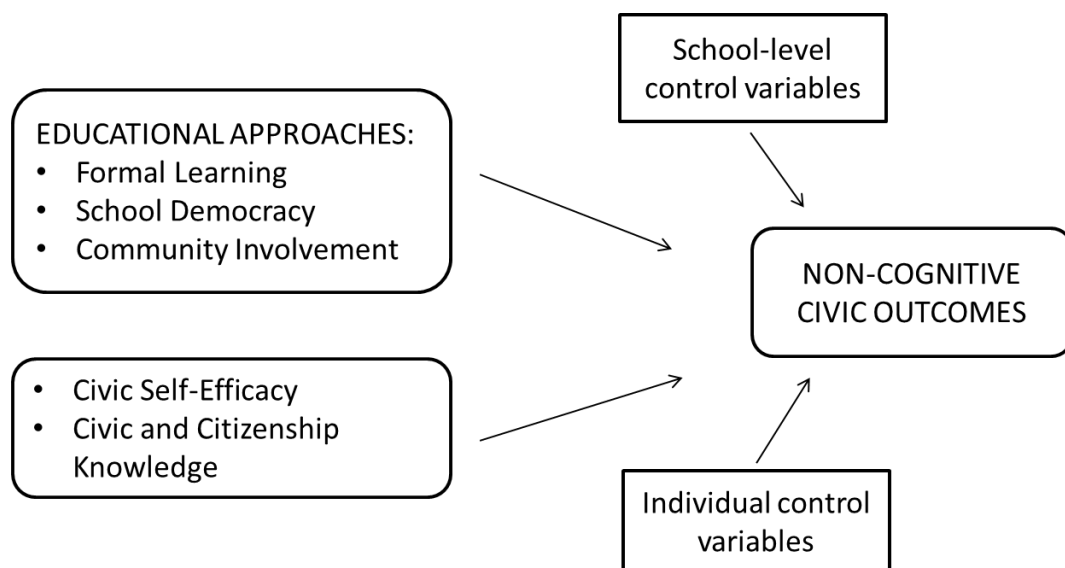
- students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants.

The aim of our study is to understand the extent to which education and school can promote these various non-cognitive civic outcomes given the students' social background, their other individual characteristics and the school. In our analysis, we also include civic knowledge and civic self-efficacy, as we consider them both to be important factors facilitating the process of attitude development. Figure 1 provides a schematic overview of the processes analysed in this report.

The following educational approaches will be related to non-cognitive civic outcomes (1) the formal learning process whereby civic and citizenship knowledge is delivered, (2) the extent to which the school provides opportunities to practise and experience democracy in the school context, and (3) the informal learning process outside the school that takes the form of active community engagement. This third factor is considered as potential part of the education process because community work can be promoted by the school and can potentially be made part of civic and citizenship curricula.

On the basis of theory and previous research we expect that these three educational approaches all have the potential to positively influence civic and citizenship outcomes, albeit likely to vary in their level of importance in the various contexts as well as with regard to the different civic outcomes. They are also expected to be in complex associations with civic knowledge and civic self-efficacy. Formal civic learning, for example, is most likely to have the strongest associations with civic knowledge, and, by improving knowledge, it is also expected to foster tolerance towards diversity, willingness to participate in electoral activities and other values that schools seek to promote. Theory also suggests that practising democracy in school makes children more self-confident in civic issues and thus it promotes their non-cognitive civic outcomes – most probably their willingness to actively participate in future civic and political activities. We expect the EU MS to be different from each other not only in the attitudes and behavioural intentions of their student bodies and the educational approaches they take, but also in the processes that will eventually shape how adolescents think and behave in relation to civic and citizenship issues. Most probably, certain methods work better in one country than in others – depending on the country's civic culture, the history of stable democracy and the level of economic development, as well as the educational system's characteristics.

Figure 1. Analytical framework



A better understanding of these processes is of major importance, given the current challenge European educational systems are facing in promoting democratic, socially inclusive societies at a time of increasing intra-European mobility and immigration of third-country nationals. As acquiring civic and citizenship knowledge and attitudes – strongly embedded into European culture and history – might impose different demands on students from foreign cultures and on natives, it is crucial to investigate the above-described processes with special attention to ethnic differences within the classroom. Equally, assessing the necessary conditions for developing tolerance towards ethnic minorities and immigrants among non-immigrants requires further consideration. Therefore while the main part of our analysis provides an insight into the development of non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes across the student body in general, the last section will provide some evidence on the situation of ethnically diverse classrooms and investigate the role of CCE in the integration of immigrant students.

4. Data and methodology

4.1. The 2016 International Civic and Citizenship Education Study

The IEA, in collaboration with the study's national research coordinators and in cooperation with consortiums, investigated civic education and its outcomes in 1999 and 2009, with a new release in 2016. These surveys give as much attention to civic attitudes and beliefs as to civic knowledge, offering a unique opportunity to provide further empirical evidence in the field. All data are collected in a systematic and comparable manner, to allow for cross-country comparisons, but also monitoring changes in students' attitudes and achievement over time, taking advantage of previous versions of ICCS (Schulz et al., 2016, 2017).

As in 2009, ICCS 2016 collected data from 13- to 14-year-old students⁵ (Grade 8), their teachers, and schools, including information related to the students' socioeconomic background, civic and citizenship knowledge, attitudes and civic participation, teaching practices, and school resources, among other factors likely to be related to democratic values and fundamental rights, as well as active citizenship. Thus, ICCS 2016 aims to investigate the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their roles as citizens in the second decade of the 21st century. In doing so, it expects to respond to the emerging challenges of educating young people in a world where contexts of democracy and civic participation continue to change (Schulz et al., 2016). ICCS 2016 reports on student achievement using a test of conceptual knowledge and understanding of aspects of civics and citizenship. For a full account of the content and study design, see Schulz et al. (2016).

In 2016, 24 educational systems were included in the survey, with 14 EU MS among them. From the EU, 14 educational systems were involved: 12 national systems (Bulgaria, Denmark,⁶ Estonia,⁷ Finland, Croatia, Italy, Lithuania, Latvia,⁸ Malta, the Netherlands, Sweden⁹ and Slovenia) and two regional systems (the North Rhine-Westphalia region in Germany¹⁰ and the Flemish region in Belgium). When discussing educational systems in this report, we refer to "countries" or "EU MS" for the sake of simplicity but in fact mean national and regional educational systems.

In each country, the sample was designed as a two-stage cluster sample. During the first stage, probability proportional sampling (PPS, where probability was proportional to the number of students in the school) procedures were used to sample schools within each country. Countries were asked to plan for a minimum sample size of 150 schools, although the numbers were also adjusted to national characteristics.¹¹

In the second stage of the sampling within each sampled and participating school, a complete class from the target grade was sampled randomly. In that class, all students were surveyed. From the sampling design, the overall number of participating students ranged from about 3,000 to 4,500 across the countries.¹² In the European countries, the survey data collection took place between February and June 2016.

In the current report, data from the student cognitive test, the student questionnaire and the school questionnaire – completed by the principals – are used.

⁵ Only if the average age of students in Grade 8 was below 13.5 years did Grade 9 become the target population. For this reason, Malta assessed Grade 9 students.

⁶ Denmark – met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

⁷ Estonia – National Defined Population covers 90% to 95% of National Target Population.

⁸ Latvia – National Defined Population covers 90% to 95% of National Target Population.

⁹ Sweden – National Defined Population covers 90% to 95% of National Target Population.

¹⁰ Germany – given the low response rate, the North Rhine-Westphalia region did not meet IEA sample participation requirements, even after the inclusion of replacement schools. Following IEA reporting standards, therefore, results will be reported for the whole sample but not for subgroups within the sample.

¹¹ In Malta there are fewer than 150 schools, therefore the survey was conducted in all schools.

¹² Regarding EU Member States, in Germany (North Rhine-Westphalia region) fewer than 1,500 students participated in ICCS 2016, and in Denmark more than 6,000 students participated in this survey.

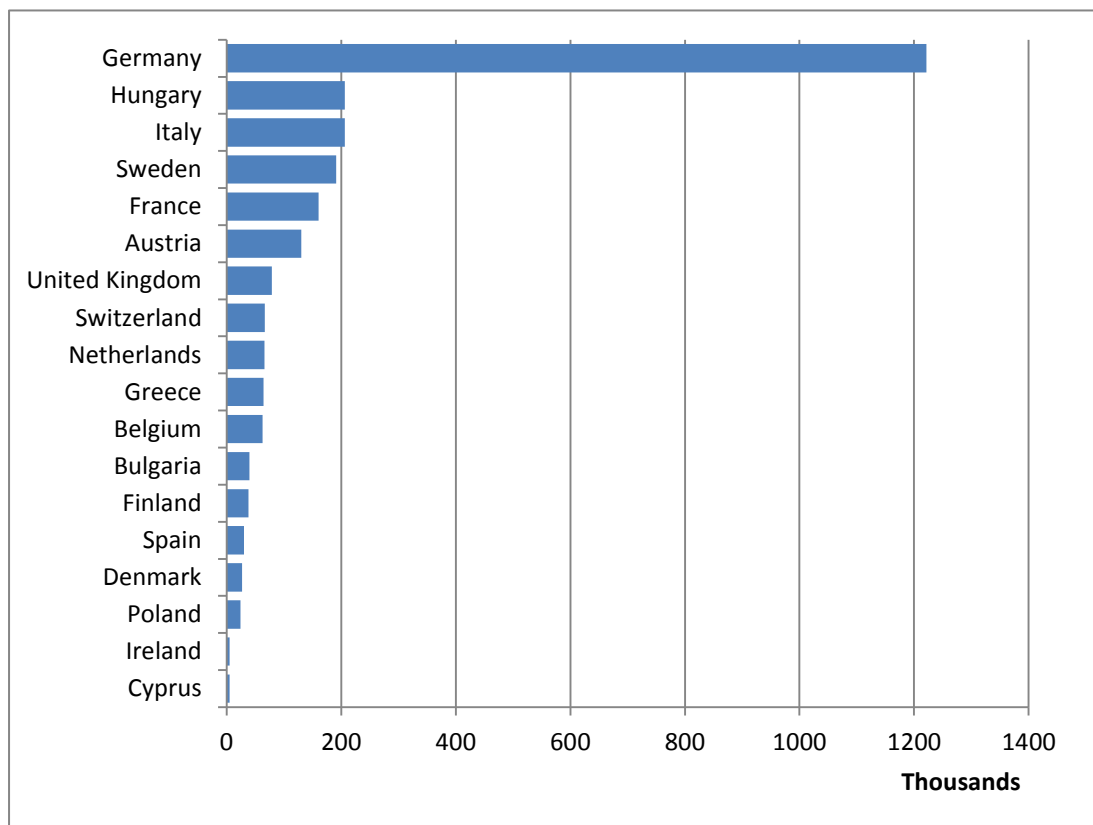
4.2. European Member States participating in ICCS 2016

The 14 European Member States in the ICCS study represent democracies with different histories and thus with different civic cultures. Thus, we find examples for all three main historical paths as defined by Hoskins et al. (2011). Based on the duration of a stable democracy in the country, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden belong to the group of established democracies, as they have had a long and stable history of continuous democracy for most of the 20th century. Germany, Italy and Malta, on the other hand, have experienced some major disruptions of their democratic systems in the past 70 years. While Germany and Italy both had to recover from fascism and adopt democratic principles after the Second World War, Malta did not secure its independence from the United Kingdom until the 1960s. Finally, the countries of Eastern European (in this survey Bulgaria, Estonia, Croatia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia) have only relatively recently made their transitions into democracies.

Further, it is important to consider the position of the 14 ICCS EU Member States within the historical immigration processes. Applying a classification proposed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2015), we can identify a rather mixed set of immigration patterns across these Member States. Several countries in this survey are characterised by an immigrant population shaped by border changes and/or by the migration flows of national minorities: Croatia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia belong to this category. On the other hand, Bulgaria is classified as an emerging destination country with a small immigrant population. Italy and Malta are also new destination countries but with a much heavier recent inflow of labour immigrants (the former receives more low-educated immigrants, while the latter more highly educated ones). Then we have Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands, which are longstanding destinations with many settled low-educated immigrants. Finally, Denmark, Finland and Sweden are destination countries with significant recent migration, often through humanitarian channels.

Although this categorisation provides a good base for understanding long-term and large-scale differences and similarities between the countries, it is important to further emphasise the most recent tendencies, i.e. the particular historical context of the immigration crisis in Europe, which has probably influenced students' attitudes assessed in this study. Although here it is not possible to systematically account for such effects, it is still important to bear in mind that half of the European countries analysed here had been severely affected by mass immigration waves before and even during the time of the survey. Besides Denmark, Finland and Sweden, discussed above, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium and Bulgaria were among the biggest receivers of asylum seekers in 2015/16 (see Figure 2). The intensive media coverage of the crisis, together with heated political debate, has undoubtedly reached young adolescents. Media communication and tensions around these controversial topics were further intensified following the series of extremist terrorist attacks in Europe during 2015 and 2016, one of which directly affected Belgium during the surveying period, on 22 March 2016.

Figure 2. Total number of asylum applicants in the EU Member States in 2015 and 2016¹³



Source: Own elaboration from Eurostat data.

http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=migr_asyappctza&lang=en

¹³ EU Member States are ranked in descending order of number of asylum applicants. Only countries with more than 5000 asylum seekers are shown.

4.3 Variables used

4.3.1. Dependent variables

As discussed above, and following the framework used by Eidhof et al. (2016), the civic attitudes and behavioural intentions (non-cognitive civic outcomes) commonly identified as crucial for the democratic functioning of societies can be divided into three subgroups: (1) support for democratic principles and practices (attitudes); (2) support for democratic principles and practices (behavioural intentions); and (3) openness for diversity. Table 1 describes how the eight attitude and behavioural intention scales selected from the ICCS dataset correspond to this categorisation.¹⁴

Students' perception of the importance of various forms of citizenship "refers to student beliefs regarding 'good citizenship' and relates mainly to ... civic society and systems, but also to ... civic principles" (Schulz et al., 2016). The scale for **students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship** is based on six Likert-type items that rank the importance students give to certain behaviours in order to be a good adult citizen: (1) *voting in every national election*; (2) *joining a political party*; (3) *learning about the country's history*; (4) *following political issues in newspapers, on the radio, on TV, or on the internet*; (5) *showing respect for government representatives*; and (6) *engaging in political discussions*. The answers range from "very important" to "quite important", "not very important" and "not important at all". The same items were used in 2009 (Schulz et al., 2010). We also use the scale built to measure the concept of **social-movement-related citizenship**, where four Likert-type items are included: (1) *participating in peaceful protests against laws believed to be unjust*; (2) *participating in activities to benefit people in the local community*; (3) *taking part in activities promoting human rights*; and (4) *taking part in activities to protect the environment*. Analyses on the ICCS 2009 data have demonstrated that these two types of citizenship show somewhat different patterns of associations with individual- and school-level characteristics (Isac et al., 2011).

In addition, in the 2016 survey a new dimension of citizenship was explored by employing a set of new items in the questionnaire that refer to **personal responsibility for citizenship**. In this concept, the following seven Likert-type items ("very important", "quite important", "not very important" and "not important at all") were used: (1) *working hard*; (2) *always obeying the law*; (3) *ensuring the economic welfare of your family*; (4) *making personal efforts to protect natural resources (e.g. through saving water or recycling waste)*; (5) *respecting the rights of others to have their own opinions*; (6) *supporting people who are worse off than you*; and (7) *engaging in activities to help people in less developed countries*.

The fourth attitudinal scale that refers to support for democratic principles and practices is **institutional trust**. It "reflects students' feelings of trust in a variety of state and civic institutions in society, and relates mainly to ... civic society and systems" (Schulz et al., 2016). The institutions listed in the questionnaire include (1) *the national government of the country*, (2) *the local government of the own town or city*, (3) *courts of justice*, (4) *the police*, (5) *political parties*, and (6) *the national parliament*. Again, Likert scales were used and students were asked to indicate whether they "completely trust", trust "quite a lot", trust "a little" or "not at all" trust these institutions. Following other scholars, we expect citizens' trust in democratic institutions to be a desirable quality for a stable and democratic society. Having said that, it has to be taken into account that the cross-country comparability of this particular construct has been questioned in an earlier study and it has been demonstrated that, under certain circumstances, institutional trust might even be negatively associated with civic knowledge (Lauglo, 2013).

¹⁴ Further, the variable names of the different constructs are also presented in Table 1, for further reference.

Table 1. Non-cognitive civic outcomes assessed in this study: scale reliability (Cronbach's alpha)

Type of non-cognitive civic outcome	Scale applied	No. items	Min. Cronbach's alpha	Max. Cronbach's alpha	Average Cronbach's alpha
Support for democratic principles and practices – Attitudes	Students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship (CITCON)	6	0.60	0.82	0.71
	Students' perception of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship (CITSOC)	4	0.60	0.88	0.75
	Students' perception of the importance of personal responsibility for citizenship (CITRESP)	7	0.71	0.88	0.78
	Students' trust in civic institutions (INTRUST)	6	0.82	0.91	0.85
Support for democratic principles and practices – Behavioural intentions	Students' expected electoral participation (ELECPART)	3	0.76	0.94	0.84
	Students' expected active political participation (POLPART)	5	0.72	0.91	0.85
Openness for diversity	Students' attitudes towards equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups (ETHRGHT)	5	0.67	0.92	0.83
	Students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants (IMMRGHT)	5	0.77	0.87	0.81

Source: Eidhof et al. (2016) and IEA.

To capture the support for democratic principles and practices that are apparent in behavioural intentions, we included expected (future) electoral participation and expected (future) political participation among our civic goal measures. Citizens' participation in the democratic voting processes is generally considered one of the major conditions for democratic functioning. Moreover, several European countries have lately witnessed widespread concern about citizens' and especially young people's increasing disinterest in political elections. Therefore, young people's intentions of later participation are understandably a civic goal, one that education should seek to promote. The scale for measuring students' **expected electoral participation** was based on three Likert-type items (four response categories: "I would certainly do this", "I would probably do this", "I would probably not do this" and "I would certainly not do this") about their future intentions of (1) *voting in local elections*, (2) *voting in national elections*, and (3) *obtaining information about candidates before voting in an elections*. Similarly, **active political participation** was measured by a set of five items referring to more proactive political actions, such as (1) *helping a candidate or party during an election campaign*, (2) *joining a political party*, (3) *joining a trade union*, (4) *standing as a candidate in local elections*, and (5) *joining an organisation for a political or social cause*.

Finally, two scales were used to cover openness for diversity. First, **students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups** "reflect students' beliefs about

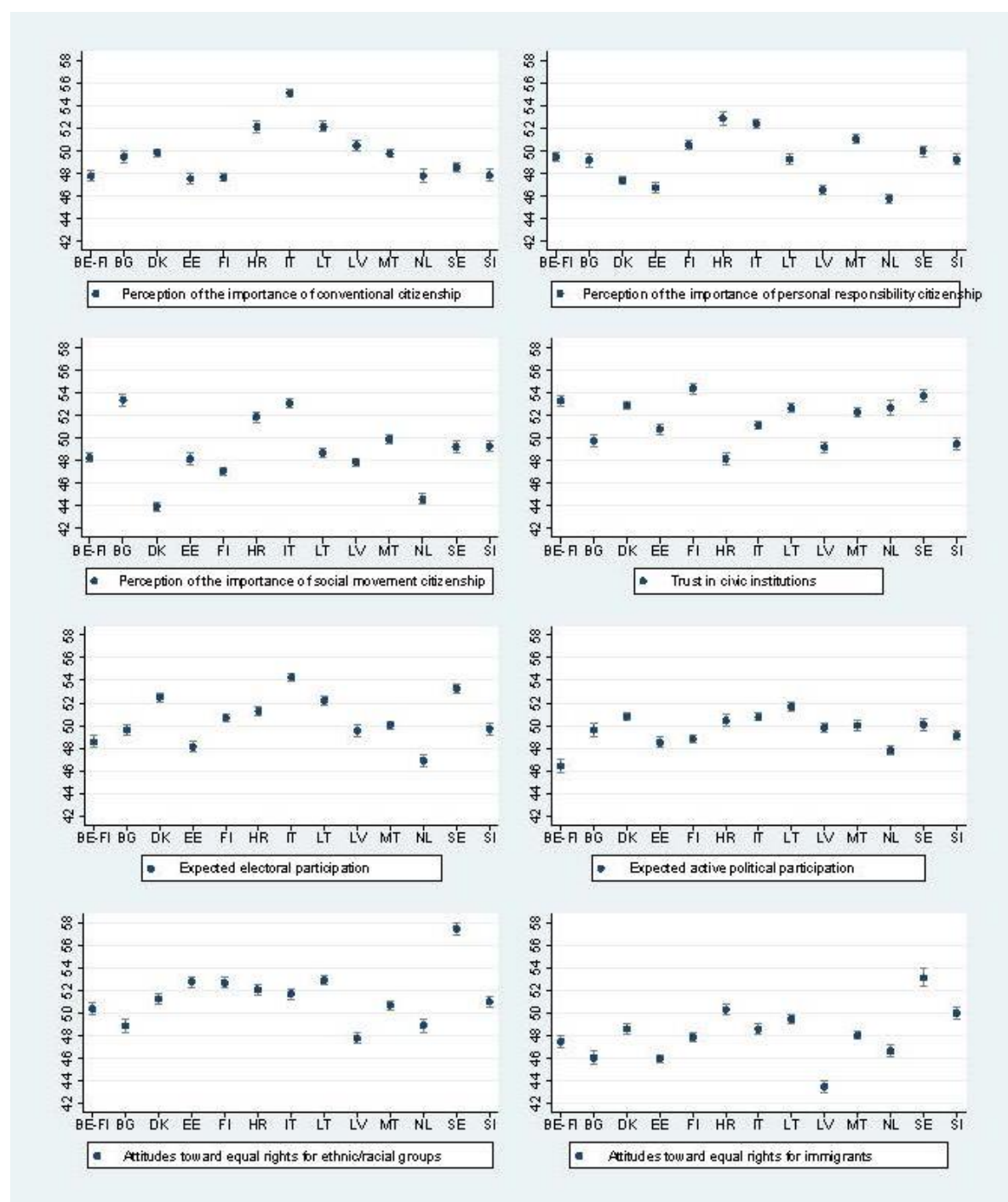
equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups in a country" (Schulz et al., 2016). The scale in ICCS 2016 is based on the same items as in 2009 and assesses students' agreement with the following statements: (1) *all ethnic/racial groups should have an equal chance to get a good education in this country*; (2) *all ethnic/racial groups should have an equal chance to get good jobs in this country*; (3) *schools should teach students to respect members of all ethnic/racial groups*; (4) *members of all ethnic/racial groups should be encouraged to run in elections for political office*; and (5) *members of all ethnic/racial groups should have the same rights and responsibilities*. Agreements had to be expressed on a four-point Likert scale: "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree" or "strongly disagree". Studies on the 2009 data suggest that it is a valid measure for tolerance towards other ethnic groups and can be linked to various individual and class-level characteristics (Diazgranados and Sandoval-Hernández, 2015; Isac et al., 2015).

Second, **students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants** in European societies have already been successfully measured by a similar question battery in the ICCS 2009 study. The items in this scale relate to the following statements: (1) *immigrants should have the opportunity to continue speaking their own language*; (2) *immigrant children should have the same opportunities for education that other children in the country have*; (3) *immigrants who live in a country for several years should have the opportunity to vote in elections*; (4) *immigrants should have the opportunity to continue their own customs and lifestyle*; and (5) *immigrants should have the same rights that everyone else in the country has*. As on the previous scale, students were asked to indicate whether they "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree" or "strongly disagree" with these statements. In this case, the question was part of the European regional questionnaire.

All eight outcome variables listed here were measured by the relevant scale constructed by IEA, applying item response theory (IRT) models. Dichotomous items (with only two response categories – e.g. "yes" and "no") were scaled using the one-parameter (Rasch) model (Rasch, 1960). Items with more than two response categories were scaled using the Rasch partial credit model (Wright and Masters, 1982). The estimates were obtained computing weighted likelihood. The resulting scores have an average of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. When necessary, items were reverse coded in order to have higher score on items that reflect positive attitudes towards the issue in question, higher frequencies, or higher probabilities of participation. As shown in Table 1, the scales had, on average, satisfactory reliability across the ICCS participating countries. In general, the scales showed at least "acceptable" levels – values between 0.7 and 0.8 – of consistency as stated by George and Mallery (2003).

Some descriptive statistics (i.e. mean and 95% confidence intervals) for the reported values for these non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes are reported in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Average and 95% confidence intervals for non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes by EU Member State¹⁵



Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data.

As shown in Figure 3, the highest level of students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship was found in Italy, with a value above 55 points – in most other countries the average score did not exceed 50. Italian students also reached high

¹⁵ Note that Germany – North Rhine-Westphalia region did not meet IEA sample participation requirements, even after the inclusion of replacement schools.
Denmark – met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included.
Estonia, Latvia and Sweden – National Defined Population covers 90% to 95% of National Target Population.

average scores on the importance of social movement citizenship scale (53.1), but here they were accompanied by students from two other countries, Bulgaria (53.3) and Croatia (51.9). On the other hand, social-movement-related citizenship is considered to be least important among Danish students and students in the Netherlands. Finally, the third type of citizenship virtues – personally responsible citizenship behaviour – was again most supported by Croatian (52.8) and Italian students (52.4), and relatively less frequently endorsed by teenagers in the Netherlands (45.7).

The last attitude that captures support for democratic principles and practices – *institutional trust* – showed a cross-country pattern very distinct from the citizenship attitudes. In this case, the highest scoring countries are mostly countries with long-established democratic systems. These include Finland, Sweden and Belgium. Institutional trust is also high in Germany (North Rhine-Westphalia), while students from the new democracies of Eastern Europe tend to express less trust in the institutions of their countries.

Expected electoral participation of 14-year-old students was found to be highest in Italy and Sweden (54.2 and 53.2) and lowest in the Netherlands and Germany (46.9 and 46.5). Compared with the other attitudes and intentions, *expected active participation* showed slightly less variation across the European countries, with Lithuanian, Italian and Danish students showing the highest and Belgian (Flemish region) students the lowest interest in later political activities.

Openness for diversity – in terms of both *equal rights for ethnic minorities* and for *immigrants* – appears to be most widespread among Swedish students (average score 57.4). With regard to tolerance for ethnic minorities, no other country came close to Sweden, while a relatively low level of tolerance for these groups was found in Latvia, Bulgaria and the Netherlands. For *attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants*, somewhat similar cross-country patterns were found, with Swedish students showing the highest level of openness and Latvians the lowest. Estonians, Bulgarians and students in the Netherlands also scored towards the lower end of the scale, while for immigrants, German (from North Rhine-Westphalia) adolescents reported a level of openness similar to that of Swedish students.

The eight non-cognitive outcome variables analysed in this study are all positively correlated with each other, from a minimum to a moderate extent, in each and every country studied here (see Appendix, Table A1 for correlation coefficients between the different non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes). First of all, the three dimensions of citizenship qualities (conventional, social-movement-related and responsible citizenship) are consistently positively correlated with each other across the countries, producing a medium strength of correlation, with a value around +0.50. Second, this set of attitudes is also interrelated with the two behavioural intentions (expected electoral and active political participation), producing correlation coefficients above 0.3 in all countries except Belgium, and even above 0.4 in Malta and the Netherlands. Last, in most countries remarkably high associations can be found between students' attitudes towards equal rights to all ethnic/racial groups and students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants. These two attitudes go hand in hand most strongly in Italy (0.56), Finland (0.53), Sweden, Denmark and Germany (0.52), which also happen to be the countries with the highest immigrant ratios and where ethnic minorities are mostly of immigrant background.

4.3.2. Independent variables

The independent variables applied in our models include a set of educational variables that form the main focus of our analysis. Educational variables relate to the different

educational approaches followed: (1) formal learning; (2) democratic school experience; and (3) community involvement.¹⁶

For **formal learning**, only one scale constructed in ICCS by IEA was used.

- *Students' perception of civic learning in school* (formal learning). Students had to indicate to what extent they had the opportunity to learn about the following topics in school: (1) *how citizens can vote in local or national elections*; (2) *how laws are introduced and changed in <country of test>*; (3) *how to protect the environment (e.g. through energy-saving or recycling)*; (4) *how to contribute to solving problems in the <local community>*; (5) *how citizen rights are protected in <country of test>*; (6) *political issues and events in other countries*; and (7) *how the economy works*. Possible response categories were "to a large extent", "to a moderate extent", "to a small extent" and "not at all". Individual scale values were aggregated on the class level, thus higher values of the index indicate higher number of students in the class reporting more opportunity to learn about civic learning in class. The availability of this measure makes it possible to account for students' actual experiences of civic and citizenship teaching – in the absence of which, in other studies, students' civic knowledge had to be used as a proxy for formal civic education (De Groof et al., 2008).

Democratic school environment (or school democracy) was captured by a series of ICCS scales created by IEA:

- *Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions*: Students' perception of whether or not the following happen "often", "sometimes", "rarely" or "never" in the classroom was assessed: (1) *teachers encourage students to make up their own minds*; (2) *teachers encourage students to express their opinions*; (3) *students bring up current political events for discussion in class*; (4) *students express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from most of the other students*; (5) *teachers encourage students to discuss the issues with people having different opinions*; and (6) *teachers present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class*. Students' participation at school accounts for students' experiences in the broader school community. Individual-level values were used.
- *Students' participation at school*: The scale combines information on students' experiences in the following: (1) *active participation in an organised debate*; (2) *voting for <class representative> or <school parliament>*; (3) *taking part in decision-making about how the school is run*; (4) *taking part in discussions at a <student assembly>*; (5) *becoming a candidate for <class representative> or <school parliament>*; and (6) *participating in an activity to make the school more <environmentally friendly> (e.g. through water-saving or recycling)*. Possible response categories were "yes, I have done this within the last 12 months", "yes, I have done this but more than a year ago" and "no, I have never done this".
- *Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community*: The scale was based on principals' reports regarding the following: (1) *teachers are involved in decision-making processes*; (2) *parents are involved in decision-making processes*; (3) *students' opinions are taken into account in decision-making processes*; (4) *rules and regulations are followed by teaching and non-teaching staff, students, and parents*; (5) *students are given the opportunity to actively participate in school decisions*; and (6) *parents are provided with information on the school and student performance*. Principals were expected to indicate whether the listed statements apply to the school "to a large extent", "to a moderate extent", "to a small extent" or "not at all".

¹⁶ Additional information on the way the different scales were built is provided in Table A.2 in the Appendix.

Students' community involvement, again, was captured by a single variable:

- *Students' active involvement in community.* Following suggestions from the findings of other studies (as explained in Section 3), we assume that students can gain non-cognitive benefits from community work, defined as non-paying working activity for the benefit of the community. Although not attempting to capture this notion directly and in great detail, ICCS provides information on the broader construct of "participation in wider community" as experienced by the students. From the organisations, clubs and groups listed in the questionnaire to capture the broader concept of "participation", we selected those that are most likely to relate to activities which involve some (unpaid) activity done for the community. These are (1) *environmental action groups or organisations*, (2) *human rights organisations*, (3) *voluntary groups doing something to help the community*, (4) *organisations collecting money for social issues*, and (5) *animal rights or welfare groups*. With regard to all these groups and organisations, students reported whether they have been involved in activities in them "within the last twelve months", "more than a year ago" or "never". After testing several scaling options, we have decided to include a simple dichotomous variable taking the value of "1" if a student has been involved in at least one of the five groups in the last year and "0" otherwise. The variable was added to the model on the individual level.

Further, civic and citizenship knowledge and citizenship self-efficacy were also included in the analysis.

Civic and citizenship knowledge and skills. This is a scale based on student responses to the civic knowledge cognitive test to describe student knowledge and understanding at different levels of student proficiency. Cognitive test items were scaled by IEA, using IRT¹⁷ scaling methods, and five separate estimates were generated for each student's civic and citizenship knowledge using plausible value methodology with full conditioning. The final reporting scale was set to a metric with a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100 in 2009, for the equally weighted national samples.

Citizenship self-efficacy. This constructed scale (by IEA) reflects students' self-confidence in active citizenship behaviour. It takes account of students' sense of being able to undertake specific tasks in the area of civic participation. Higher values of this scale indicate higher levels of confidence.

As discussed above, the literature suggests that civic knowledge and self-efficacy play different roles and are related to the various outcomes in different ways and to varying extents. We explore the correlation coefficients between civic knowledge and civic efficacy on the one hand and the eight civic outcomes on the other in order to ascertain the extent to which (in general, that is without controlling for any related factors) higher levels of knowledge and efficacy are also related to higher levels of non-cognitive civic outcomes.

- *Civic and citizenship knowledge* shows a somewhat mixed picture in terms of correlations to the non-cognitive factors (see Table 2 below), with coefficients varying from weak negative to moderate positive levels. Generally speaking, civic knowledge appears to be dominantly positively correlated with *expected electoral participation*, *attitudes towards ethnic minorities* and *immigrants*, and – in the majority of countries – to *social-movement-related citizenship*. A high level of *expected electoral participation* is significantly positively correlated with knowledge in each and every country, with correlation coefficients reaching 0.52 in Germany (North Rhine-Westphalia). The patterns are similar although with somewhat weaker associations for the level of positive attitudes towards the *equal rights of ethnic and racial minorities*, and with even weaker associations for *social movement citizenship*. The situation is somewhat more mixed in the case of

¹⁷ The one-parameter (Rasch) model (Rasch, 1960) was used for dichotomous items. For items with more than two categories, the model adopted was the generalised partial credit model (Masters and Wright, 1997).

positive attitudes for immigrants, as in Belgium this attitude is not significantly correlated with knowledge. Similarly, *responsibility-related citizenship* shows no correlation with knowledge in Belgium, Denmark or the Netherlands.

- Civic knowledge seems to have the most ambivalent associations with *conventional citizenship*, *institutional trust* and *active political participation intentions*. With all these attitudes, knowledge is significantly positively correlated in some countries and negatively in others, while it shows no significant correlation in the rest. Remarkably, civic knowledge tends to be negatively correlated with at least one of these three attitudes in all the Eastern European countries except Slovenia and Estonia: Bulgaria (all three values); Croatia and Lithuania (two values); and Latvia (one value). Outside Eastern Europe, civic knowledge appears to be moderately and even ambiguously related to non-cognitive citizenship attitudes only in Belgium. Here more knowledge is associated with lower levels of expected political participation and perceived importance of conventional citizenship, while it is not significantly related either to social-movement-related citizenship, institutional trust or attitudes towards equal status for immigrants.
- The role of *citizenship efficacy* in the system of civic outcomes seems to be more straightforward than that of civic knowledge: efficacy is significantly positively correlated with each and every non-cognitive civic outcome considered here in each of the countries studied (see Table 3). Unlike civic knowledge, it is most strongly correlated with *expected active political participation*, followed by *expected electoral participation* and *conventional citizenship*. This is in accordance with the suggestion that the notion of efficacy is closely related to capability to take action (Bandura, 1997), and these outcomes all involve significant elements of active participation. Across all the countries, civic efficacy appears to be most strongly related to non-cognitive civic outcomes in Malta and Sweden.

Table 2. Pearson correlations between civic knowledge and non-cognitive outcomes by EU Member State¹⁸

	CITCON	CITRESP	CITSOC	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
Belgium (Flemish)	-0.11**	-0.01	0.08**	0.04	0.34**	-0.13**	0.19**	0.03
Bulgaria	-0.06**	0.32**	0.26**	-0.23**	0.26**	-0.30**	0.16**	0.08**
Germany (NRW)	0.05	0.18**	0.24**	0.15**	0.52**	0.01	0.35**	0.19**
Denmark	0.04	-0.03	0.15**	0.15**	0.45**	0.07**	0.27**	0.23**
Spain	0.15**	0.22**	0.22**	0.07**	0.34**	-0.04	0.41**	0.19**
Finland	0.10**	0.15**	0.23**	0.10**	0.41**	0.04	0.36**	0.29**
Croatia	0.07**	0.22**	0.15**	-0.12**	0.35**	-0.06**	0.34**	0.16**
Italy	0.10**	0.22**	0.15**	-0.04	0.37**	0.00	0.29**	0.13**
Lithuania	-0.02	0.10**	0.08**	-0.13**	0.30**	-0.22**	0.30**	0.19**
Latvia	0.02	0.15**	0.15**	0.00	0.33**	-0.11**	0.26**	0.15**
Malta	0.04**	0.28**	0.36**	-0.02	0.27**	-0.15**	0.29**	0.15**
Netherlands	0.01	0.04	0.20**	0.07**	0.47**	0.04	0.34**	0.18**
Sweden	0.04	0.13**	0.17**	0.11**	0.39**	0.05	0.45**	0.25**
Slovenia	0.07**	0.22**	0.26**	0.10**	0.36**	-0.03	0.24**	0.10**

Notes: Results are reported using all five plausible values. Significant results: *, $p \leq 0.1$; **, $p \leq 0.05$; ***, $p \leq 0.01$.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data. Results were obtained with SPSS.

¹⁸ Germany – North Rhine-Westphalia region did not meet IEA sample participation requirements, even after the inclusion of replacement schools. Denmark met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included. In Estonia, Latvia and Sweden the National Defined Population covers 90% to 95% of National Target Population. For an explanation of the variable names see Table 1 or the List of abbreviations at the end of the report.

Table 3. Pearson correlations between civic self-efficacy and non-cognitive outcomes by EU Member State

	CITCON	CITRESP	CITSOC	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
Belgium (Flemish)	0.34**	0.22**	0.25**	0.17**	0.24**	0.32**	0.19**	0.14**
Bulgaria	0.33**	0.25**	0.26**	0.17**	0.29**	0.34**	0.18**	0.14**
Germany (NRW)	0.25**	0.22**	0.23**	0.19**	0.33**	0.31**	0.16**	0.15**
Denmark	0.27**	0.15**	0.23**	0.18**	0.39**	0.35**	0.20**	0.15**
Spain	0.28**	0.26**	0.18**	0.08**	0.34**	0.33**	0.22**	0.09**
Finland	0.28**	0.19**	0.16**	0.13**	0.36**	0.38**	0.21**	0.16**
Croatia	0.31**	0.21**	0.23**	0.16**	0.31**	0.33**	0.21**	0.15**
Italy	0.29**	0.24**	0.20**	0.12**	0.28**	0.33**	0.16**	0.10**
Lithuania	0.34**	0.28**	0.22**	0.18**	0.30**	0.39**	0.16**	0.14**
Latvia	0.26**	0.22**	0.18**	0.10**	0.31**	0.37**	0.19**	0.05**
Malta	0.40**	0.31**	0.26**	0.27**	0.38**	0.44**	0.21**	0.12**
Netherlands	0.32**	0.24**	0.24**	0.17**	0.29**	0.38**	0.20**	0.16**
Sweden	0.33**	0.27**	0.28**	0.18**	0.38**	0.39**	0.24**	0.17**
Slovenia	0.28**	0.23**	0.22**	0.14**	0.29**	0.30**	0.12**	0.09**

Notes: Significant results: *, $p \leq 0.1$; **, $p \leq 0.05$; ***, $p \leq 0.01$.

Finally, we further included the following **individual and school-context-related variables** in our models, some of which are scales constructed in ICCS:

- *Age.* Students' age was included in the models to capture the potential effect of later school start.
- *Gender.* A dummy variable was used, with the value of 1 for females and 0 for males.
- *Migration status.* Migration status was measured by a single dichotomous variable taking the value of "1" if the student had an immigrant background (either first or second generation) and "0" otherwise.
- *Parental socioeconomic background.* The national index of students' socioeconomic background constructed by IEA was used, which takes into account the highest occupational status of the parents, the highest educational level of the parents and the approximate number of books at home.
- *Expected highest level of education.* A dichotomous variable was used taking the value of "1" if a student expected to gain a higher education degree and "0" otherwise.
- *Interest in political and social issues.* Students who claim that they are "quite interested" or "very interested" in political and social issues take the value of "1", and the others take the value of "0" on this dichotomous measure.
- *Parents' interest in political and social issues.* A dichotomous variable that takes the value of "1" for students whose parents are either both "quite interested" in political and social issues (according to the student), or at least one of them is "very interested".
- *Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school.* A scale constructed in ICCS that takes into account how often the student (1) talks with parent(s) about political or social issues, (2) talks with friends about political or social issues, (3) talks with parent(s) about what is happening in other countries,

and (4) talks with friends about what is happening in other countries. Higher values on the scale indicate higher frequencies of discussion.

- *Students' engagement with social media.* A scale covering how often the student (1) uses the internet to find information about political or social issues, (2) posts a comment or image regarding a political or social issue on the internet or social media, and (3) shares or comments on another person's online post regarding a political or social issue.
- *Urban school.* Dichotomous variable with value "1" for cities with a population of 100,000 or more. This variable comes from the school questionnaire.
- *Principal's perception of poverty in the community.* A scale based on whether the principal considers (1) poor quality of housing, (2) unemployment and (3) extensive poverty to be a source of social tension in the school neighbourhood to a large extent, to a moderate extent, to a small extent or not at all. This variable comes from the school questionnaire.
- *Principal's perception of social tension in the community.* A scale capturing the extent to which the headmaster believes that (1) the presence of immigrants, (2) religious intolerance or (3) ethnic conflicts generate social tension in the local neighbourhood.
- *Student-teacher relations.* The student-teacher relations scale is based on students' agreement with a series of items describing student-teacher relationships in the school. The following statements were included: (1) most of my teachers treat me fairly; (2) students get along well with most teachers; (3) most teachers are interested in students' well-being; (4) most of my teachers listen to what I have to say; and (5) if I need extra help, I receive it from my teachers. For the analysis, class averages of the scale were used.
- *Students' interaction.* The students' interaction scale is created from a series of statements for which students had to express their level of agreement: (1) most students at my school treat each other with respect; (2) most students at my school get along well with each other; (3) my school is a place where students feel safe; and (4) I am afraid of being bullied by other students. Higher values indicate more positive student interactions. In the analysis, class averages of this scale were used.
- *Share of immigrants in the classroom.* Share of immigrants in the classroom was measured as the class average of the individual immigrant measure.

For all countries studied except Finland and Italy, an IEA scale on students' attitudes towards the influence of religion in society is also available, and its associations with the other attitudes were also tested.

- *Students' attitudes toward the influence of religion in society.* The religiousness scale is based on students' agreement with the following statements: (1) *religion is more important to me than what is happening in national politics*; (2) *religion helps me to decide what is right and what is wrong*; (3) *religious leaders should have more power in society*; (4) *religion should influence people's behaviour towards others*; (5) *rules of life based on religion are more important than civil laws*; (6) *religious people are better citizens*. Higher values on the scale indicate more positive attitudes toward the role of religion in society.

As with the dependent variables, the reliability of the scales used as independent variables (Table 4) was, on average, "acceptable" – values between 0.7 and 0.8 – with only the scale related to students' perceptions of student interaction at school being "unacceptable" (on average lower than 0.5).

Descriptive statistics on these variables used are reported in Table A3 in the Appendix.

Table 4. Scale reliability of some of the dependent variables used in the models (Cronbach's alpha)

Scales used as dependent variables	No. items	Min. Cronbach's alpha	Max. Cronbach's alpha	Average Cronbach's alpha
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	4	0.65	0.81	0.74
Students' engagement with social media	3	0.48	0.79	0.64
Students' perception of student-teacher relations at school	5	0.72	0.89	0.81
Students' perceptions of student interaction at school	4	0.34	0.57	0.45
Student reports on civic learning at school	7	0.72	0.89	0.81
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	6	0.66	0.90	0.78
Students' participation at school	6	0.54	0.83	0.68
Students' sense of citizenship self-efficacy	7	0.76	0.92	0.84
Principal's perception of poverty in the community	3	0.65	0.89	0.82
Principal's perception of social tensions in the community	3	0.54	0.86	0.73
Students' attitudes toward the influence of religion in society	6	0.73	0.93	0.88

Source: IEA.

4.4. Methodology/empirical approach

To test the associations between the different educational approaches and the non-cognitive civic outcomes, and given the relatively low proportions of between-school variation in the different dependent variables used (Table 5), a series of single-level multiple linear regressions were estimated for each participating EU MS.¹⁹

Table 5. Between-schools and Within-school explained variance in the different non-cognitive civic outcomes used by EU Member States

1. Students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship (CITCON)

	BE-FI	BG	DK	EE	FI	HR	IT	LT	LV	MT	NL	SE	SI
Between schools	37.6	413.5	2576.6	271.2	38.7	93.9	0.0	102.5	1489.8	551.1	455.1	4280.8	0.0
Within schools	6171.2	17127.6	35048.5	5040.1	10757.9	5167.9	3774.3	5821.0	11121.5	24088.8	13237.0	15310.5	4630.4
% Between schools	1	2	7	5	0	2	0	2	12	2	3	22	0

2. Students' perception of the importance of social movement related citizenship (CITSOC)

Between schools		1177.0	2649.0	265.7	34.1	51.3	0.0	823.7	1708.4	687.0	474.5	4322.3	51.0
Within schools		22803.7	38082.9	5742.2	10990.2	7830.8	5850.7	8294.8	13512.2	27740.8	14528.9	19057.6	7872.2
% Between schools	*	5	7	4	0	1	0	9	11	2	3	18	1

3. Students' perception of the importance of personal responsibility for citizenship (CITRESP)

Between schools	33.4	610.3	2599.9	255.8	40.9	60.6	0.0	170.3	1683.2	559.6	440.9	4373.7	54.6
Within schools	6242.8	17997.3	36203.6	5760.9	10926.7	6905.0	4444.9	6733.2	12635.5	25540.7	13765.7	16350.1	7091.2
% Between schools	1	3	7	4	0	1	0	2	12	2	3	21	1

4. Students' trust in civic institutions (INTRUST)

Between schools	0.0	1641.6	2977.8	259.3	10.7	149.8		157.2	1378.2	865.7	307.4	4232.3	41.3
Within schools	7155.3	24110.8	40219.7	6743.2	10206.9	6669.7		6218.9	14208.7	30447.2	13059.2	18414.7	4736.8
% Between schools	0	6	7	4	0	2	*	2	9	3	2	19	1

5. Students' expected electoral participation (ELECPART)

	BE-FI	BG	DK	EE	FI	HR	IT	LT	LV	MT	NL	SE	SI
Between schools	468.9	3528.2	3740.3	634.0	292.3	1367.2	261.8	581.8	1906.9	2341.0	392.6	4997.0	133.4
Within schools	19202.8	37488.3	49124.5	10830.7	18606.1	18902.3	13173.6	9624.4	20935.2	46700.6	15806.6	32917.7	8371.8
% Between schools	2	9	7	6	2	7	2	6	8	5	2	13	2

6. Expected active political participation (POLPART)

Between schools	764.7	3650.8	3701.6	576.8	249.4	1540.1	347.0	766.8	2450.3	2607.8	467.9	5481.3	145.7
Within schools	20030.8	38194.5	49583.8	10617.5	18747.8	19850.9	13965.7	9578.0	20331.5	48008.8	15793.6	32787.6	8220.3
% Between schools	4	9	7	5	1	7	2	7	11	5	3	14	2

7. Students' attitudes toward equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups (ETHRGHT)

Between schools	205.7	1835.4	2676.0	310.4	84.8	72.8	0.0	99.9	1470.8	1330.9	431.3	3955.3	104.3
Within schools	13359.7	28779.4	40979.8	7885.7	14285.5	13060.4	7986.8	8785.5	18888.3	34876.1	15689.4	23594.5	8495.0
% Between schools	2	6	6	4	1	1	0	1	7	4	3	14	1

8. Students' attitudes toward equal rights for immigrants (IMMRGHT)

Between schools	9.7	531.3	14732.4	126.7	65.8	15.2	43.3	64.1	353.9	67.7	233.0	4326.1	0.0
Within schools	6098.3	12972.5	43935.8	8106.3	9331.7	2406.4	5909.0	3042.8	14123.2	8540.9	10479.7	12546.6	4139.6
% Between schools	0	4	25	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	26	0

* Models did not converge. Source: Own calculations using 2016 ICCS Note: BE-FI: Belgium, Flemish region.

The ordinary least square (OLS) regression models took into account the complex sample design of the survey with a set of 75 jackknife repeated replicate (JRR) weights,

¹⁹ Germany – North Rhine-Westphalia region was excluded from the analysis due to not meeting the IEA guidelines for sampling participation rates. Denmark – met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included. Estonia, Latvia and Sweden – National Defined Population covers 90% to 95% of National Target Population.

as well as missing data uncertainty. The information provided in Table 6 presents the level of non-response on each of the estimated models. These figures reflect shares of missing values once all the variables used in the model are considered (i.e. dependent and independent variables).

Table 6. Civic and citizenship attitudes and behavioural intentions: percentage of missing data by EU Member State²⁰

	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
BE — FI	15.18	15.22	15.22	15.22	15.80	15.73	15.69	15.35
BG	12.50	12.71	12.57	12.50	13.23	13.30	13.30	12.71
DK	19.25	19.32	19.25	19.33	19.88	19.89	19.54	23.17
EE	41.65	41.65	41.65	41.72	41.79	41.79	41.86	41.93
FI	9.71	9.71	9.71	9.64	9.90	9.90	9.93	9.99
HR	8.19	8.26	8.24	8.06	8.91	9.03	8.88	8.26
IT	17.25	17.33	17.28	17.25	17.59	17.68	17.39	17.48
LT	10.22	10.36	10.25	10.27	10.47	10.47	10.60	10.16
LV	17.93	18.02	17.96	17.99	18.42	18.39	18.49	18.49
MT	18.78	18.92	18.84	19.05	19.77	19.77	19.23	18.76
NL	21.05	21.09	21.05	20.95	21.12	21.12	21.09	20.84
SE	28.31	28.46	28.31	28.09	28.86	28.86	28.34	28.46
SI	12.10	12.20	12.13	12.03	12.20	12.17	12.27	12.24

Notes: Percentage of missing considering all the variables used in the regression.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016.

The literature strongly recommends applying multiple imputation techniques when missing data exceed 10%. It is claimed that multiple imputations have several advantages when compared with other methods in terms of potential bias and estimation precision (Enders, 2010; Schafer and Graham, 2002). In particular, when data are missing at random (MAR), multiple imputation can lead to consistent, asymptotically efficient and asymptotically normal estimates. Under the MAR assumption, in our analysis, we use multiple imputation by chained equations (MICE) for each country separately, as implemented by the `mi impute chained` command using Stata 14. The method implies that we infer answers not only for the dependent variable but also for all other independent variables where the data are missing (Royston and White, 2011). Given the high percentage of missing values in Estonia (close to 42%) we have decided not to run a multivariate analysis on this country.²¹

In reporting the results of this analysis, two additional transformations were made to ensure that the effects of variables with different metrics were comparable:

- The regression coefficients for the effects of the scales used from the student and principals' questionnaire were multiplied by 10 to ensure that they reflected score point changes in the variable (the standard deviation for this variable was 10) corresponding to one ICCS 2016 standard deviation.
- The regression coefficients representing the effects of civic knowledge were multiplied by 100 (the standard deviation of this variable was 100) to allow the interpretation of changes with respect to one ICCS 2016 standard deviation in a way that was comparable with those of the other variables.

Finally, all five plausible values from civic and citizenship knowledge were used in the regressions/models.

²⁰ For the explanation of the country codes see the List of abbreviations at the end of the report.

²¹ For Bulgaria the multiple imputation was run taking into account all the variables of the multivariate analysis except that on migrant status. Information by country on the variables included in the imputation model is available upon request from the authors. In Malta all schools are rural and for that reason there is no variation in the urban variable.

For each of the eight outcome variables a series of four models were estimated for each of the 12 EU MS (see Table 7). In M1 models, only individual characteristics are accounted for, in order to capture the variation in civic outcomes attributable to family background composition and individual interest and exchange of information outside the school. In M2 models, school-level contextual factors are added, including information about school context and composition. M3 models add the set of educational variables that are our main interest (i.e. educational approaches): formal civic education, democratic school experience and community work. Finally, in M4 models we add the individuals' civic and citizenship knowledge and civic efficacy so as to explore their role in shaping the associations between educational factors and non-cognitive civic outcomes. In addition, M4r includes the variable on students' attitudes towards religion. A detailed description of the various sets of variables listed here was given in Section 4.3.

Table 7. Description of models estimated (set of covariates used)

Model	Independent variables
M1	Individual characteristics
M2	Individual characteristics + School context and compositions
M3	Individual characteristics + School context and compositions + Types of educational approaches (Formal learning + Democratic school experience + Involvement in community work)
M4	Individual characteristics + School context and compositions + Types of educational approaches (Formal learning + Democratic school experience + Involvement in community work) + (Civic and citizenship knowledge + Civic efficacy)
M4r*	Individual characteristics + School context and compositions + Types of educational approaches (Formal learning + Democratic school experience + Involvement in community work) + (Civic and citizenship knowledge + Civic efficacy) + Students' attitudes towards religion

*Cannot be estimated for Finland or Italy.

5. Multivariate analysis of adolescents' citizenship outcomes in Europe: the role of education²²

5.1. Results on the explained variance for the different non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes

In our multivariate analysis, a set of regression models were estimated for each of the non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes at country level. In these models, an estimation of the percentage of explained variance can be obtained by looking at the R^2 . More specifically, it is possible to estimate how much of the explained variance is attributable individually to a single covariate or a set of covariates by running regressions under different specifications. In this section, we follow this approach by comparing the variance explained in four specifications shown in Table 7. In doing so, we will be able to account for the contribution of the following: (M1) individual characteristics; (M2) school context and composition; (M3) a set of variables related to formal learning, democratic school experience and involvement in community work; and (M4) students' civic knowledge and efficacy. Results are provided in Figure 4.

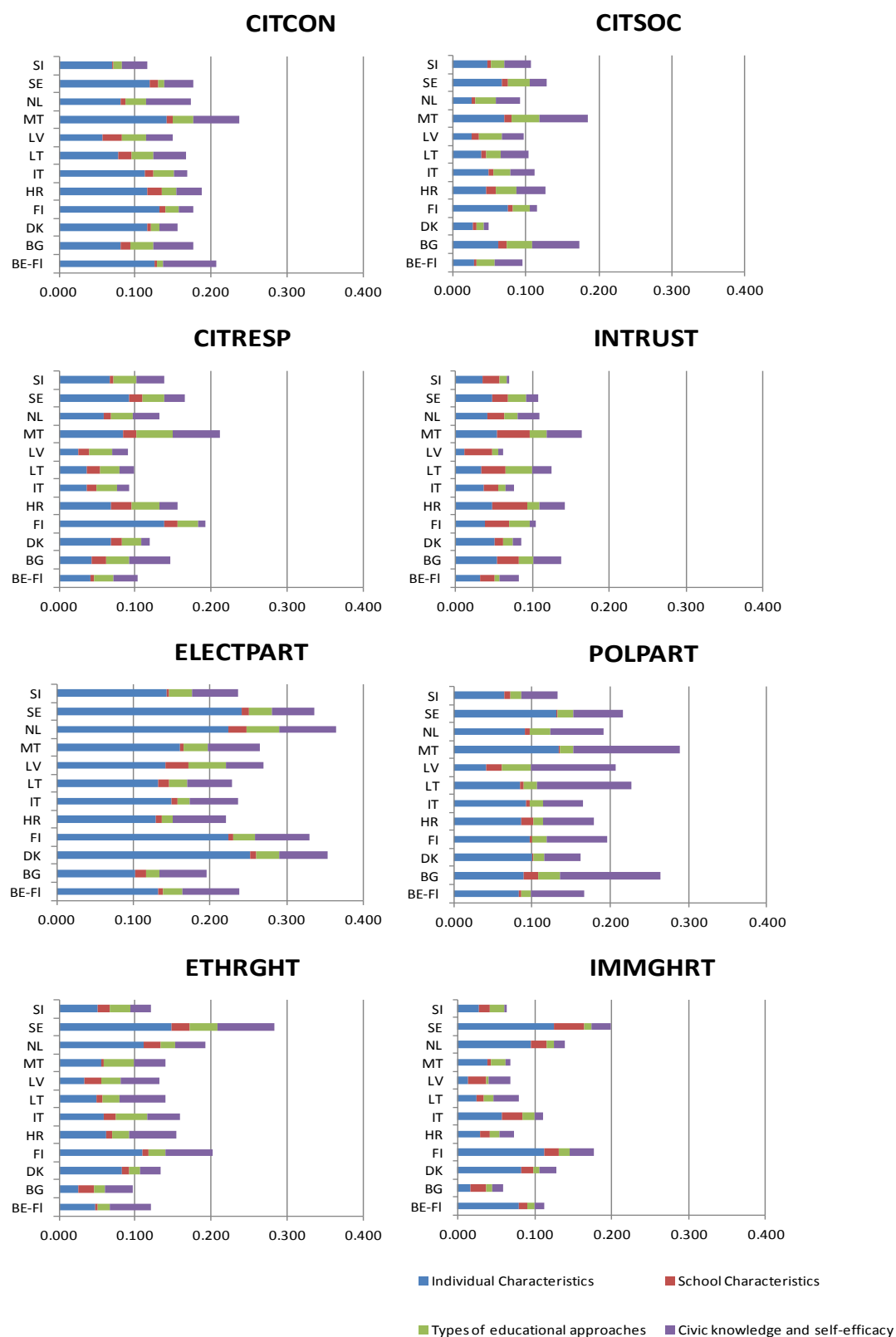
These regression models estimated explain from 5% for the importance of social-movement-related citizenship in Denmark to over 35% for electoral participation in the Netherlands from the variation in attitudes and behaviours. With the exception of expected electoral participation, the percentage of the variance explained by individual or school characteristics, civic educational approaches, or civic and citizenship knowledge and self-efficacy typically remains below 20%. The lowest value is for the importance of social-movement-related citizenship and trust in civic institutions models, with roughly 10% of the variation explained. These results indicate that these attitudes and behavioural intentions are, to a large extent, driven also by other, unmeasured characteristics of students and their environments.

Individual characteristics, including socioeconomic status and immigrant background, together with interest in political and social issues, and students' discussion of political and social issues outside the school, account for the largest part of the explained variance across all the non-cognitive outcomes considered, comfortably above 30% in most of them (represented by the blue bar in Figure 4). Likewise, students' civic and citizenship knowledge and civic self-efficacy (purple bar) make a large contribution to the variance explained by our models.

Yet the contribution of the set of variables related to educational approaches (green bar) is not negligible, especially for attitudes such as the importance of social-movement-related citizenship and of personal responsibility for citizenship (explaining above 20% of the variance). Further, there is also a moderate contribution of these school approaches with respect to institutional trust and attitudes towards equal rights for ethnic/racial groups and immigrants (>15% share of the variance explained). Generally, the contribution of school characteristics (context and compositions) is more limited, although still not negligible, especially in the case of institutional trust (red bars).

²² Technical notes on sampling for this chapter: Denmark – met guidelines for sampling participation rates only after replacement schools were included. Estonia, Latvia and Sweden – National Defined Population covers 90% to 95% of National Target Population.

Figure 4. Proportion of variance explained for each set of factors, after controlling for different sets of variables²³



²³ Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data. Adjusted *R*-squares from models M1, M2, M3 and M4 are reported.

5.2. The role of the various educational approaches, civic knowledge and self-efficacy

In this study, three types of civic educational approaches were considered: formal learning, democratic school environment and community involvement. The three concepts were measured with different scales and items that were all added to the model stepwise, resulting in a series of models labelled M3 to which civic knowledge and efficacy were then also added (M4). Details of all the M4 models are reported in the Appendix (Tables A5–A28), while estimates from M1, M2 and M3 are available from the authors upon request.

In general, our findings clearly indicate that all the three educational approaches have non-negligible associations with some of the non-cognitive civic outcomes. Although their importance varies in size, they play different roles in the various countries, as well as in the development process of the various attitudes and behavioural intentions. Still, as we could see from the analysis of the explained variances, civic and citizenship knowledge together with civic self-efficacy remain more important predictors of the non-cognitive civic outcomes than the educational factors discussed in this report.

As expected, both civic and citizenship knowledge and civic efficacy maintain their rather strong, predominantly positive associations with several non-cognitive outcomes, even when other characteristics of the students and the schools – including the various forms of educational approaches – are controlled for (see Table 8). Their roles are very different, though: while efficacy is consistently positively related to all the non-cognitive outcomes across all the countries, for *civic knowledge* this is true only for some attitudes (expected electoral participation, and positive attitudes towards ethnic minorities and immigrants). With institutional trust and active political participation civic and citizenship knowledge is even negatively correlated in some countries. It demonstrates a negative correlation with institutional trust in more recently established democracies (Bulgaria, Croatia, Italy, Lithuania and Malta), a small positive correlation in Denmark and no significant correlation in the rest of the countries. On the other hand, knowledge is significantly and negatively related to expected active political participation in all the countries except the Netherlands and Sweden. From all these it follows that improving students' cognitive understanding in the civic domain might not be a generic tool for the improvement of civic attitudes. Instead, its role is dependent on both the specific social and historical context and the attitude we are interested in.

Results further suggest that any educational system that aims to improve students' civic attitudes needs to foster students' self-belief in their capacity to participate in civic issues (*civic self-efficacy* - Table 8). In particular, students' expected active political participation and the perceived importance attached to conventional citizenship seem to be strongly linked to this virtue. On the other hand, in most countries, support for equal rights for either the immigrant or the ethnic minority population is less strongly – although still significantly – related to students' self-efficacy.

Table 8. Regression coefficients of the relationship between students' self-efficacy and civic and citizenship knowledge (CCK) with non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes, after controlling for different sets of variables

Outcomes	Variables	BE-FI	BG	DK	FI	HR	IT	LT	LV	MT	NL	SE	SI
CITCON	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.25***	0.26***	0.13***	0.16***	0.20***	0.15***	0.23***	0.19***	0.24***	0.25***	0.18***	0.20***
	CCK	-0.11***	-0.061	-0.091***	-0.036	0.033	-0.024	-0.039	-0.051*	-0.049*	-0.058*	-0.078*	-0.0065
CITSOC	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.21***	0.16***	0.055**	0.10***	0.14***	0.14***	0.19***	0.15***	0.19***	0.19***	0.16***	0.14***
	CCK	0.017	0.25***	-0.072***	0.052*	0.19***	0.17***	0.11***	0.099***	0.18***	0.012	0.027	0.20***
CITRESP	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.19***	0.20***	0.097***	0.053*	0.18***	0.12***	0.14***	0.12***	0.17***	0.17***	0.16***	0.15***
	CCK	0.078**	0.18***	0.033	0.11***	0.11**	0.075**	0.072*	0.11***	0.25***	0.14***	0.032	0.21***
INTRUST	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.16***	0.16***	0.10***	0.089***	0.16***	0.066**	0.13***	0.083***	0.20***	0.17***	0.12***	0.068*
	CCK	-0.043	-0.20***	0.036*	0.03	-0.16***	-0.10***	-0.11***	-0.0083	-0.075***	-0.024	-0.0017	0.035
ELEC PART	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.16***	0.21***	0.15***	0.17***	0.17***	0.12***	0.16***	0.17***	0.21***	0.17***	0.16***	0.16***
	CCK	0.31***	0.20***	0.21***	0.24***	0.28***	0.25***	0.24***	0.22***	0.14***	0.31***	0.15***	0.31***
POLPART	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.25***	0.34***	0.19***	0.25***	0.28***	0.24***	0.28***	0.31***	0.34***	0.26***	0.23***	0.21***
	CCK	-0.13***	-0.28***	-0.044**	-0.084***	-0.14***	-0.083***	-0.27***	-0.19***	-0.19***	-0.035	-0.048	-0.095***
ETHRGHT	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.19***	0.18***	0.096***	0.11***	0.13***	0.073**	0.11***	0.13***	0.12***	0.14***	0.087***	0.053
	CCK	0.23***	0.14***	0.19***	0.34***	0.32***	0.26***	0.33***	0.23***	0.18***	0.24***	0.33***	0.23***
IMMRGHT	Citizenship self-efficacy	0.10***	0.11***	0.046**	0.056*	0.12***	0.018	0.092***	0.065**	0.055**	0.10***	0.056*	0.035
	CCK	0.077**	0.077**	0.15***	0.22***	0.11***	0.12***	0.20***	0.17***	0.047**	0.085***	0.18***	0.064**

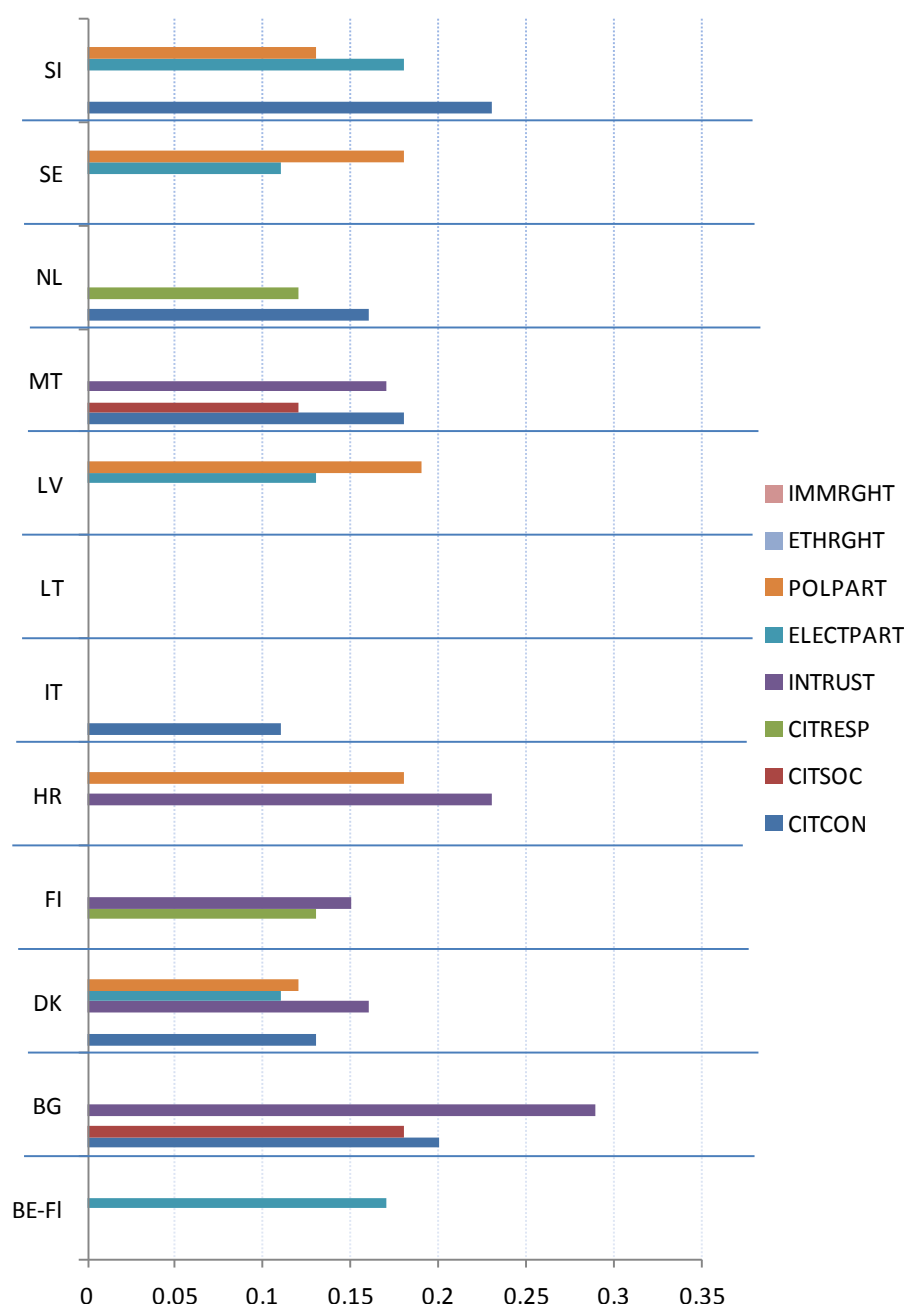
Notes: Results are reported using all five plausible values for CCK. This table reports the results of M4, that is, after controlling for individual and school characteristics and educational factors. *, $p \leq 0.1$; **, $p \leq 0.05$; ***, $p \leq 0.01$.; Significant values are also marked with darkened colour.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data.

From the main educational approaches considered in this report, **formal learning** – students' perception of learning about various civic issues – is positively related to conventional citizenship attitudes (statistically significant associations in six countries), to institutional trust (in five countries) and to electoral participation (in five countries), as well as to active political participation (in five countries). Social-movement-related citizenship is related to the amount of formal learning in school in Malta and Bulgaria only. At the same time, tolerance both for ethnic minorities and for immigrants remains largely independent of the amount of CCE as measured here. Lithuania is the only country where students who report more opportunities to learn about social issues do not exhibit attitudes different from that of others. (See Figure 5)

Interestingly, our findings suggest that the positive association with formal learning is largely unaffected by students' civic and citizenship knowledge. Indeed, by adding civic dispositions (knowledge and also efficacy) to the models, the coefficients on the civic education measures change only slightly. In most cases, they maintain their positive signs (when moving from specification M3 to M4) even when civic knowledge itself has a negative association with the outcome – as can be seen in the case of institutional trust. From this it seems that facing social issues in the school environment is positively linked to the development of relevant attitudes, even in the absence of a deepened understanding of civic and citizenship issues. This is an interesting finding, further underlining the need for discussing, for example, the voting system, social problems or citizens' rights in the class.

Figure 5. Formal learning regression coefficient for civic attitudes and behaviours, after controlling for different sets of variables



Notes: Only significant coefficients ($p < 0.05$) are reported. This regressor refers to the computed scale “students’ perception of civic learning in school”. This figure reports the results of M4, that is, after controlling for individual and school characteristics, educational factors and students attitudes for civic engagement.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data.

School democracy is measured by students’ perception of open classroom climate, principals’ perception of parents’ and teachers’ engagement in the school, and students’ involvement in the school. From these three components of the democratic school environment, teachers’ and parents’ involvement has very little significant association with any of the various outcomes (see Table 9). However, the other two show some rather systematic positive correlations. Indeed, across all the various education factors, **open classroom climate** stands out as having the most consistent positive relationship with teenage students’ civic attitudes. Students who experience an open classroom

climate, where they feel they can express their opinions, ask questions and contrast different opinions, are more ready to accept various citizenship values (in at least 11 countries), trust democratic institutions more (in 10 countries), are more inclined to vote in the future (9 countries) and are more open towards ethnic minorities as well as towards immigrants (12 and 9 countries), including when we control for the other factors. The only attitude that seems to be practically unrelated to such experiences is students' intention to become politically active in the future (a significant association was found only in 3 countries). By making a significant difference in almost every civic attitude and behavioural intention discussed here – and in almost every country analysed – classroom openness appears to be a key tool in promoting non-cognitive civic outcomes in the school.

Across the different components of informal learning within the school, **students' participation in school** has a specific function in fostering expected later participation – both in electoral voting (9 countries) and in political activism (10 countries). Given the lack of longitudinal data it is particularly difficult to claim causality, as it is not clear whether current activism facilitates intention to participate later, or whether a third factor – e.g. civic efficacy – promotes both of them. Even a reverse causality can not be ruled out entirely. In other words, we face an endogeneity issue here. Still, we argue that there is room for intervention: motivating students to take part in various forms of within-school activism, such as voting for student representatives, taking part in discussions in student assemblies, etc., is likely to help to improve their interest in actively taking part in democratic processes later in life.

Table 9. Multiple regression: estimated coefficients of the relationship between informal-learning-related variables with non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes

		BE-FI	BC	DK	FI	HR	IT	LT	LV	MT	NL	SE	SI
CITCON	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.018	-0.035	-0.047**	-0.017	-0.009	-0.015	0.021	-0.0073	-0.0029	-0.03	0.037	-0.025
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.056**	0.12**	0.050**	0.096**	0.10***	0.14***	0.11***	0.09***	0.11***	0.10***	0.067**	0.039
	Students' participation at school	-0.045*	0.035	0.022	0.028	-0.0032	-0.007	0.056*	0.056*	0.027	0.015	-0.0055	-0.036
CITSOC	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.023	-0.025	-0.022	0.012	0.0032	-0.041	0.015	0.019	0.0097	-0.027	0.026	-0.0053
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.080***	0.082**	0.049**	0.11**	0.11**	0.10**	0.073**	0.064**	0.074**	0.067*	0.12**	0.056*
	Students' participation at school	0.015	0.027	0.050**	0.018	0.0036	0.0014	0.035	0.053**	0.043*	0.034	0.017	-0.0098
CITRESP	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0008	-0.032	-0.045**	-0.043	-0.0003	-0.016	0.00054	0.049*	-0.027	-0.043	0.054*	-0.044
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.11**	0.12**	0.10**	0.16**	0.17**	0.15**	0.15**	0.12**	0.12**	0.10**	0.12**	0.13**
	Students' participation at school	-0.0063	-0.012	0.016	0.014	0.039	-0.036	0.0029	0.011	0.078***	0.014	0.018	0.0043
INTRUST	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.017	0.0043	-0.017	0.0033	-0.050*	-0.0017	0.03	0.00023	0.0072	-0.019	-0.012	-0.021
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.026	0.058*	0.053**	0.14**	0.088**	0.088**	0.15**	0.033	0.12**	0.10**	0.12**	0.076**
	Students' participation at school	0.014	0.059*	0.0084	-0.025	-0.022	-0.011	0.054*	0.02	0.012	0.0069	-0.015	-0.0016
ELECTPAR	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0004	-0.0096	0.01	-0.0095	-0.0021	0.0081	0.006	-0.0053	-0.024	-0.0039	0.009	0.033
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.040*	0.024	0.035**	0.060**	0.039*	0.044*	0.079**	0.043	0.058**	0.086**	0.024	0.032
	Students' participation at school	0.032*	0.039*	0.058**	0.068**	0.026	0.021	0.044	0.12**	0.041*	0.086**	0.082**	0.057*
POLPART	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0073	-0.027	0.0052	-0.011	-0.034	-0.014	-0.011	-0.01	0.0081	-0.0043	0.0074	0.019
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.028	0.028	0.0039	0.023	-0.025	0.041*	0.047**	-0.012	0.0088	0.074**	0.0056	-0.027
	Students' participation at school	0.056*	0.071*	0.026*	0.03	0.057*	0.050**	0.047*	0.10**	0.053**	0.049*	0.048	0.058*
ETHRIGHT	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.019	-0.074*	-0.023	-0.016	0.0025	-0.019	0.022	-0.011	-0.0069	0.0082	0.011	0.017
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.057**	0.067**	0.087**	0.14**	0.11**	0.17**	0.11**	0.093**	0.14**	0.088**	0.11**	0.14**
	Students' participation at school	0.0006	0.0023	-0.0019	-0.0002	-0.005	-0.026	0.035	-0.011	0.005	0.0049	0.062**	0.02
IMMRGHT	Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.039	-0.0084	-0.0029	0.0043	-0.0043	-0.0074	0.021	-0.0067	-0.035	0.015	0.021	0.024
	Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.047	0.048	0.038**	0.12**	0.10**	0.091**	0.081**	-0.01	0.11**	0.063*	0.063**	0.12**
	Students' participation at school	0.02	0.0071	-0.0059	-0.047*	-0.026	-0.022	0.012	-0.063**	0.0096	-0.025	0.011	0.022

Notes: *, $p \leq 0.1$; **, $p \leq 0.05$; ***, $p \leq 0.01$. Significant results also marked by colouring.

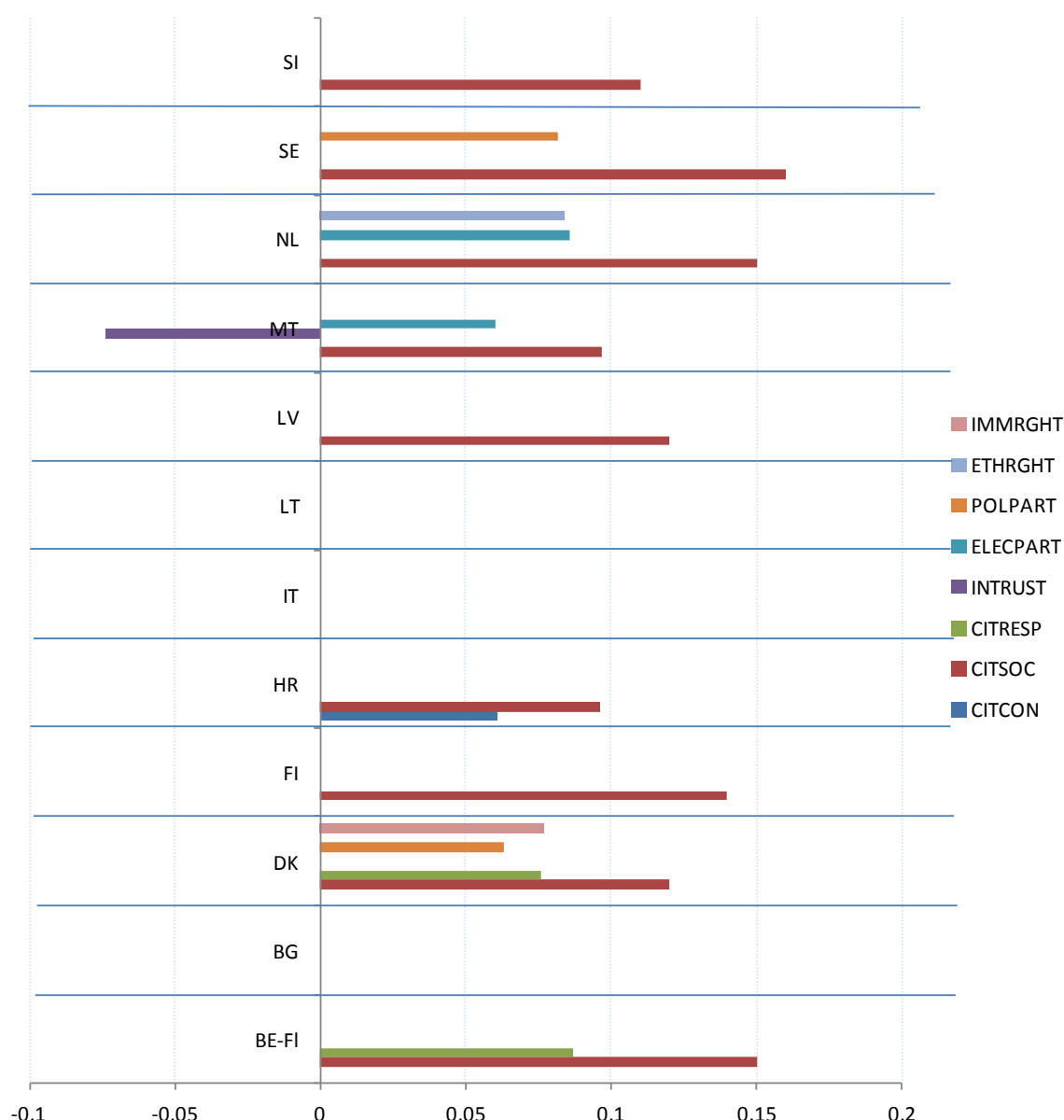
This table reports the results of M4, that is, after controlling for individual and school characteristics, educational factors and students attitudes for civic engagement.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data.

Finally, as discussed above, in the ICCS survey there is no direct question about voluntary or community work done by students outside the school. Among the series of items that relate to various forms of **community involvement**, we selected those that most probably involve an activity targeted at the welfare of some group in the community, and thus involve some element of community work. The list we used

included participation in (1) environmental action groups or organisations, (2) human rights organisations, (3) voluntary groups doing something for the community, (4) organisations collecting money for social causes, and (5) animal rights or animal welfare groups. The most consistent result found here is that students who have been involved in such activity tend to be more in favour of social-movement-related citizenship in nine countries (see Figure 6). Again, we cannot rule out that social-movement-related citizenship also promotes community activism (and they might both be fostered by civic efficacy), and this might cause endogeneity problems also in this case. Still, the association identified suggests that making students more involved in community activities might also promote their positive attitudes towards social-movement-related citizenship. Moreover, in a small number of countries, further positive associations occur – pointing to the need for further exploration of the topic. As community involvement might be very different in the various countries (e.g. it might take the form of school-initiated voluntary work in one country, and be more inclined towards helping people through practical work or towards supporting community goals through activism in others), it is particularly important to better understand the specific country contexts here. In the Netherlands, for example, besides social-movement-related citizenship, community involvement is positively associated with expected electoral participation, and also with attitude towards equal rights for ethnic minorities. At the same time, in Denmark, students reporting community involvement also scored higher on the responsible citizenship scale, demonstrated more intentions for political participation and more agreement with equal rights for immigrants. These findings – together with positive examples, mostly from American studies – look promising, as they are point to the further potential of community involvement in fostering various important non-cognitive civic outcomes across the adolescent student body.

Figure 6. Community involvement regression coefficients for civic attitudes and behaviours, after controlling for different sets of variables



Notes: Only significant coefficients ($p < 0.05$) are reported. This regressor refers to the occurrence of students' active community participation during the past 12 months. This figure reports the results of M4, that is, after controlling for individual and school characteristics, educational factors and students attitudes for civic engagement.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data.

5.3. Individual and school-level factors

As the main focus of the current report is on the role of educational factors in the civic attitude development process, only a brief overview will be provided here of the individual and school contextual factors. We focus on the main trends and describe the most important influences that schools and education policy need to take into account. Associations reported here are based on the final set of models (M4), that is, they relate to the net associations between characteristics of the students' background and their non-cognitive civic outcomes at the age of 14, after all the other factors have been controlled for (results are provided in Tables A.5–A.28 in the Appendix).

Most of our findings on the role of students' individual background factors and of the school context are in line with earlier research findings discussed in Section 3. However, findings vary somewhat by country and several background factors lose their significance when the series of educational factors explored in this report (together with civic and citizenship knowledge and civic efficacy) are controlled for.

Regarding **gender**, we find that girls' civic attitudes are significantly different from boys' in several ways – even when their other characteristics are held constant. Teenage girls score higher than boys on the responsible citizenship as well as on the openness towards immigrants scale in all the countries, and they also appear to be more tolerant towards ethnic minorities in most of the countries. These results confirm earlier research findings (Caro and Schulz, 2012; De Groof et al., 2008; Keating and Benton, 2013; Kokkonen et al., 2010). On the other hand, all other things being equal, girls show a lower level of interest in actively participating in political activities in the future in all the countries except Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden. Gender has very little or mixed effects on the rest of the non-cognitive civic outcomes. For example, in four countries girls were less likely to intend to participate in elections later in life, but in Denmark the opposite trend was found.

Parental socioeconomic background, as measured by the national indices created by IEA, has shown relatively little association with the civic attitudes in our final models. The most consistent associations appeared between family socioeconomic background and expected electoral participation: in line with earlier findings (Schulz et al., 2010), higher status students were more likely to intend to participate in seven out of the twelve countries, even after controlling for the other factors. For the other outcomes, however, social background exerted no or only some weak and rather mixed effects. This does not mean that family is not important in shaping teenagers' civic attitudes, but it appears that it plays its role through some specific channels. For example, those students who considered their **parents** to be very **interested in political and social matters** scored higher on all the citizenship scales as well as on the institutional trust scale, and were also more likely to express an intention to participate both in elections and in other political activities in six out of the twelve countries.

Not only parents' but also students' personal dispositions towards political and social issues are influential in shaping civic attitudes and behavioural intentions. In almost all the countries, **students** who are more **interested** in such topics demonstrate significantly more interest in participating both in electoral activities and in other political activities than students with a lower level of interest; they also reported higher rates on the conventional citizenship scale. In at least five countries, students who **discussed political and social issues outside the school** scored higher on the responsible and conventional citizenship scales (five and six countries) and had more intentions to vote in elections when they grow up (six countries). All these findings support earlier results from Isac et al. (2014) that also demonstrated the importance of both students' and parents' level of interest in political and social issues as well as the significance of discussions outside the school.

However, active **engagement with social media** seems to have a more controversial role in the civic attitude formation process. On the one hand, in seven countries out of twelve we find that students who actively use social media obtain get and share information on social and political issues also have an increased level of support for conventional citizenship values; in 10 countries they also demonstrate more interest in active political participation in the future. At the same time, in a small number of countries online activities are linked to a lower level of endorsement for personally responsible citizenship behaviour (Finland, Italy, Malta and Sweden) and to less institutional trust (Finland and the Netherlands).

Expected educational outcome of students is a proxy for both their level of motivation and their educational achievements. It shows significant positive correlation with expected electoral participation as well as with attitudes towards equal rights for

ethnic minorities (five and four countries), even after controlling for the other factors. A lower statistically significant association with the other outcomes is detected for this variable.

Besides students' individual characteristics, we also consider a range of **school factors**. The first set of these relates to the school's neighbourhood: whether or not the school is in an urban setting and whether or not there are social problems in the neighbourhood – according to the principal's perception. None of these factors seems to have any notable and systematic effect – they appear with a significant small parameter in only a few cases. The only apparent systematic pattern is that students in urban schools have more positive attitudes towards immigrants in Belgium, Finland, Italy, Latvia, the Netherlands, Sweden and Slovenia.

Finally, we also consider the school climate, not only from the perspective of democratic practices (discussed in the previous section) but also from that of the **interpersonal relationships between teachers and students** and also **between students**. Our findings confirm the importance of both these factors. In particular, we find that students' perception of student-teacher relations is positively related to responsible citizenship values as well as with institutional trust in a large number of countries (six and seven countries), and that positive student-student interactions are a significant factor in institutional trust development in nine countries.

5.4. Religious attitudes and civic attitudes

As an addition to our main models presented in the previous sections, in a reduced number of countries we also tested the associations between students' attitudes towards religion and their attitudes towards the various civic attitudes and behavioural outcomes. Since in Italy and Finland no measure for religiousness was available, this variable was not included in the main models to ensure full comparability. Instead, we estimated M4r models separately for 10 countries. As described above, M4r models include all the variables in M4 plus the IEA scale for attitudes towards religion in society. Results for the religion coefficient are reported in Table 10.

As can be seen, students who believe that religion is important in their life also score higher on most of the civic attitude scales, even when their other characteristics are held constant. Strong religious beliefs appear to be most consistently related to social-movement-related and personal-responsibility-based citizenship, to active political participation (positive, statistically significant coefficients in all 10 countries) and only slightly less to conventional citizenship and institutional trust (significant associations in nine countries). Students with religious attitudes also have more intentions to participate in future elections and have more positive attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants (six countries). At the same time, they are only moderately correlated with attitudes towards equal rights for ethnic minorities (three countries). Comparing EU Member States, religiousness appears to have the most consistent positive correlation with student's' civic attitudes in Croatia and Malta.

Table 10. Attitudes towards religion regression coefficients for civic attitudes and behaviours, after controlling for different sets of variables. M4r models.

	BE – FI	BG	DK	HR	LT	LV	MT	NL	SE	SI
CITCON	0.035	0.12***	0.071***	0.17***	0.12***	0.081***	0.19***	0.12***	0.13***	0.065**
CITSOC	0.069**	0.079**	0.084***	0.11***	0.061**	0.046*	0.096***	0.11***	0.085***	0.056**
CITRESP	0.053**	0.15***	0.039*	0.19***	0.097***	0.052*	0.21***	0.067**	0.064**	0.11***
INTRUST	0.046*	0.15***	0.067**	0.19***	0.12***	0.12***	0.22***	0.042	0.12***	0.060**
ELECPART	0.014	0.076**	0.00016	0.100***	0.062***	0.022	0.098***	0.077***	−0.02	0.038*
POLPART	0.11***	0.11***	0.13***	0.12***	0.089***	0.14***	0.078***	0.20***	0.13***	0.068**
ETHRGHT	0.068**	0.04	0.02	0.069**	−0.024	−0.031	0.15***	−0.0087	0.014	0.024
IMMRGHT	0.14***	0.052	0.064**	0.058*	0.03	0.061**	0.10***	0.035	0.096***	0.0063

Notes: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

This table reports the results of M4r, that is, after controlling for individual and school characteristics, educational factors and students attitudes towards civic engagement.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data.

5.5. Democratic attitudes and immigrants in the classroom

ICCS data contain information on the immigrant background of the students, and this allows us to describe some basic patterns of immigrant students' civic integration processes.²⁴ In this study (similarly to the IEA report – Schulz et al., 2017), students with both parents born in a country outside the testing country were considered to have an immigrant background. This way, both first- and second-generation immigrant students are included in this category irrespective of whether they are also third-country nationals or mobile EU citizens.

Developing positive attitudes towards the democratic institutions of the destination countries can be interpreted as a powerful signal of integration and also needs to be promoted by the educational system. At the same time, we need to understand how the presence of immigrant students in the classroom might also influence these attitudes among native students. Our models shed some light on these important issues (see Figure 7).

As could be expected from previous studies, immigrants are generally more in favour of equal rights for minorities, whether ethnic minorities or immigrants (Keating and Benton, 2013; Kokkonen et al., 2010; Prokic and Dronkers, 2010). This is a fairly consistent pattern and is also found in our data. In particular, compared with natives, immigrant students proved to be significantly more open towards immigrants in general in most of the countries. Exceptions include Croatia, Lithuania and Latvia. In these countries, it is very likely that students with an immigrant background are border change immigrants, who do not necessarily identify themselves with the general term "immigrant" as used in the Likert scale items. At the same time, students with an immigrant background also demonstrate an increased level of openness towards ethnic minorities in seven out of the eleven countries. In the Nordic countries in our sample, attitudes towards immigrants are also positively associated with the share of immigrants in the classroom.

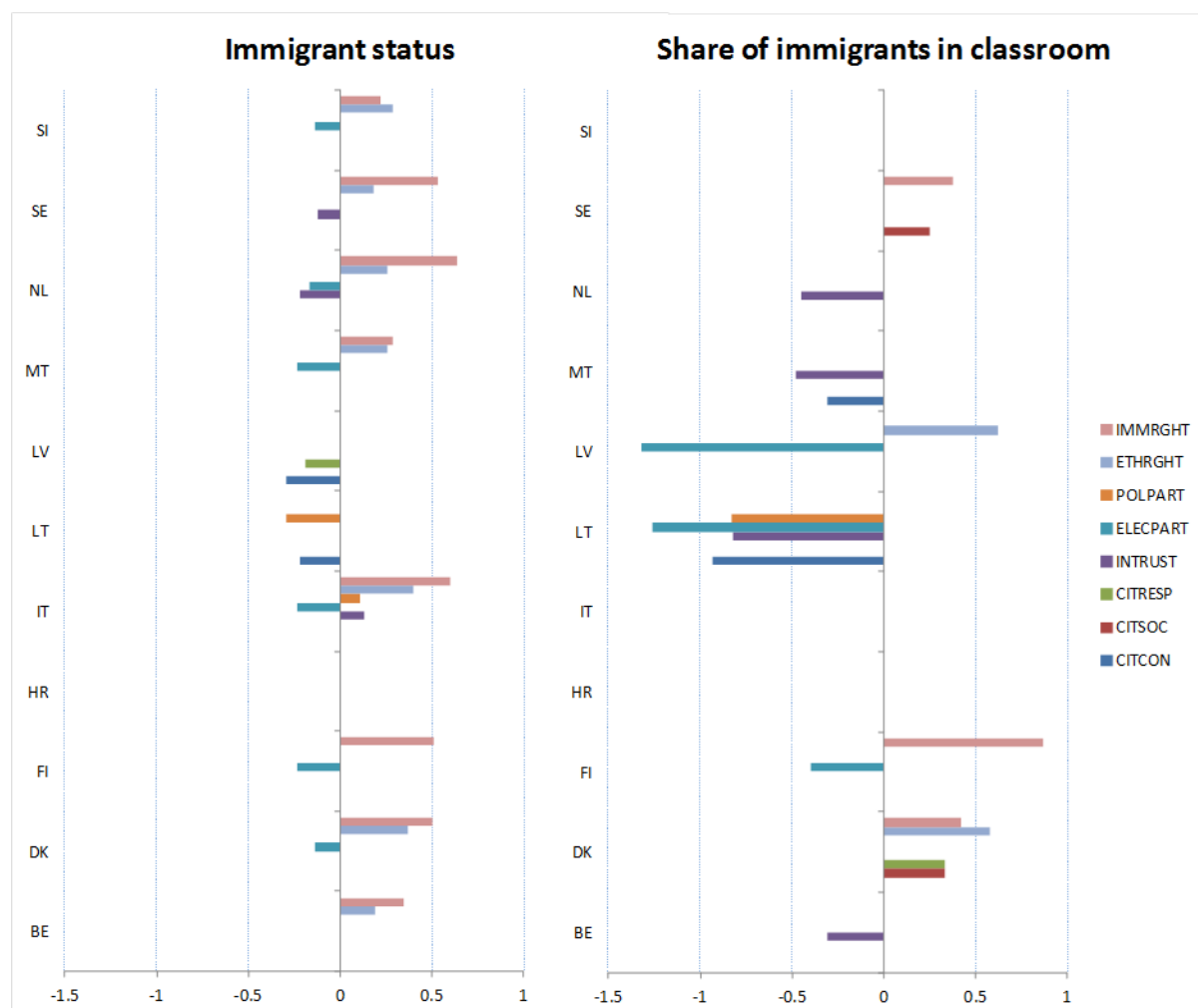
Looking now at the support for democratic principles, it is apparent that there is no systematic, universal gap between native and immigrant students. In fact, native students only produce higher scores than immigrants on a small number of democratic attitude scales, and usually not in all countries. Moreover, in some instances immigrant students even produce higher scales than their native counterparts.

The most important difference that favours native students relates to intention to participate in elections. Although its size is moderate, there is a statistically significant negative association between migrant status and expected electoral participation in six countries (Slovenia, the Netherlands, Malta, Italy, Finland and Denmark). In Sweden, a similar gap is also found, but only before we control for civic efficacy and civic knowledge (M3). Previously, similar tendencies have been found in Canada, where immigrant students also showed lower levels of interest in later political participation (Claes et al., 2009). Our finding is in full accordance with research evidence from all over Europe pointing to the low actual voting participation of immigrants (André et al., 2014) and suggests that these deficiencies in immigrants' political integration are already tangible at age 14.

Immigrant students reported a reduced level of trust towards institutions in Sweden and the Netherlands. Similar patterns have previously been reported for Sweden (Kokkonen et al., 2010) and also – for at least some subgroups of immigrants – for the USA, Belgium, Denmark, Norway, England and Italy (Prokic and Dronkers, 2010).

²⁴ Information on the share of migrants by EU Member State is provided in Table A.29 of the Appendix.

Figure 7. Immigrant status (left panel) and share of immigrants in classroom (right panel) coefficient for civic attitudes and behaviours, after controlling for different sets of variables²⁵



Notes: Only significant coefficients ($p < 0.05$) are reported. The regressors in the left panel refer to the immigrant status of the student, and the regressors in the right panel refer to the share of immigrant students in the classroom. This figure reports the results of M4, that is, after controlling for individual and school characteristics, educational factors and students attitudes for civic engagement.

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016 data.

Other small native-immigrant gaps found include a lower level of responsible citizenship (Latvia only) and less intention for later active political participation (Lithuania). On the other hand it is interesting to note that, in Italy, immigrant students scored slightly above their native counterparts on both the expected active political participation and the institutional trust scale.

The share of immigrant students in the classroom also has mixed effects on students' citizenship values in the various countries: positive ones in Denmark (social-movement-related and responsible citizenship) and Sweden (social-movement-related citizenship), but negative ones in Lithuania and Malta (conventional citizenship).

Further, the presence of immigrants in the classroom also appears to be negatively associated with institutional trust in Belgium, Lithuania, Malta and the Netherlands, and

²⁵ The Bulgaria sample has 13 immigrants. Following the OECD's recommendation regarding the threshold for minimum sample sizes, "... only countries with at least 100 first- or second-generation children of immigrants in the sample ..." are considered in the analysis. For this reason, we do not present results for Bulgaria. More detailed information can be found in OECD (2012).

with future electoral participation plans in Finland, Lithuania and Latvia. In Belgium, this negative tendency only appears if we do not take civic knowledge and efficacy into account (M3).²⁶

²⁶ Available from the authors upon request.

6. Discussion of the results

Civic attitudes and behavioural intentions have long been recognised as increasingly important in sustaining socially inclusive, secure democratic societies. In the light of the recent extremist attacks, the migration challenge and other political crises in Europe, there is a pressing need to strengthen the sense of citizenship among EU citizens. On this matter, schools are places where citizenship and politics are taught and practised. Students' encounters with different opinions, identities, skin colours and cultures turn schools into the ideal places for social and political development in times of globalisation. Thus, the ICCS 2016 study conducted on 14-year-old students in 14 EU MS offers a significant opportunity for a detailed analysis of European adolescents' civic knowledge, attitudes and behavioural intentions, and the mechanisms shaping them, with a particular emphasis on the broader role of education.

Despite countries' self-selection for participation and the cross-sectional nature of the dataset, which prevents the identification of any causal relationship, the analysis of the survey adds interesting findings to the existing research on CCE, with some very useful policy implications.

Given our focus on European adolescents' civic attitudes and behavioural intentions, overall results from this report indicate that, in contemporary Europe, schools seem to have a moderate but non-negligible role to play. Thus, our analysis confirms that maintaining an **open classroom climate** is a key factor in CCE not only for promoting students' civic knowledge and later engagement (as suggested by Schulz et al., 2017), but also for nurturing a number of other positive civic attitudes. Students who perceive their teachers to be encouraging of and open to discussion and different opinions within the classroom tend to attach higher importance to the various citizenship values, trust the country's democratic institutions more and are more ready to accept the idea of equal rights for immigrants. In the light of our findings, it is particularly welcome that school and classroom climate is among the frequently considered aspects of external school evaluation across Europe. External evaluation of schools currently assesses students' opportunities to participate and to express themselves with confidence in debates and classroom discussions in 14 Member States (European Commission et al., 2017, p. 124). Although this high level of acknowledgment of the importance of the issue is significant, it has to be noted that maintaining an engaging, participative classroom climate is a complex and challenging task for teachers, and one that cannot be achieved through external assessment only. Teachers also need intense professional support and training opportunities.

Further, outside the classroom, the democracy experienced among students needs to be further reinforced by their wider school community. The whole-school approach can integrate democracy into the everyday school experience, offering the opportunity for students to observe as well as to practise democracy in their school (European Commission et al., 2017). Our findings suggest that motivating students to take part in various forms of **within-school activism**, such as voting for student representatives, participating in discussions in the student assembly and in the school decision-making processes, is also likely to increase their interest in actively engaging in democratic processes later in life. However, these kinds of activities seem to be very specifically related to expected political participation, without being systematically related to any other civic attitude. Moreover, according to our findings, other aspects of the whole-school approach, such as **teachers' and parents' involvement in the school** – as perceived by the principal – do not seem to be directly associated with 14-year-olds' democratic attitudes.

Additionally, another important component of the whole-school approach refers to **active community involvement**. This involves extra-curricular activities carried out outside the school, which are likely to involve some (unpaid) activity done for the community. This form of citizenship learning might be done either voluntarily, or as an

activity considered obligatory or recommended by the school as part of the CCE curriculum. We find that active community involvement is positively associated with attitudes towards social-movement-related citizenship in almost all the participating countries, and it is also associated with further civic competencies across some countries, but we cannot identify a clear pattern. For example, greater expected political participation is associated with community involvement only in Sweden and Denmark, while greater electoral participation is observed only for the Netherlands and Malta. These findings, taken together with earlier (mostly US) research evidence, are still rather encouraging and show some potential for increasing students' future civic engagement and openness by involving them more in activities that serve the wider community. There is clearly room for further improvement in Europe in this field, as at present voluntary work is only included in the citizenship curricula of eight Member States at the ISCED1 level, nine Member States at the ISCED2 level and 12 Member States at the ISCED3 level (European Commission et al., 2017).

Turning now to the formal and more cognitive learning process, **formal learning** was shown to have positive associations mainly with attitudes related to political participation (conventional citizenship and expected electoral and political behaviour) and institutional trust – although in about half of the countries only. Irrespective of the amount of formal civic learning in school, students with more **civic and citizenship knowledge** tend to be more positive towards social-movement-related and personal-responsibility-based citizenship, demonstrate more intentions to participate in elections and have more positive attitudes towards ethnic minorities and immigrants in practically all the countries in this study. However, they have a limited interest in participating in future political activities in almost every country, attach less importance to conventional citizenship than others in some countries and have a decreased level of trust in the democratic institutions in countries with less established democracies. These findings provide further support, as well as further details, to the findings presented in the IEA report (Schulz et al., 2017), suggesting that better understanding of civic life might also imply more critical thinking and questioning of established institutions. Certainly, less trust towards democratic institutions among the more knowledgeable students in the more recently established democracies (Bulgaria, Croatia and Lithuania), but also in Italy and Malta, points in this direction. Further, the rather uniform tendency of more knowledge being linked to less intentions to participate in future political activism (together with the negative associations between conventional citizenship values and knowledge in some countries) seems to deliver more general and potentially more troublesome messages about how the best informed teenagers in Europe might see politics and political engagement. However, we would by no means interpret these findings as calling for a reduction in the amount of CCE in schools. Instead, we claim that CCE in general, and increasing students' civic self-efficacy and (to a more limited extent) their civic knowledge, are crucial and not yet fully exploited means of educating engaged and open-minded young people. In fact, results further indicate that developing **students' self-efficacy** in undertaking various civic actions, such as discussing a newspaper article about a conflict between countries or speaking in front of their class about a political or social issue, is consistently positively related to all the attitudes and behavioural intentions in all the EU Member States considered in this report. Thus, educational efforts should be geared in this direction.

Finally, a key objective of the present study has been to provide evidence on how immigrant students' attitudes and behavioural intentions relate to those of native students across the European countries within the ICCS sample. As we learned from the IEA report, a considerable gap exists in the level of civic and citizenship knowledge between students with and without an immigrant background across almost all the EU countries involved in this study (Schulz et al., 2017). From the point of view of Europe's identity it is particularly important to point out that our analysis has not revealed a systematic, universal gap between native and immigrant students' non-cognitive outcomes. Hence it is not confirmed that immigrant students are in general at a disadvantage in internalising democratic values. We have found, however, that low

electoral participation rates of European citizens with an immigrant background (André et al., 2014) are already predicted by adolescents' intended electoral participation in several Member States. Clearly, more work needs to be done on improving the political participation of European immigrants from an early age, to mitigate the later challenges for the legitimacy of representative democracy.

Besides this rather general pattern, other, more country-specific differences between natives and immigrants appear, including with regard to the relevance of the share of immigrants in the classroom. For instance, immigrants trust democratic institutions less than natives in the Netherlands and Sweden. On the other hand, a positive example is Italy, where immigrant students trust democratic institutions even more than native students do, and are also slightly more interested in active political participation. In some countries, a high share of immigrants in the classroom is associated with more openness towards immigrants. On the other hand, in Lithuania, immigrant students' concentration in the classroom is related to several negative tendencies as far as civic attitudes are concerned. Without doubt, these mixed findings reflect the diverse nature of the immigrant population across (but also within) countries, as well as the differences in the ways educational systems attempt to integrate immigrant students in European classrooms.

Appendix

Further data description and statistics

Table A1. Correlation between non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes by EU Member State (1/3)

BE-FI								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4079	1						
CITRESP	0.3743	0.5228	1					
INTRUST	0.2815	0.1477	0.2447	1				
ELECPART	0.2587	0.1696	0.2193	0.2374	1			
POLPART	0.2747	0.1768	0.0671	0.113	0.2633	1		
ETHRGHT	0.1961	0.2742	0.3864	0.1942	0.2414	0.0757	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1846	0.2168	0.2783	0.1534	0.1478	0.0981	0.4413	1
BG								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4479	1						
CITRESP	0.4899	0.6223	1					
INTRUST	0.3451	0.0853	0.1752	1				
ELECPART	0.3557	0.2899	0.2848	0.2386	1			
POLPART	0.3567	0.0622	0.0757	0.3145	0.3585	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2493	0.2815	0.3832	0.2436	0.2019	0.0628	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1754	0.1325	0.2095	0.2237	0.1573	0.0826	0.4063	1
DE								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4925	1						
CITRESP	0.412	0.5605	1					
INTRUST	0.3389	0.2409	0.2992	1				
ELECPART	0.3517	0.2621	0.244	0.3301	1			
POLPART	0.3526	0.2275	0.1606	0.2767	0.4429	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2672	0.319	0.4102	0.2722	0.2741	0.1262	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1657	0.2453	0.2927	0.1895	0.1594	0.0901	0.4935	1
DK								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4412	1						
CITRESP	0.4461	0.454	1					
INTRUST	0.276	0.0893	0.2419	1				
ELECPART	0.3588	0.1567	0.2823	0.2899	1			
POLPART	0.2945	0.1877	0.1262	0.1512	0.3631	1		
ETHRGHT	0.1755	0.2096	0.3444	0.1525	0.2692	0.1071	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1203	0.1599	0.2788	0.1175	0.2052	0.087	0.5197	1

Table A1. Correlation between non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes by EU Member State (2/3)

EE								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4635	1						
CITRESP	0.4603	0.4836	1					
INTRUST	0.3441	0.1146	0.2869	1				
ELECPART	0.4306	0.2654	0.2488	0.2911	1			
POLPART	0.3316	0.1968	0.1143	0.1834	0.3965	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2207	0.26	0.359	0.1924	0.2502	0.0409	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1293	0.1487	0.2271	0.1502	0.1396	0.0479	0.3521	1
FI								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4992	1						
CITRESP	0.4335	0.5351	1					
INTRUST	0.341	0.209	0.3697	1				
ELECPART	0.4084	0.2669	0.3162	0.2944	1			
POLPART	0.3245	0.2146	0.0878	0.1449	0.375	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2384	0.3155	0.4116	0.2627	0.3116	0.0903	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1953	0.2676	0.3839	0.2537	0.2504	0.085	0.534	1
HR								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4939	1						
CITRESP	0.484	0.5886	1					
INTRUST	0.3073	0.1673	0.2339	1				
ELECPART	0.3537	0.2715	0.2725	0.1864	1			
POLPART	0.3441	0.1421	0.1143	0.2412	0.3953	1		
ETHRGHT	0.262	0.368	0.4012	0.1253	0.2627	0.0637	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1539	0.2516	0.3005	0.1766	0.187	0.0319	0.4436	1
IT								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4528	1						
CITRESP	0.4547	0.5079	1					
INTRUST	0.3076	0.1208	0.2196	1				
ELECPART	0.3547	0.2432	0.2371	0.2067	1			
POLPART	0.3429	0.1885	0.1227	0.2471	0.335	1		
ETHRGHT	0.3127	0.3498	0.4138	0.2104	0.2438	0.1386	1	
IMMRGHT	0.2208	0.2917	0.3013	0.2155	0.1308	0.1113	0.5575	1
LT								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.5301	1						
CITRESP	0.4901	0.5309	1					
INTRUST	0.3752	0.1749	0.2497	1				
ELECPART	0.3791	0.2807	0.2807	0.2582	1			
POLPART	0.3521	0.2024	0.1269	0.2873	0.3419	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2121	0.2806	0.356	0.1371	0.2396	0.0233	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1239	0.1798	0.2615	0.1104	0.179	0.0304	0.357	1

Table A1. Correlation between non-cognitive civic and citizenship outcomes by EU Member State (3/3)

LV								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4625	1						
CITRESP	0.4753	0.5118	1					
INTRUST	0.3152	0.1482	0.2239	1				
ELECPART	0.3415	0.2403	0.2281	0.2284	1			
POLPART	0.2786	0.1525	0.1043	0.2237	0.3283	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2205	0.2718	0.3277	0.1671	0.2049	0.0472	1	
IMMRGHT	0.057	0.1214	0.1764	0.1346	0.0357	0.0087	0.318	1
MT								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4895	1						
CITRESP	0.4056	0.5687	1					
INTRUST	0.376	0.1732	0.2357	1				
ELECPART	0.4249	0.3092	0.314	0.2684	1			
POLPART	0.3942	0.1652	0.0426	0.2471	0.4284	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2865	0.3681	0.466	0.1747	0.2757	0.0713	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1709	0.2267	0.2954	0.1668	0.1499	0.0311	0.389	1
NL								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4996	1						
CITRESP	0.477	0.5664	1					
INTRUST	0.3	0.154	0.2567	1				
ELECPART	0.3048	0.1568	0.2536	0.2472	1			
POLPART	0.319	0.1863	0.131	0.1802	0.4367	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2102	0.2431	0.3877	0.1969	0.2907	0.1151	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1552	0.197	0.2649	0.1498	0.1698	0.0785	0.4529	1
SE								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4785	1						
CITRESP	0.4493	0.591	1					
INTRUST	0.2841	0.2221	0.2909	1				
ELECPART	0.3167	0.2674	0.3102	0.2906	1			
POLPART	0.3215	0.2061	0.1397	0.1652	0.352	1		
ETHRGHT	0.202	0.3411	0.4105	0.2479	0.345	0.0936	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1478	0.2887	0.3294	0.1844	0.199	0.062	0.5156	1
SI								
	CITCON	CITSOC	CITRESP	INTRUST	ELECPART	POLPART	ETHRGHT	IMMRGHT
CITCON	1							
CITSOC	0.4808	1						
CITRESP	0.4048	0.5818	1					
INTRUST	0.2539	0.1375	0.1958	1				
ELECPART	0.2763	0.2351	0.2306	0.2032	1			
POLPART	0.2579	0.1414	0.0848	0.1847	0.3656	1		
ETHRGHT	0.2264	0.2927	0.355	0.1415	0.1734	0.0664	1	
IMMRGHT	0.1285	0.1991	0.2392	0.1862	0.1181	0.0738	0.4764	1

Table A2. Description of the ICCS scales used as independent variables in the analysis

Variable name	Description
Formal learning	
Students' perception of civic learning in school	Students had to indicate to what extent they had the opportunity to learn about the following topics in school: (1) <i>how citizens can vote in local or national elections</i> ; (2) <i>how laws are introduced and changed in <country of test></i> ; (3) <i>how to protect the environment (e.g. through energy-saving or recycling)</i> ; (4) <i>how to contribute to solving problems in the <local community></i> ; (5) <i>how citizen rights are protected in <country of test></i> ; (6) <i>political issues and events in other countries</i> ; and (7) <i>how the economy works</i> . Possible response categories were "to a large extent", "to a moderate extent", "to a small extent" and "not at all".
Democratic school experience	
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	Students' perception of whether or not the following happen "often", "sometimes", "rarely" or "never" in the classroom was assessed: (1) <i>teachers encourage students to make up their own minds</i> ; (2) <i>teachers encourage students to express their opinions</i> ; (3) <i>students bring up current political events for discussion in class</i> ; (4) <i>students express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from most of the other students</i> ; (5) <i>teachers encourage students to discuss the issues with people having different opinions</i> ; and (6) <i>teachers present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class</i> .
Students' participation at school	The scale combines information on students' experiences in the following: (1) <i>active participation in an organised debate</i> ; (2) <i>voting for <class representative> or <school parliament></i> ; (3) <i>taking part in decision-making about how the school is run</i> ; (4) <i>taking part in discussions at a <student assembly></i> ; (5) <i>becoming a candidate for <class representative> or <school parliament></i> ; and (6) <i>participating in an activity to make the school more <environmentally friendly> (e.g. through water-saving or recycling)</i> . Possible response categories were "yes, I have done this within the last 12 months", "yes, I have done this but more than a year ago" and "no, I have never done this".
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	The scale was based on principals' reports regarding the following: (1) <i>teachers are involved in decision-making processes</i> ; (2) <i>parents are involved in decision-making processes</i> ; (3) <i>students' opinions are taken into account in decision-making processes</i> ; (4) <i>rules and regulations are followed by teaching and non-teaching staff, students, and parents</i> ; (5) <i>students are given the opportunity to actively participate in school decisions</i> ; and (6) <i>parents are provided with information on the school and student performance</i> . Principals were expected to indicate whether the listed statements apply to the school "to a large extent", "to a moderate extent", "to a small extent" or "not at all".
Individual attitudes for civic engagement	
Civic and citizenship knowledge and skills	The scale is constructed to describe student knowledge and understanding at different levels of student proficiency. Cognitive test items were scaled by IEA, using IRT scaling methods. Five separate estimates were generated for each student civic and citizenship knowledge, using plausible value methodology with full conditioning. The final reporting scale was set to a metric with a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100 in 2009, for the equally weighted national samples.
Citizenship self-efficacy	This gives an account of the students' sense of being capable of undertaking specific tasks in the area of civic participation. The following seven areas are described: (1) <i>discuss a newspaper article about a conflict between countries</i> ; (2) <i>argue your point of view about a controversial political or social issue</i> ; (3) <i>stand as a candidate in a <school election></i> ; (4) <i>organize a group of students in order to achieve changes at school</i> ; (5) <i>follow a television debate about a controversial issue</i> ; (6) <i>write a letter or email to a newspaper giving your view on a current issue</i> ; and (7) <i>speak in front of your class about a social or political issue</i> . The students had to decide whether they could do these activities "very well", "fairly well", "not very well" or "not at all".

Table A3. Descriptive statistics of covariates by EU Member State: average and standard errors²⁷ (1/2)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	DE – NRW	EE	FI	HR
Age	13.9 (0.021)	14.7 (0.009)	14.9 (0.009)	14.3 (0.030)	14.9 (0.014)	14.8 (0.007)	14.6 (0.008)
Immigrants	0.15 (0.018)	0.0054 (0.002)	0.085 (0.009)	0.26 (0.018)	0.094 (0.013)	0.029 (0.004)	0.087 (0.009)
Female	0.48 (0.021)	0.46 (0.019)	0.52 (0.009)	0.53 (0.014)	0.48 (0.019)	0.49 (0.012)	0.51 (0.009)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.0059 (0.055)	0.073 (0.040)	0.014 (0.035)	0.065 (0.059)	–0.016 (0.051)	0.0013 (0.024)	0.0054 (0.037)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.65 (0.024)	0.73 (0.015)	0.33 (0.012)	0.29 (0.028)	0.54 (0.022)	0.51 (0.012)	0.53 (0.014)
Interest in political and social issues	0.26 (0.013)	0.32 (0.013)	0.41 (0.010)	0.40 (0.022)	0.33 (0.019)	0.33 (0.011)	0.36 (0.011)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.62 (0.018)	0.64 (0.013)	0.71 (0.008)	0.68 (0.017)	0.65 (0.017)	0.70 (0.011)	0.68 (0.010)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	5.03 (0.030)	5.12 (0.026)	5.44 (0.022)	5.34 (0.034)	5.15 (0.043)	5.06 (0.025)	5.31 (0.021)
Students' engagement in social media	4.82 (0.034)	4.99 (0.027)	5.00 (0.018)	4.74 (0.027)	4.94 (0.028)	4.61 (0.021)	4.90 (0.022)
Urban area	0.16 (0.031)	0.37 (0.025)	0.090 (0.018)	0.41 (0.074)	0.25 (0.053)	0.26 (0.025)	0.23 (0.031)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	4.54 (0.110)	4.92 (0.072)	4.49 (0.056)	4.16 (0.135)	5.05 (0.074)	4.56 (0.056)	4.89 (0.061)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	5.40 (0.085)	4.47 (0.046)	5.18 (0.067)	4.85 (0.156)	4.51 (0.087)	5.25 (0.073)	4.28 (0.049)
Average class student–teacher relations	5.12 (0.028)	5.31 (0.034)	5.43 (0.032)	4.97 (0.038)	4.87 (0.042)	5.27 (0.030)	5.07 (0.037)
Average class students' interaction	5.00 (0.033)	5.02 (0.029)	5.16 (0.029)	4.78 (0.047)	4.81 (0.051)	5.01 (0.025)	4.85 (0.034)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.15 (0.018)	0.0048 (0.001)	0.087 (0.009)	0.26 (0.015)	0.094 (0.013)	0.033 (0.005)	0.088 (0.009)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	4.62 (0.030)	4.79 (0.024)	4.94 (0.020)	5.00 (0.075)	4.62 (0.042)	4.54 (0.020)	5.01 (0.032)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	4.14 (0.095)	5.16 (0.065)	4.71 (0.064)	5.50 (0.130)	5.45 (0.095)	4.80 (0.061)	5.35 (0.080)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	4.97 (0.035)	4.83 (0.032)	5.42 (0.032)	5.04 (0.049)	4.92 (0.042)	4.92 (0.023)	5.13 (0.036)
Students' participation at school	4.72 (0.045)	4.93 (0.036)	4.97 (0.020)	4.95 (0.037)	4.67 (0.048)	4.83 (0.025)	5.09 (0.023)
Students active involvement in community	0.40 (0.018)	0.41 (0.014)	0.25 (0.012)	0.24 (0.015)	0.22 (0.013)	0.12 (0.008)	0.38 (0.015)
Citizenship self-efficacy	4.96 (0.028)	5.19 (0.028)	5.08 (0.018)	4.94 (0.027)	4.89 (0.038)	4.77 (0.019)	5.41 (0.022)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	540.0 (4.669)	500.0 (4.291)	593.0 (3.153)	528.8 (2.928)	546.9 (5.021)	579.6 (2.224)	532.9 (2.427)

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016.

²⁷ Missing values were excluded from the analysis.

Table A3. Descriptive statistics of covariates by EU Member State: average and standard errors (2/2)

	IT	LT	LV	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	13.8 (0.013)	14.7 (0.008)	14.8 (0.015)	13.8 (0.006)	14.0 (0.021)	13.8 (0.010)	14.7 (0.010)
Immigrants	0.10 (0.009)	0.015 (0.002)	0.039 (0.005)	0.077 (0.005)	0.083 (0.020)	0.14 (0.010)	0.16 (0.015)
Female	0.48 (0.010)	0.51 (0.009)	0.53 (0.015)	0.53 (0.006)	0.51 (0.015)	0.49 (0.008)	0.50 (0.012)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.034 (0.042)	0.024 (0.033)	0.0028 (0.033)	0.052 (0.020)	0.043 (0.055)	0.0037 (0.034)	0.049 (0.026)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.38 (0.014)	0.60 (0.012)	0.37 (0.015)	0.44 (0.013)	0.35 (0.022)	0.35 (0.013)	0.61 (0.014)
Interest in political and social issues	0.32 (0.012)	0.36 (0.011)	0.28 (0.011)	0.34 (0.009)	0.18 (0.013)	0.24 (0.011)	0.44 (0.014)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.75 (0.011)	0.74 (0.011)	0.72 (0.015)	0.60 (0.009)	0.56 (0.012)	0.64 (0.012)	0.69 (0.010)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	5.31 (0.022)	5.37 (0.019)	5.36 (0.027)	5.34 (0.016)	5.01 (0.028)	5.08 (0.025)	5.29 (0.038)
Students' engagement in social media	5.05 (0.025)	5.15 (0.021)	5.25 (0.030)	4.82 (0.016)	4.46 (0.022)	4.70 (0.024)	4.99 (0.030)
Urban area	0.20 (0.032)	0.34 (0.021)	0.34 (0.018)	0 (0.000)	0.32 (0.049)	0.10 (0.026)	0.25 (0.043)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	5.00 (0.078)	4.75 (0.067)	5.10 (0.073)	4.23 (0.008)	4.34 (0.077)	5.01 (0.065)	4.58 (0.070)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	5.23 (0.080)	4.25 (0.042)	4.25 (0.058)	5.05 (0.008)	5.09 (0.122)	5.07 (0.092)	5.69 (0.103)
Average class student-teacher relations	5.26 (0.032)	5.00 (0.034)	4.63 (0.029)	5.21 (0.019)	4.99 (0.042)	4.84 (0.032)	5.24 (0.052)
Average class students' interaction	4.83 (0.027)	4.74 (0.030)	4.72 (0.032)	4.88 (0.017)	5.14 (0.037)	4.93 (0.037)	4.99 (0.035)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.11 (0.010)	0.016 (0.002)	0.040 (0.005)	0.075 (0.004)	0.083 (0.020)	0.14 (0.010)	0.16 (0.015)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	5.16 (0.031)	4.63 (0.027)	4.69 (0.028)	4.82 (0.013)	4.43 (0.029)	5.18 (0.028)	5.25 (0.065)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	4.26 (0.063)	4.85 (0.070)	5.71 (0.068)	5.03 (0.009)	4.24 (0.090)	5.14 (0.072)	4.79 (0.088)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	5.34 (0.030)	4.92 (0.030)	4.91 (0.027)	4.99 (0.019)	4.78 (0.027)	4.96 (0.030)	5.25 (0.057)
Students' participation at school	4.73 (0.041)	5.06 (0.028)	4.82 (0.037)	5.07 (0.021)	4.27 (0.045)	4.95 (0.023)	5.26 (0.028)
Students active involvement in community	0.27 (0.012)	0.30 (0.015)	0.25 (0.011)	0.37 (0.010)	0.27 (0.015)	0.32 (0.013)	0.15 (0.011)
Citizenship self-efficacy	5.17 (0.023)	5.08 (0.022)	4.79 (0.024)	5.05 (0.020)	4.82 (0.022)	5.00 (0.022)	5.17 (0.029)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	531.4 (2.358)	523.9 (2.830)	496.8 (3.288)	508.2 (2.638)	531.7 (5.388)	534.5 (2.456)	590.6 (3.066)

Source: Own calculations using ICCS 2016.

Table A4. Percentage of variance explained after controlling for different sets of variables (1/2)

	CITCON				CITSOC			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
BE-FI	0.125	0.128	0.136	0.206	0.029	0.032	0.057	0.095
BG	0.081	0.093	0.124	0.176	0.063	0.074	0.108	0.173
DK	0.117	0.120	0.131	0.156	0.028	0.032	0.043	0.050
FI	0.132	0.140	0.158	0.177	0.076	0.082	0.105	0.115
HR	0.116	0.135	0.154	0.187	0.046	0.059	0.087	0.126
IT	0.113	0.124	0.150	0.168	0.049	0.055	0.078	0.112
LT	0.078	0.095	0.123	0.167	0.039	0.045	0.066	0.103
LV	0.058	0.082	0.115	0.150	0.026	0.036	0.067	0.096
MT	0.141	0.150	0.177	0.236	0.071	0.080	0.119	0.185
NL	0.081	0.087	0.115	0.173	0.026	0.031	0.058	0.092
SE	0.118	0.131	0.139	0.177	0.068	0.076	0.105	0.128
SI	0.070	0.071	0.083	0.116	0.047	0.053	0.070	0.107

	CITRESP				INTRUST			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
BE-FI	0.042	0.046	0.071	0.103	0.032	0.051	0.056	0.082
BG	0.044	0.062	0.093	0.146	0.054	0.082	0.100	0.138
DK	0.068	0.082	0.108	0.119	0.051	0.062	0.074	0.085
FI	0.138	0.156	0.183	0.193	0.037	0.069	0.096	0.104
HR	0.068	0.095	0.131	0.156	0.047	0.093	0.110	0.142
IT	0.036	0.049	0.077	0.092	0.037	0.056	0.064	0.076
LT	0.036	0.054	0.079	0.098	0.033	0.065	0.100	0.125
LV	0.025	0.040	0.070	0.091	0.011	0.048	0.055	0.061
MT	0.085	0.102	0.149	0.211	0.054	0.096	0.119	0.165
NL	0.059	0.068	0.096	0.132	0.041	0.064	0.081	0.108
SE	0.092	0.110	0.138	0.166	0.047	0.069	0.091	0.107
SI	0.066	0.071	0.102	0.138	0.035	0.057	0.066	0.070

Source: Own calculations based on ICCS 2016 data.

Table A4. Percentage of variance explained after controlling for different sets of variables (2/2)

ELECPART					POLPART			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
BE-FI	0.133	0.139	0.164	0.239	0.083	0.086	0.098	0.167
BG	0.102	0.117	0.133	0.196	0.090	0.108	0.136	0.264
DK	0.253	0.260	0.290	0.354	0.100	0.101	0.115	0.162
FI	0.224	0.231	0.259	0.329	0.097	0.100	0.118	0.196
HR	0.130	0.137	0.151	0.221	0.087	0.102	0.114	0.179
IT	0.150	0.157	0.173	0.237	0.092	0.097	0.113	0.164
LT	0.132	0.146	0.171	0.229	0.085	0.090	0.107	0.226
LV	0.142	0.173	0.221	0.271	0.042	0.061	0.099	0.207
MT	0.162	0.165	0.198	0.266	0.134	0.136	0.153	0.289
NL	0.224	0.248	0.291	0.365	0.090	0.096	0.123	0.192
SE	0.242	0.251	0.281	0.336	0.131	0.133	0.152	0.216
SI	0.144	0.147	0.177	0.237	0.065	0.072	0.086	0.132

ETHRGHT					IMMRGHT			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
BE	0.047	0.051	0.067	0.121	0.079	0.090	0.100	0.112
BG	0.025	0.046	0.061	0.096	0.017	0.037	0.045	0.059
DK	0.083	0.091	0.106	0.133	0.083	0.098	0.106	0.129
FI	0.110	0.117	0.139	0.202	0.112	0.132	0.145	0.176
HR	0.062	0.070	0.092	0.154	0.030	0.042	0.055	0.073
IT	0.058	0.074	0.116	0.159	0.057	0.084	0.100	0.111
LT	0.050	0.058	0.079	0.141	0.025	0.034	0.047	0.079
LV	0.033	0.056	0.082	0.133	0.013	0.037	0.040	0.068
MT	0.056	0.059	0.099	0.140	0.038	0.043	0.062	0.068
NL	0.111	0.134	0.152	0.192	0.096	0.115	0.125	0.140
SE	0.148	0.171	0.209	0.284	0.125	0.164	0.175	0.199
SI	0.051	0.066	0.094	0.120	0.027	0.041	0.061	0.065

Source: Own calculations based on ICCS 2016 data.

Table A5. Students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship (BE–FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	0.038 (0.031)	0.010 (0.060)	0.025 (0.031)	–0.0066 (0.043)
Immigrants	0.12 (0.064)	–0.27 (0.290)	–0.033 (0.046)	0.087 (0.092)
Female	0.076* (0.030)	–0.069 (0.043)	0.15*** (0.019)	0.036 (0.026)
National index of socioeconomic background	–0.0081 (0.019)	–0.040 (0.024)	–0.00074 (0.013)	0.046** (0.015)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.041 (0.040)	–0.16* (0.066)	0.00048 (0.027)	0.021 (0.038)
Interest in political and social issues	0.14** (0.047)	0.21*** (0.051)	0.15*** (0.030)	0.18*** (0.037)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.20*** (0.032)	0.21*** (0.055)	0.21*** (0.029)	0.30*** (0.039)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.074** (0.024)	0.0015 (0.037)	0.10*** (0.023)	0.058* (0.022)
Students' engagement in social media	0.080*** (0.020)	0.025 (0.031)	0.018 (0.014)	0.042* (0.020)
Urban area	0.0095 (0.061)	–0.049 (0.053)	0.021 (0.054)	–0.027 (0.035)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.020 (0.024)	0.026 (0.036)	–0.037 (0.024)	–0.045 (0.024)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.0092 (0.027)	–0.016 (0.036)	0.015 (0.017)	0.044* (0.017)
Average class student–teacher relations	0.096 (0.061)	0.029 (0.075)	0.013 (0.047)	0.074 (0.057)
Average class students' interaction	–0.0013 (0.058)	0.094 (0.092)	0.047 (0.042)	0.13 (0.067)
Share of immigrants in classroom	–0.11 (0.108)	0.33 (0.694)	0.066 (0.111)	–0.052 (0.269)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.0084 (0.062)	0.20* (0.079)	0.13** (0.046)	0.10 (0.059)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	–0.018 (0.016)	–0.035 (0.026)	–0.047** (0.014)	–0.017 (0.024)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.056** (0.021)	0.12*** (0.031)	0.050** (0.017)	0.096*** (0.018)
Students' participation at school	–0.045* (0.019)	0.035 (0.024)	0.022 (0.013)	0.028 (0.019)
Students' active involvement in community	0.050 (0.035)	0.023 (0.046)	0.017 (0.029)	–0.023 (0.040)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.25*** (0.028)	0.26*** (0.031)	0.13*** (0.017)	0.16*** (0.028)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	–0.11*** (0.022)	–0.061 (0.031)	–0.091*** (0.017)	–0.036 (0.026)
Constant	1.92** (0.608)	1.66 (1.042)	2.55*** (0.516)	1.49 (0.823)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A6. Students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	0.071 (0.053)	-0.049 (0.032)	-0.070 (0.043)	0.030 (0.037)
Immigrants	0.035 (0.051)	-0.019 (0.049)	-0.22* (0.089)	-0.29*** (0.058)
Female	-0.082* (0.036)	-0.050 (0.029)	-0.041 (0.043)	0.0040 (0.038)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.026 (0.020)	0.019 (0.018)	-0.014 (0.020)	-0.037 (0.019)
Expected educational outcome (university)	-0.067 (0.040)	0.029 (0.036)	-0.11** (0.038)	-0.024 (0.035)
Interest in political and social issues	0.20*** (0.036)	0.19*** (0.029)	0.13** (0.039)	0.21*** (0.041)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.30*** (0.040)	0.25*** (0.033)	0.22*** (0.036)	0.20*** (0.042)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.014 (0.027)	0.024 (0.024)	0.060 (0.030)	-0.023 (0.029)
Students' engagement in social media	0.070** (0.023)	0.047* (0.018)	0.0035 (0.024)	0.024 (0.020)
Urban area	-0.047 (0.048)	-0.011 (0.045)	-0.096* (0.047)	0.061 (0.045)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.027 (0.025)	0.012 (0.024)	-0.024 (0.028)	0.047 (0.026)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.014 (0.036)	0.0077 (0.021)	-0.032 (0.035)	0.035 (0.044)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.057 (0.053)	0.038 (0.057)	0.090 (0.080)	0.028 (0.081)
Average class students' interaction	0.11 (0.071)	0.11 (0.069)	0.041 (0.058)	0.18** (0.066)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.079 (0.172)	0.075 (0.160)	-0.93** (0.282)	-0.31 (0.321)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.12 (0.074)	0.11* (0.052)	0.015 (0.071)	0.13 (0.076)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0090 (0.019)	-0.015 (0.020)	0.021 (0.024)	-0.0073 (0.025)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.10*** (0.024)	0.14*** (0.016)	0.11*** (0.021)	0.098*** (0.023)
Students' participation at school	-0.0032 (0.024)	-0.0070 (0.020)	0.056* (0.024)	0.056* (0.022)
Students' active involvement in community	0.061* (0.030)	0.012 (0.037)	0.014 (0.045)	0.025 (0.038)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.20*** (0.029)	0.15*** (0.024)	0.23*** (0.026)	0.19*** (0.027)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.033 (0.027)	-0.024 (0.024)	-0.039 (0.023)	-0.051* (0.024)
Constant	0.51 (0.897)	2.91*** (0.597)	3.46*** (0.754)	1.05 (0.743)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A7. Students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	0.025 (0.043)	0.077* (0.037)	0.050 (0.045)	-0.0097 (0.045)
Immigrants	0.067 (0.094)	-0.052 (0.068)	-0.034 (0.062)	-0.0054 (0.056)
Female	-0.024 (0.038)	-0.014 (0.033)	-0.035 (0.031)	-0.035 (0.034)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.030 (0.017)	0.011 (0.024)	0.032 (0.024)	0.0030 (0.023)
Expected educational outcome (university)	-0.0086 (0.034)	-0.051 (0.043)	0.054 (0.047)	-0.0067 (0.040)
Interest in political and social issues	0.28*** (0.040)	0.12* (0.048)	0.12** (0.037)	0.15*** (0.039)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.22*** (0.031)	0.22*** (0.036)	0.24*** (0.040)	0.23*** (0.037)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.072** (0.022)	0.090** (0.027)	0.060* (0.029)	0.037 (0.025)
Students' engagement in social media	0.064*** (0.018)	-0.023 (0.023)	0.092** (0.031)	0.059* (0.023)
Urban area	0 (.)	-0.0015 (0.053)	-0.11* (0.045)	0.034 (0.055)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.020 (0.028)	0.056 (0.033)	0.025 (0.039)	-0.015 (0.034)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.00073 (0.025)	-0.081* (0.032)	0.021 (0.034)	0.0060 (0.023)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.061 (0.075)	-0.033 (0.085)	0.098 (0.079)	0.022 (0.061)
Average class students' interaction	-0.014 (0.068)	0.12 (0.084)	0.086 (0.066)	-0.078 (0.069)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.31* (0.129)	-0.24 (0.174)	0.18 (0.125)	-0.11 (0.212)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.18** (0.064)	0.16* (0.070)	0.028 (0.066)	0.23*** (0.067)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0029 (0.019)	-0.030 (0.030)	0.037 (0.029)	-0.025 (0.034)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.11*** (0.027)	0.10*** (0.029)	0.067** (0.024)	0.039 (0.024)
Students' participation at school	0.027 (0.020)	0.015 (0.019)	-0.0055 (0.023)	-0.036 (0.023)
Students' active involvement in community	0.0074 (0.030)	0.055 (0.038)	-0.0059 (0.056)	0.056 (0.047)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.24*** (0.017)	0.25*** (0.025)	0.18*** (0.023)	0.20*** (0.026)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	-0.049* (0.019)	-0.058* (0.028)	-0.078* (0.036)	-0.0065 (0.028)
Constant	0.91 (0.632)	0.90 (0.782)	0.80 (0.770)	2.55** (0.836)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A8. Students' perception of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship (BE – FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	0.085* (0.040)	0.0094 (0.048)	0.12** (0.041)	0.074 (0.051)
Immigrants	0.054 (0.057)	–0.094 (0.289)	0.044 (0.052)	0.091 (0.109)
Female	0.054 (0.031)	0.052 (0.041)	0.059* (0.025)	0.18*** (0.035)
National index of socioeconomic background	–0.037 (0.020)	–0.0012 (0.024)	0.0087 (0.018)	0.0046 (0.015)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.047 (0.042)	–0.019 (0.060)	–0.016 (0.036)	–0.067* (0.031)
Interest in political and social issues	0.017 (0.053)	0.072 (0.043)	0.069* (0.034)	0.18*** (0.041)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.065 (0.036)	0.063 (0.044)	0.054* (0.025)	0.11* (0.044)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	–0.0019 (0.024)	0.016 (0.028)	0.0081 (0.024)	0.026 (0.023)
Students' engagement in social media	0.011 (0.021)	–0.021 (0.024)	0.058** (0.020)	0.022 (0.020)
Urban area	0.021 (0.079)	–0.11* (0.047)	–0.097 (0.069)	–0.099* (0.039)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.038 (0.029)	–0.060* (0.028)	–0.017 (0.027)	–0.078** (0.027)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.015 (0.024)	0.069* (0.032)	–0.019 (0.024)	0.055* (0.021)
Average class student–teacher relations	0.024 (0.060)	–0.048 (0.057)	0.0049 (0.048)	0.054 (0.061)
Average class students' interaction	0.0041 (0.083)	0.095 (0.054)	0.087 (0.054)	0.049 (0.058)
Share of immigrants in classroom	–0.068 (0.111)	1.78 (1.229)	0.33** (0.109)	0.12 (0.258)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.039 (0.053)	0.18** (0.062)	–0.027 (0.056)	0.056 (0.051)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.023 (0.018)	–0.025 (0.027)	–0.022 (0.021)	0.012 (0.026)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.080*** (0.022)	0.082** (0.024)	0.049** (0.016)	0.11*** (0.020)
Students' participation at school	0.015 (0.021)	0.027 (0.020)	0.050** (0.017)	0.018 (0.019)
Students' active involvement in community	0.15*** (0.037)	0.059 (0.039)	0.12*** (0.030)	0.14*** (0.049)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.21*** (0.026)	0.16*** (0.028)	0.055** (0.019)	0.10*** (0.021)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.017 (0.023)	0.25*** (0.022)	–0.072*** (0.016)	0.052* (0.022)
Constant	1.13 (0.966)	1.59 (0.901)	1.74* (0.691)	0.99 (0.852)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A9. Students' perception of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	0.050 (0.044)	-0.075* (0.033)	-0.094* (0.040)	0.021 (0.041)
Immigrants	-0.045 (0.052)	0.032 (0.056)	-0.049 (0.116)	-0.18 (0.093)
Female	0.011 (0.030)	0.037 (0.031)	-0.063 (0.033)	0.0075 (0.039)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.057** (0.018)	-0.026 (0.016)	-0.034 (0.021)	0.023 (0.019)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.0035 (0.041)	-0.0050 (0.037)	-0.088* (0.038)	-0.040 (0.040)
Interest in political and social issues	0.080* (0.035)	0.075* (0.033)	0.062 (0.042)	0.088 (0.045)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.033 (0.034)	0.012 (0.037)	0.078* (0.039)	0.024 (0.034)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.0051 (0.023)	0.037 (0.022)	0.032 (0.027)	-0.022 (0.029)
Students' engagement in social media	0.026 (0.021)	-0.0028 (0.017)	0.026 (0.021)	0.016 (0.016)
Urban area	-0.028 (0.042)	0.013 (0.042)	-0.016 (0.046)	0.012 (0.038)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.012 (0.025)	0.027 (0.022)	-0.026 (0.026)	0.0038 (0.022)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.023 (0.033)	0.014 (0.019)	-0.031 (0.037)	0.035 (0.036)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.049 (0.063)	0.041 (0.071)	0.064 (0.089)	0.18** (0.068)
Average class students' interaction	0.063 (0.067)	0.035 (0.069)	-0.0072 (0.082)	-0.024 (0.072)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.34 (0.175)	-0.21 (0.150)	0.017 (0.218)	-0.033 (0.312)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.031 (0.059)	0.051 (0.070)	0.033 (0.059)	0.016 (0.055)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.0032 (0.019)	-0.041 (0.023)	0.015 (0.021)	0.019 (0.022)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.11*** (0.020)	0.10*** (0.020)	0.079** (0.023)	0.064** (0.020)
Students' participation at school	0.0036 (0.023)	0.0014 (0.023)	0.035 (0.027)	0.053** (0.018)
Students' active involvement in community	0.096** (0.035)	0.051 (0.040)	0.071 (0.042)	0.12** (0.041)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.14*** (0.023)	0.14*** (0.022)	0.19*** (0.024)	0.15*** (0.021)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.19*** (0.030)	0.17*** (0.020)	0.11*** (0.028)	0.099*** (0.022)
Constant	1.12 (0.781)	3.26** (0.596)	3.59** (0.823)	1.60* (0.778)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A10. Students' perception of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	0.023 (0.039)	0.045 (0.050)	0.020 (0.043)	0.025 (0.052)
Immigrants	0.11 (0.070)	0.13 (0.079)	0.092 (0.068)	0.015 (0.054)
Female	0.011 (0.039)	0.023 (0.035)	0.15*** (0.035)	0.023 (0.038)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.057** (0.017)	0.0063 (0.021)	0.021 (0.023)	-0.035 (0.018)
Expected educational outcome (university)	-0.029 (0.033)	-0.093* (0.041)	0.041 (0.040)	-0.019 (0.040)
Interest in political and social issues	0.048 (0.036)	-0.017 (0.057)	0.015 (0.043)	0.043 (0.041)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.10** (0.033)	0.10* (0.039)	0.059 (0.040)	0.13*** (0.032)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.026 (0.023)	0.024 (0.023)	0.060* (0.025)	0.038 (0.028)
Students' engagement in social media	0.0024 (0.020)	-0.029 (0.024)	-0.0079 (0.029)	0.012 (0.028)
Urban area	0 (.)	0.028 (0.053)	-0.074 (0.044)	-0.051 (0.063)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.0071 (0.026)	0.049 (0.033)	0.026 (0.032)	0.042 (0.031)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.0028 (0.028)	-0.067 (0.033)	-0.0095 (0.025)	-0.021 (0.027)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.11 (0.063)	-0.072 (0.083)	0.11 (0.066)	0.051 (0.077)
Average class students' interaction	-0.087 (0.055)	0.11 (0.075)	-0.014 (0.067)	0.031 (0.069)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.20 (0.145)	-0.16 (0.169)	0.25* (0.116)	0.0034 (0.144)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.12* (0.051)	0.11 (0.055)	-0.014 (0.060)	0.032 (0.068)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.0097 (0.018)	-0.027 (0.027)	0.026 (0.027)	-0.0053 (0.033)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.074** (0.023)	0.067* (0.032)	0.12*** (0.021)	0.056* (0.023)
Students' participation at school	0.043* (0.017)	0.034 (0.019)	0.017 (0.025)	-0.0098 (0.021)
Students' active involvement in community	0.097** (0.033)	0.15*** (0.038)	0.16** (0.055)	0.11** (0.042)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.19*** (0.017)	0.19*** (0.027)	0.16*** (0.020)	0.14*** (0.027)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.18*** (0.020)	0.012 (0.027)	0.027 (0.028)	0.20*** (0.029)
Constant	1.18 (0.631)	1.90* (0.762)	1.85* (0.689)	1.57 (0.808)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A11. Students' perception of the importance of personal responsibility for citizenship (BE – FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	0.00083 (0.034)	0.029 (0.048)	0.064* (0.030)	0.12* (0.048)
Immigrants	0.11 (0.065)	-0.17 (0.325)	0.065 (0.047)	0.15 (0.138)
Female	0.14*** (0.036)	0.12** (0.042)	0.15*** (0.026)	0.44*** (0.032)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.047* (0.023)	-0.028 (0.030)	0.018 (0.016)	0.0054 (0.018)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.069 (0.040)	0.015 (0.070)	0.0025 (0.028)	0.032 (0.034)
Interest in political and social issues	-0.0010 (0.056)	0.080 (0.051)	0.014 (0.032)	0.16*** (0.042)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.10** (0.031)	0.092* (0.044)	0.072* (0.024)	0.15*** (0.037)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.030 (0.025)	-0.046 (0.033)	0.060** (0.020)	0.063** (0.021)
Students' engagement in social media	-0.016 (0.019)	-0.031 (0.029)	0.0035 (0.017)	-0.077*** (0.020)
Urban area	-0.0037 (0.071)	-0.12* (0.056)	-0.034 (0.054)	-0.0046 (0.045)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.047 (0.027)	-0.046 (0.030)	-0.016 (0.024)	0.041 (0.029)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	-0.0023 (0.027)	0.0040 (0.034)	0.026 (0.018)	-0.021 (0.020)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.037 (0.062)	0.12 (0.061)	0.11* (0.045)	0.28*** (0.059)
Average class students' interaction	0.080 (0.061)	0.064 (0.073)	0.034 (0.043)	-0.030 (0.067)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.043 (0.129)	0.83 (1.472)	0.33** (0.109)	0.088 (0.280)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.078 (0.063)	0.16 (0.087)	0.037 (0.046)	0.13* (0.065)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.00080 (0.017)	-0.032 (0.032)	-0.045** (0.015)	-0.043 (0.027)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.11*** (0.019)	0.12*** (0.027)	0.10*** (0.015)	0.16*** (0.025)
Students' participation at school	-0.0063 (0.019)	-0.012 (0.023)	0.016 (0.015)	0.014 (0.019)
Students' active involvement in community	0.087* (0.035)	0.027 (0.041)	0.076** (0.026)	0.039 (0.050)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.19*** (0.023)	0.20*** (0.032)	0.097*** (0.018)	0.053* (0.022)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.078** (0.024)	0.18*** (0.026)	0.033 (0.019)	0.11*** (0.028)
Constant	1.60* (0.778)	0.98 (0.976)	1.11* (0.518)	-0.59 (0.878)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A12. Students' perception of the importance of personal responsibility for citizenship (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	-0.036 (0.053)	-0.038 (0.034)	-0.024 (0.047)	0.0070 (0.035)
Immigrants	-0.0013 (0.067)	0.027 (0.051)	0.092 (0.124)	-0.19** (0.068)
Female	0.18*** (0.037)	0.091** (0.032)	0.092* (0.037)	0.080* (0.039)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.079*** (0.022)	-0.013 (0.018)	0.011 (0.023)	0.0092 (0.019)
Expected educational outcome (university)	-0.0064 (0.046)	0.038 (0.044)	-0.092 (0.046)	-0.056 (0.040)
Interest in political and social issues	0.14** (0.046)	0.044 (0.036)	0.062 (0.050)	0.11** (0.040)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.075 (0.042)	0.014 (0.040)	0.13** (0.039)	0.047 (0.033)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.024 (0.032)	0.046* (0.023)	0.036 (0.029)	-0.032 (0.027)
Students' engagement in social media	-0.035 (0.025)	-0.041* (0.017)	-0.017 (0.023)	0.0040 (0.019)
Urban area	-0.089 (0.060)	-0.010 (0.040)	-0.12* (0.054)	-0.057 (0.046)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.034 (0.034)	0.021 (0.031)	-0.048 (0.032)	0.035 (0.022)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.035 (0.036)	0.010 (0.022)	-0.018 (0.036)	0.0059 (0.037)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.19* (0.089)	0.11 (0.074)	0.22* (0.102)	0.070 (0.067)
Average class students' interaction	0.070 (0.072)	0.098 (0.074)	-0.074 (0.111)	0.13* (0.056)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.064 (0.263)	-0.17 (0.181)	-0.30 (0.255)	0.16 (0.279)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.035 (0.087)	-0.0063 (0.066)	0.0083 (0.070)	-0.018 (0.062)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.00029 (0.024)	-0.016 (0.026)	0.00054 (0.025)	0.049* (0.020)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.17*** (0.027)	0.15*** (0.021)	0.15*** (0.020)	0.12*** (0.023)
Students' participation at school	0.039 (0.027)	-0.036 (0.019)	0.0029 (0.025)	0.011 (0.021)
Students' active involvement in community	0.076 (0.038)	-0.053 (0.035)	-0.0017 (0.041)	0.049 (0.038)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.18*** (0.030)	0.12*** (0.024)	0.14*** (0.029)	0.12*** (0.022)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.11** (0.032)	0.075** (0.025)	0.072* (0.034)	0.11*** (0.027)
Constant	1.55 (0.860)	2.96*** (0.568)	2.79** (0.962)	1.58* (0.692)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A13. Students' perception of the importance of personal responsibility for citizenship (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	-0.041 (0.045)	0.026 (0.030)	-0.032 (0.042)	-0.051 (0.056)
Immigrants	0.14 (0.070)	0.13 (0.067)	0.099 (0.070)	-0.024 (0.056)
Female	0.19*** (0.036)	0.093* (0.036)	0.18*** (0.038)	0.20*** (0.041)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.056** (0.017)	0.021 (0.023)	0.025 (0.022)	-0.026 (0.025)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.057 (0.032)	-0.070 (0.044)	0.034 (0.042)	-0.013 (0.044)
Interest in political and social issues	0.039 (0.040)	-0.031 (0.042)	0.057 (0.044)	0.034 (0.047)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.097** (0.034)	0.12** (0.039)	0.11* (0.042)	0.11* (0.042)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.018 (0.028)	0.063* (0.026)	0.087*** (0.024)	0.017 (0.027)
Students' engagement in social media	-0.056* (0.022)	-0.031 (0.022)	-0.069** (0.021)	0.0013 (0.028)
Urban area	0 (.)	0.0013 (0.043)	0.013 (0.039)	0.049 (0.069)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.0068 (0.033)	-0.0023 (0.033)	0.056 (0.030)	-0.019 (0.032)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	-0.062 (0.031)	-0.043 (0.027)	-0.030 (0.022)	-0.0028 (0.027)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.23** (0.070)	0.052 (0.055)	0.12* (0.059)	0.065 (0.079)
Average class students' interaction	-0.14* (0.064)	0.049 (0.074)	0.13* (0.063)	0.053 (0.071)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.30 (0.152)	-0.12 (0.174)	0.065 (0.091)	-0.081 (0.200)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.044 (0.058)	0.12* (0.052)	0.0075 (0.057)	-0.064 (0.068)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.027 (0.019)	-0.043 (0.025)	0.054* (0.023)	-0.044 (0.031)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.12*** (0.022)	0.10** (0.032)	0.12*** (0.023)	0.13*** (0.025)
Students' participation at school	0.078*** (0.020)	0.014 (0.021)	0.018 (0.026)	0.0043 (0.025)
Students' active involvement in community	-0.0049 (0.040)	0.065 (0.046)	-0.084 (0.047)	0.046 (0.041)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.17*** (0.018)	0.17*** (0.025)	0.16*** (0.020)	0.15*** (0.030)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.25*** (0.019)	0.14*** (0.026)	0.032 (0.029)	0.21*** (0.027)
Constant	2.25** (0.679)	1.21 (0.677)	1.71* (0.652)	2.91*** (0.787)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A14. Students' trust in civic institutions (BE – FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	–0.089* (0.042)	–0.058 (0.050)	–0.097** (0.030)	0.025 (0.038)
Immigrants	0.016 (0.067)	–0.012 (0.188)	–0.094 (0.063)	0.012 (0.100)
Female	–0.014 (0.037)	0.024 (0.046)	–0.036 (0.024)	–0.036 (0.031)
National index of socioeconomic background	–0.028 (0.021)	–0.12*** (0.030)	0.021 (0.014)	0.041* (0.020)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.071 (0.048)	0.063 (0.057)	0.0068 (0.035)	0.030 (0.036)
Interest in political and social issues	–0.015 (0.042)	0.038 (0.062)	0.025 (0.025)	0.034 (0.041)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.23*** (0.035)	0.15*** (0.049)	0.17*** (0.029)	0.17*** (0.035)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.0016 (0.022)	–0.052 (0.028)	0.0048 (0.018)	0.0021 (0.023)
Students' engagement in social media	–0.021 (0.024)	–0.026 (0.026)	–0.0096 (0.019)	–0.085*** (0.024)
Urban area	0.019 (0.050)	–0.051 (0.056)	–0.0054 (0.032)	–0.063 (0.043)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	–0.065 (0.033)	0.033 (0.033)	–0.025 (0.026)	0.012 (0.023)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.052 (0.035)	–0.044 (0.033)	–0.0091 (0.017)	–0.0096 (0.023)
Average class student–teacher relations	0.16* (0.064)	0.093 (0.086)	–0.015 (0.045)	0.25*** (0.068)
Average class students' interaction	0.15* (0.065)	0.22* (0.084)	0.13** (0.041)	0.16* (0.074)
Share of immigrants in classroom	–0.31* (0.132)	–1.83 (0.922)	–0.11 (0.141)	0.039 (0.187)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.070 (0.075)	0.29*** (0.095)	0.16*** (0.046)	0.15* (0.071)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	–0.017 (0.021)	0.0043 (0.031)	–0.017 (0.016)	0.0033 (0.027)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.026 (0.025)	0.058* (0.029)	0.053** (0.016)	0.14*** (0.021)
Students' participation at school	0.014 (0.019)	0.059* (0.025)	0.0084 (0.014)	–0.025 (0.020)
Students' active involvement in community	–0.0059 (0.038)	0.035 (0.048)	–0.041 (0.029)	–0.017 (0.046)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.16*** (0.030)	0.16*** (0.033)	0.10*** (0.020)	0.089*** (0.021)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	–0.043 (0.028)	–0.20*** (0.028)	0.036* (0.016)	0.030 (0.025)
Constant	3.95*** (0.831)	2.69*** (0.936)	4.44*** (0.582)	1.32 (0.704)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A15. Students' trust in civic institutions (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	0.026 (0.048)	-0.13*** (0.031)	0.032 (0.043)	-0.072 (0.048)
Immigrants	0.013 (0.075)	0.13* (0.057)	-0.041 (0.115)	-0.12 (0.080)
Female	-0.029 (0.046)	0.021 (0.026)	-0.11** (0.035)	-0.059 (0.035)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.018 (0.022)	0.040** (0.015)	-0.020 (0.018)	0.0087 (0.024)
Expected educational outcome (university)	-0.12* (0.050)	-0.032 (0.031)	-0.070 (0.037)	-0.073 (0.039)
Interest in political and social issues	0.028 (0.039)	0.054 (0.032)	0.024 (0.037)	0.0055 (0.041)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.23*** (0.040)	0.22*** (0.035)	0.20*** (0.043)	0.12*** (0.033)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	-0.041 (0.024)	-0.018 (0.024)	-0.060* (0.026)	-0.027 (0.024)
Students' engagement in social media	0.0074 (0.023)	0.00077 (0.017)	0.0024 (0.024)	0.018 (0.019)
Urban area	-0.052 (0.049)	-0.022 (0.054)	-0.10** (0.038)	-0.024 (0.037)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.019 (0.024)	-0.021 (0.024)	0.0029 (0.023)	0.058** (0.021)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.029 (0.036)	0.016 (0.021)	-0.11** (0.033)	-0.037 (0.029)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.13* (0.063)	0.14* (0.064)	0.099 (0.057)	0.28*** (0.065)
Average class students' interaction	0.20*** (0.056)	0.10 (0.058)	0.13* (0.054)	0.12 (0.075)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.16 (0.166)	0.20 (0.162)	-0.82*** (0.234)	-0.11 (0.304)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.23** (0.080)	0.087 (0.052)	0.0028 (0.060)	0.099 (0.059)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.050* (0.021)	-0.0017 (0.022)	0.030 (0.022)	0.00023 (0.026)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.088** (0.026)	0.088*** (0.019)	0.15*** (0.021)	0.033 (0.025)
Students' participation at school	-0.022 (0.026)	-0.011 (0.018)	0.054* (0.025)	0.020 (0.023)
Students' active involvement in community	0.030 (0.042)	-0.010 (0.031)	-0.060 (0.032)	0.025 (0.045)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.16*** (0.030)	0.066** (0.024)	0.13*** (0.023)	0.083*** (0.022)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	-0.16*** (0.036)	-0.10*** (0.021)	-0.11*** (0.028)	-0.0083 (0.033)
Constant	1.69* (0.722)	4.94*** (0.619)	3.14*** (0.745)	2.94** (0.904)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A16. Students' trust in civic institutions (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	-0.079 (0.046)	-0.038 (0.041)	-0.056 (0.080)	-0.014 (0.044)
Immigrants	-0.016 (0.070)	-0.22* (0.082)	-0.12* (0.061)	-0.040 (0.049)
Female	0.077 (0.039)	-0.0032 (0.040)	-0.057 (0.040)	0.094* (0.042)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.083*** (0.016)	0.055* (0.021)	0.012 (0.021)	0.012 (0.021)
Expected educational outcome (university)	-0.048 (0.036)	-0.038 (0.039)	0.075 (0.040)	-0.047 (0.043)
Interest in political and social issues	0.080 (0.042)	-0.032 (0.050)	-0.12* (0.048)	0.057 (0.042)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.16*** (0.039)	0.13* (0.041)	0.26*** (0.037)	0.23*** (0.039)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.0059 (0.023)	-0.054* (0.027)	0.033 (0.034)	-0.044 (0.027)
Students' engagement in social media	0.016 (0.020)	-0.060* (0.027)	-0.048 (0.025)	0.026 (0.024)
Urban area	0 (.)	-0.076 (0.058)	-0.011 (0.043)	-0.071 (0.057)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.011 (0.036)	-0.025 (0.029)	0.036 (0.035)	-0.012 (0.036)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.062 (0.035)	-0.012 (0.029)	0.0025 (0.028)	0.013 (0.029)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.25*** (0.069)	0.15 (0.098)	0.041 (0.075)	0.24*** (0.074)
Average class students' interaction	0.085 (0.075)	0.23* (0.092)	0.25*** (0.069)	0.15* (0.073)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.48*** (0.136)	-0.45* (0.174)	-0.040 (0.130)	-0.040 (0.193)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.17** (0.055)	0.065 (0.059)	0.13 (0.077)	-0.0095 (0.063)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.0072 (0.022)	-0.019 (0.035)	-0.012 (0.034)	-0.021 (0.030)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.12*** (0.023)	0.10*** (0.027)	0.12*** (0.024)	0.076** (0.023)
Students' participation at school	0.012 (0.019)	0.0069 (0.024)	-0.015 (0.027)	-0.0016 (0.024)
Students' active involvement in community	-0.074* (0.034)	0.040 (0.045)	-0.052 (0.058)	0.051 (0.041)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.20*** (0.022)	0.17*** (0.029)	0.12*** (0.029)	0.068* (0.028)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	-0.075*** (0.015)	-0.024 (0.027)	-0.0017 (0.026)	0.035 (0.029)
Constant	1.90* (0.768)	3.19*** (0.856)	2.68*** (0.890)	2.40* (0.925)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A17. Students' expected electoral participation (BE – FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	0.039 (0.032)	0.028 (0.047)	–0.031 (0.024)	–0.027 (0.036)
Immigrants	–0.0069 (0.108)	–0.32 (0.308)	–0.14** (0.041)	–0.23** (0.081)
Female	–0.067* (0.029)	0.022 (0.039)	0.12*** (0.021)	0.0058 (0.027)
National index of socioeconomic background	–0.0022 (0.021)	–0.017 (0.027)	0.026* (0.012)	0.058** (0.012)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.078* (0.035)	0.11* (0.047)	0.037 (0.023)	0.045 (0.031)
Interest in political and social issues	0.22*** (0.042)	0.16*** (0.039)	0.20*** (0.022)	0.16*** (0.036)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.17*** (0.026)	0.27*** (0.045)	0.16*** (0.026)	0.30*** (0.035)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.036 (0.022)	0.058* (0.024)	0.096*** (0.019)	0.048* (0.021)
Students' engagement in social media	0.028 (0.016)	–0.023 (0.023)	0.0035 (0.016)	0.011 (0.018)
Urban area	0.11** (0.040)	–0.076 (0.048)	0.0079 (0.034)	0.015 (0.031)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	–0.044 (0.028)	0.050 (0.025)	–0.050* (0.022)	–0.043 (0.025)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.021 (0.025)	–0.010 (0.026)	0.017 (0.016)	0.030 (0.020)
Average class student–teacher relations	0.023 (0.057)	–0.0032 (0.057)	–0.0027 (0.044)	0.12* (0.056)
Average class students' interaction	–0.038 (0.045)	0.19** (0.065)	0.020 (0.042)	–0.095 (0.063)
Share of immigrants in classroom	–0.13 (0.133)	–0.25 (1.175)	0.019 (0.098)	–0.40* (0.182)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.17** (0.052)	0.0097 (0.079)	0.11** (0.038)	0.079 (0.056)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	–0.00036 (0.013)	–0.0096 (0.025)	0.0100 (0.011)	–0.0095 (0.021)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.040* (0.019)	0.024 (0.023)	0.035** (0.012)	0.060** (0.018)
Students' participation at school	0.032* (0.014)	0.039* (0.020)	0.058*** (0.012)	0.068*** (0.016)
Students' active involvement in community	0.022 (0.033)	0.014 (0.038)	0.044 (0.026)	–0.023 (0.038)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.16*** (0.025)	0.21*** (0.025)	0.15*** (0.016)	0.17*** (0.016)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.31*** (0.020)	0.20*** (0.028)	0.21*** (0.012)	0.24*** (0.019)
Constant	0.38 (0.582)	0.61 (0.879)	1.86*** (0.471)	1.65* (0.633)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A18. Students' expected electoral participation (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	-0.069 (0.043)	-0.059* (0.025)	0.0061 (0.037)	-0.0073 (0.037)
Immigrants	-0.023 (0.055)	-0.23*** (0.056)	-0.082 (0.083)	-0.091 (0.091)
Female	-0.068* (0.033)	-0.034 (0.025)	-0.0037 (0.027)	-0.0048 (0.035)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.035* (0.016)	0.0067 (0.016)	-0.0046 (0.019)	0.081*** (0.021)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.0068 (0.036)	0.057 (0.030)	0.053 (0.031)	0.12** (0.040)
Interest in political and social issues	0.14*** (0.032)	0.086* (0.029)	0.11*** (0.033)	0.19*** (0.038)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.22*** (0.031)	0.30*** (0.038)	0.24*** (0.038)	0.25*** (0.047)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.027 (0.025)	-0.0013 (0.019)	0.047* (0.022)	-0.010 (0.027)
Students' engagement in social media	0.063* (0.024)	0.012 (0.013)	0.015 (0.021)	0.011 (0.021)
Urban area	-0.063 (0.042)	-0.026 (0.036)	-0.028 (0.033)	-0.10* (0.044)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.022 (0.025)	0.033 (0.022)	-0.024 (0.023)	-0.00068 (0.024)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	-0.037 (0.031)	0.000093 (0.018)	-0.018 (0.033)	0.0051 (0.041)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.070 (0.046)	0.067 (0.045)	0.060 (0.064)	-0.030 (0.077)
Average class students' interaction	0.0028 (0.061)	0.048 (0.050)	-0.053 (0.056)	0.038 (0.063)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.035 (0.155)	-0.091 (0.121)	-1.26*** (0.294)	-1.32*** (0.311)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.012 (0.046)	0.042 (0.047)	0.020 (0.053)	0.13* (0.057)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0021 (0.016)	0.0081 (0.026)	0.0060 (0.020)	-0.0053 (0.027)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.039* (0.017)	0.044* (0.016)	0.079*** (0.017)	0.043 (0.023)
Students' participation at school	0.026 (0.019)	0.021 (0.014)	0.044 (0.023)	0.12*** (0.019)
Students' active involvement in community	0.014 (0.027)	0.040 (0.035)	0.041 (0.036)	0.0020 (0.034)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.17*** (0.020)	0.12*** (0.022)	0.16*** (0.020)	0.17*** (0.020)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.28*** (0.026)	0.25*** (0.020)	0.24*** (0.023)	0.22*** (0.024)
Constant	2.42** (0.709)	2.69*** (0.495)	1.91** (0.626)	1.57* (0.722)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A19. Students' expected electoral participation (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	-0.0074 (0.034)	-0.040 (0.043)	0.040 (0.035)	-0.071 (0.046)
Immigrants	-0.23** (0.068)	-0.17** (0.061)	-0.049 (0.050)	-0.14* (0.054)
Female	0.041 (0.034)	-0.12*** (0.033)	0.0059 (0.027)	-0.16*** (0.034)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.049** (0.015)	0.060** (0.019)	0.032 (0.017)	0.053* (0.021)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.054 (0.030)	0.038 (0.037)	0.12** (0.035)	0.090** (0.033)
Interest in political and social issues	0.26*** (0.029)	0.12** (0.042)	0.20*** (0.029)	0.095* (0.040)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.19*** (0.037)	0.22*** (0.036)	0.22*** (0.034)	0.24*** (0.041)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.062** (0.019)	0.032 (0.023)	0.067** (0.021)	0.019 (0.023)
Students' engagement in social media	0.017 (0.016)	0.035 (0.022)	-0.0098 (0.019)	0.046 (0.029)
Urban area	0 (.)	0.057 (0.039)	0.0037 (0.033)	-0.013 (0.067)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.035 (0.026)	-0.043 (0.030)	-0.049 (0.027)	-0.020 (0.031)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.028 (0.025)	-0.029 (0.025)	0.043 (0.024)	-0.025 (0.023)
Average class student-teacher relations	-0.0068 (0.054)	-0.043 (0.054)	0.013 (0.052)	-0.071 (0.068)
Average class students' interaction	-0.018 (0.048)	0.15** (0.050)	0.042 (0.050)	0.043 (0.054)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.0044 (0.123)	0.13 (0.114)	-0.17 (0.092)	0.12 (0.188)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.097 (0.053)	-0.014 (0.047)	0.11* (0.042)	0.18*** (0.052)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.024 (0.016)	-0.0039 (0.018)	0.0090 (0.018)	0.033 (0.027)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.058** (0.020)	0.086** (0.027)	0.024 (0.013)	0.032 (0.024)
Students' participation at school	0.041* (0.015)	0.086*** (0.022)	0.082*** (0.024)	0.057* (0.022)
Students' active involvement in community	0.060* (0.027)	0.086* (0.038)	-0.0070 (0.041)	0.011 (0.039)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.21*** (0.018)	0.17*** (0.017)	0.16*** (0.020)	0.16*** (0.025)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.14*** (0.014)	0.31*** (0.022)	0.15*** (0.018)	0.31*** (0.027)
Constant	2.02*** (0.539)	1.47* (0.690)	1.02 (0.613)	1.87* (0.823)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A20. Students' expected active political participation (BE – FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	–0.021 (0.037)	–0.072 (0.053)	–0.018 (0.027)	–0.026 (0.033)
Immigrants	0.10 (0.068)	–0.43 (0.363)	–0.000094 (0.041)	–0.072 (0.082)
Female	–0.095** (0.033)	–0.12** (0.045)	0.011 (0.021)	–0.088*** (0.024)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.0094 (0.019)	–0.037 (0.027)	–0.0027 (0.012)	0.016 (0.012)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.011 (0.042)	–0.031 (0.043)	–0.00011 (0.023)	–0.0091 (0.027)
Interest in political and social issues	0.14** (0.041)	0.18*** (0.039)	0.12*** (0.024)	0.070* (0.033)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.15*** (0.038)	0.13** (0.040)	0.083* (0.027)	0.10** (0.032)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.011 (0.028)	–0.011 (0.022)	0.042* (0.019)	0.043* (0.020)
Students' engagement in social media	0.071** (0.023)	–0.021 (0.020)	0.076*** (0.018)	0.060** (0.018)
Urban area	0.11 (0.072)	–0.089 (0.045)	–0.054 (0.042)	0.0012 (0.031)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	–0.0021 (0.030)	0.050* (0.024)	–0.0047 (0.018)	–0.056** (0.021)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.0041 (0.035)	–0.045 (0.027)	0.0056 (0.016)	0.0068 (0.017)
Average class student–teacher relations	–0.0060 (0.072)	0.0032 (0.055)	–0.047 (0.038)	0.020 (0.057)
Average class students' interaction	–0.082 (0.095)	–0.049 (0.060)	–0.030 (0.040)	–0.0043 (0.056)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.0078 (0.120)	1.60 (1.232)	–0.085 (0.115)	–0.038 (0.235)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.039 (0.065)	0.036 (0.054)	0.12** (0.043)	0.040 (0.056)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	–0.0073 (0.018)	–0.027 (0.026)	0.0052 (0.014)	–0.011 (0.020)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.028 (0.023)	0.028 (0.024)	0.0039 (0.012)	0.023 (0.021)
Students' participation at school	0.056* (0.021)	0.071* (0.029)	0.026* (0.013)	0.030 (0.018)
Students' active involvement in community	–0.0038 (0.035)	0.044 (0.049)	0.063** (0.021)	0.068 (0.038)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.25*** (0.023)	0.34*** (0.030)	0.19*** (0.018)	0.25*** (0.020)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	–0.13*** (0.025)	–0.28*** (0.025)	–0.044** (0.013)	–0.084*** (0.019)
Constant	3.72*** (0.596)	5.44*** (0.836)	3.52*** (0.464)	3.74*** (0.593)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A21. Students' expected active political participation (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	-0.014 (0.042)	-0.016 (0.028)	0.028 (0.037)	-0.026 (0.040)
Immigrants	0.025 (0.056)	0.11* (0.046)	-0.29** (0.109)	0.064 (0.087)
Female	-0.17*** (0.039)	-0.13*** (0.028)	-0.16*** (0.037)	-0.15*** (0.038)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.0043 (0.018)	0.036* (0.015)	-0.012 (0.021)	-0.015 (0.022)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.015 (0.044)	-0.019 (0.036)	0.014 (0.039)	0.072 (0.042)
Interest in political and social issues	0.16*** (0.040)	0.089* (0.037)	0.13** (0.038)	0.18*** (0.042)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.22*** (0.039)	0.16*** (0.040)	0.16*** (0.040)	0.088* (0.036)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	-0.0080 (0.029)	0.038 (0.022)	0.014 (0.025)	-0.027 (0.023)
Students' engagement in social media	0.11*** (0.021)	0.065** (0.020)	0.057** (0.020)	0.024 (0.018)
Urban area	-0.13** (0.047)	-0.0029 (0.034)	-0.060 (0.032)	-0.027 (0.037)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.039 (0.029)	0.026 (0.025)	-0.035 (0.020)	0.0069 (0.020)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	-0.084* (0.032)	-0.026 (0.020)	0.066* (0.032)	0.032 (0.031)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.016 (0.053)	0.044 (0.057)	0.037 (0.059)	0.024 (0.068)
Average class students' interaction	0.052 (0.049)	0.051 (0.061)	-0.043 (0.069)	0.12 (0.062)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.058 (0.118)	0.11 (0.144)	-0.83** (0.255)	-0.17 (0.258)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.18** (0.061)	0.0066 (0.049)	-0.063 (0.053)	0.19*** (0.046)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.034 (0.018)	-0.014 (0.020)	-0.011 (0.017)	-0.010 (0.020)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	-0.025 (0.021)	0.041* (0.021)	0.047** (0.016)	-0.012 (0.027)
Students' participation at school	0.057* (0.022)	0.050** (0.019)	0.047* (0.023)	0.10*** (0.024)
Students' active involvement in community	0.013 (0.038)	0.068 (0.035)	0.064 (0.036)	-0.0091 (0.040)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.28*** (0.024)	0.24*** (0.023)	0.28*** (0.024)	0.31*** (0.025)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	-0.14*** (0.028)	-0.083*** (0.021)	-0.27*** (0.028)	-0.19*** (0.026)
Constant	2.86*** (0.789)	2.94*** (0.526)	4.04*** (0.658)	2.70** (0.807)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A22. Students' expected active political participation (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	-0.078* (0.037)	0.049 (0.033)	-0.014 (0.041)	-0.044 (0.048)
Immigrants	0.11 (0.069)	-0.054 (0.067)	0.045 (0.054)	0.016 (0.056)
Female	-0.16*** (0.039)	-0.062 (0.036)	-0.042 (0.030)	-0.10*** (0.030)
National index of socioeconomic background	-0.0032 (0.017)	0.030 (0.019)	-0.031 (0.020)	0.0067 (0.017)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.038 (0.035)	-0.0039 (0.029)	0.030 (0.035)	-0.069 (0.043)
Interest in political and social issues	0.25*** (0.033)	0.095* (0.043)	0.12** (0.037)	0.13** (0.040)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.10** (0.032)	0.17*** (0.039)	0.21*** (0.042)	0.17*** (0.041)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.035 (0.023)	0.029 (0.022)	0.0075 (0.023)	0.035 (0.029)
Students' engagement in social media	0.10*** (0.020)	0.065** (0.022)	0.11*** (0.023)	0.072** (0.024)
Urban area	0 (.)	0.027 (0.046)	-0.010 (0.043)	-0.080 (0.054)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.00017 (0.030)	-0.017 (0.029)	-0.029 (0.033)	0.027 (0.030)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.010 (0.027)	-0.060* (0.026)	0.018 (0.027)	0.00011 (0.026)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.070 (0.085)	-0.17* (0.070)	-0.052 (0.072)	-0.083 (0.068)
Average class students' interaction	-0.081 (0.068)	0.11 (0.081)	-0.046 (0.089)	0.11 (0.070)
Share of immigrants in classroom	-0.030 (0.148)	0.024 (0.158)	-0.18 (0.120)	0.20 (0.145)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.100 (0.071)	0.055 (0.050)	0.18** (0.065)	0.13* (0.060)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.0081 (0.021)	-0.0043 (0.030)	0.0074 (0.028)	0.019 (0.023)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.0088 (0.021)	0.074** (0.024)	0.0056 (0.018)	-0.027 (0.022)
Students' participation at school	0.053** (0.018)	0.049* (0.019)	0.048 (0.024)	0.058* (0.022)
Students' active involvement in community	0.061 (0.037)	0.059 (0.041)	0.082* (0.039)	0.053 (0.038)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.34*** (0.015)	0.26*** (0.024)	0.23*** (0.020)	0.21*** (0.025)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	-0.19*** (0.018)	-0.035 (0.024)	-0.048 (0.026)	-0.095*** (0.025)
Constant	3.66*** (0.627)	2.34*** (0.615)	2.86*** (0.729)	3.13*** (0.834)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A23. Students' attitudes towards equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups (BE – FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	0.063 (0.034)	0.064 (0.057)	0.034 (0.038)	0.021 (0.049)
Immigrants	0.19** (0.058)	-0.078 (0.283)	0.37*** (0.045)	0.051 (0.102)
Female	0.10*** (0.030)	0.19*** (0.046)	0.080* (0.030)	0.27*** (0.040)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.016 (0.022)	-0.071* (0.028)	0.059** (0.018)	0.055** (0.020)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.016 (0.038)	0.011 (0.061)	0.085* (0.033)	0.11** (0.042)
Interest in political and social issues	0.0067 (0.042)	0.00014 (0.044)	0.027 (0.042)	0.049 (0.043)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.074* (0.037)	0.041 (0.040)	0.073* (0.035)	0.075 (0.042)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.0080 (0.030)	-0.035 (0.026)	0.069** (0.023)	-0.052* (0.025)
Students' engagement in social media	-0.0035 (0.021)	-0.041 (0.028)	-0.013 (0.022)	0.027 (0.023)
Urban area	0.13 (0.086)	-0.10 (0.069)	0.016 (0.074)	0.076 (0.051)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.0075 (0.032)	-0.024 (0.040)	-0.024 (0.031)	-0.024 (0.038)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.012 (0.026)	-0.012 (0.042)	-0.00071 (0.024)	0.018 (0.032)
Average class student-teacher relations	-0.035 (0.063)	0.099 (0.089)	0.094 (0.064)	0.11 (0.073)
Average class students' interaction	0.064 (0.089)	0.19* (0.086)	-0.017 (0.070)	-0.016 (0.094)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.043 (0.130)	2.12 (1.430)	0.58*** (0.159)	0.35 (0.278)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.066 (0.062)	0.034 (0.094)	0.048 (0.072)	0.13 (0.069)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.019 (0.021)	-0.074* (0.036)	-0.023 (0.023)	-0.016 (0.041)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.057** (0.021)	0.067** (0.024)	0.087*** (0.019)	0.14*** (0.025)
Students' participation at school	0.00057 (0.017)	0.0023 (0.023)	-0.0019 (0.023)	-0.00019 (0.025)
Students' active involvement in community	0.021 (0.040)	-0.040 (0.044)	0.041 (0.042)	0.0047 (0.054)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.19*** (0.027)	0.18*** (0.025)	0.096*** (0.025)	0.11*** (0.023)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.23*** (0.025)	0.14*** (0.031)	0.19*** (0.021)	0.34*** (0.027)
Constant	0.86 (0.898)	1.21 (0.984)	1.57 (0.808)	0.61 (1.039)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A24. Students' attitudes towards equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	0.048 (0.052)	-0.052 (0.031)	-0.0089 (0.041)	-0.064 (0.044)
Immigrants	0.033 (0.058)	0.40*** (0.047)	0.086 (0.130)	-0.12 (0.067)
Female	0.061 (0.039)	0.092** (0.027)	0.016 (0.034)	0.066 (0.035)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.016 (0.020)	0.057** (0.018)	0.015 (0.020)	-0.034 (0.020)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.084 (0.045)	-0.012 (0.038)	0.0096 (0.040)	0.038 (0.041)
Interest in political and social issues	0.066 (0.038)	-0.024 (0.034)	-0.10* (0.043)	0.038 (0.040)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.031 (0.041)	0.069 (0.038)	0.068 (0.038)	-0.014 (0.035)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	-0.060* (0.028)	0.011 (0.021)	0.013 (0.028)	-0.042 (0.022)
Students' engagement in social media	-0.013 (0.026)	-0.034 (0.018)	0.025 (0.019)	0.042* (0.018)
Urban area	-0.033 (0.061)	0.064 (0.045)	-0.054 (0.041)	0.16** (0.050)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.057 (0.034)	0.037 (0.030)	0.0061 (0.026)	0.054 (0.027)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.047 (0.031)	-0.0072 (0.018)	-0.0060 (0.046)	0.014 (0.032)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.037 (0.071)	0.15* (0.066)	-0.017 (0.071)	0.043 (0.112)
Average class students' interaction	0.032 (0.071)	0.064 (0.084)	0.15* (0.069)	0.16* (0.081)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.21 (0.212)	-0.12 (0.172)	-0.17 (0.279)	0.62* (0.245)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	-0.031 (0.069)	0.033 (0.064)	0.0045 (0.062)	0.062 (0.073)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.0025 (0.024)	-0.019 (0.023)	0.022 (0.021)	-0.011 (0.022)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.11*** (0.024)	0.17*** (0.020)	0.11*** (0.021)	0.093*** (0.021)
Students' participation at school	-0.0050 (0.028)	-0.026 (0.022)	0.035 (0.021)	-0.011 (0.026)
Students' active involvement in community	0.072 (0.042)	-0.057 (0.035)	-0.0085 (0.038)	0.047 (0.035)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.13*** (0.024)	0.073** (0.023)	0.11*** (0.023)	0.13*** (0.017)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.32*** (0.030)	0.26*** (0.019)	0.33*** (0.030)	0.23*** (0.027)
Constant	1.64 (0.895)	2.03*** (0.560)	1.48 (0.832)	1.88* (0.808)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A25. Students' attitudes towards equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	-0.10 [*] (0.041)	0.017 (0.035)	0.013 (0.047)	-0.039 (0.050)
Immigrants	0.26 ^{***} (0.054)	0.26 ^{**} (0.077)	0.18 ^{**} (0.056)	0.29 ^{***} (0.060)
Female	0.060 (0.034)	0.14 ^{***} (0.037)	0.21 ^{***} (0.037)	0.19 ^{***} (0.042)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.036 (0.018)	0.090 ^{***} (0.025)	0.028 (0.040)	0.00061 (0.021)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.097 [*] (0.038)	0.088 (0.051)	0.15 ^{***} (0.041)	0.028 (0.044)
Interest in political and social issues	0.061 (0.042)	0.071 (0.056)	0.0011 (0.049)	-0.061 (0.047)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.026 (0.035)	0.075 (0.042)	0.099 (0.051)	0.036 (0.040)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	-0.036 (0.026)	-0.025 (0.030)	0.040 (0.029)	-0.028 (0.032)
Students' engagement in social media	0.011 (0.017)	-0.020 (0.031)	-0.047 (0.031)	0.053 [*] (0.024)
Urban area	0 (.)	0.099 (0.071)	0.13 ^{***} (0.037)	0.14 (0.075)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	0.016 (0.032)	-0.066 (0.045)	0.015 (0.030)	0.12 ^{**} (0.032)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	-0.024 (0.034)	0.020 (0.039)	-0.015 (0.027)	-0.051 [*] (0.022)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.047 (0.067)	0.13 (0.088)	0.062 (0.064)	0.18 [*] (0.074)
Average class students' interaction	-0.086 (0.062)	0.099 (0.103)	0.18 ^{**} (0.060)	-0.076 (0.068)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.13 (0.150)	0.39 (0.197)	0.064 (0.116)	-0.34 (0.183)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.038 (0.049)	-0.024 (0.058)	-0.014 (0.063)	-0.076 (0.074)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0069 (0.016)	0.0082 (0.026)	0.011 (0.027)	0.017 (0.029)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.14 ^{***} (0.021)	0.088 ^{***} (0.024)	0.11 ^{***} (0.021)	0.14 ^{***} (0.022)
Students' participation at school	0.0050 (0.019)	0.0049 (0.020)	0.062 ^{**} (0.021)	0.020 (0.021)
Students' active involvement in community	0.042 (0.034)	0.084 [*] (0.039)	0.0076 (0.050)	0.053 (0.043)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.12 ^{***} (0.020)	0.14 ^{***} (0.030)	0.087 ^{***} (0.024)	0.053 (0.029)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.18 ^{***} (0.020)	0.24 ^{***} (0.030)	0.33 ^{***} (0.020)	0.23 ^{***} (0.025)
Constant	4.32 ^{***} (0.648)	1.35 [*] (0.663)	0.75 (0.821)	2.61 ^{**} (0.794)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A26. Students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants (BE – FI, BG, DK, FI)

	BE – FI	BG	DK	FI
Age	0.040 (0.034)	0.039 (0.048)	–0.025 (0.031)	0.0045 (0.046)
Immigrants	0.35*** (0.098)	0.063 (0.433)	0.50*** (0.045)	0.51*** (0.102)
Female	0.15*** (0.036)	0.15*** (0.042)	0.12*** (0.027)	0.30*** (0.036)
National index of socioeconomic background	–0.022 (0.020)	–0.072* (0.028)	0.046** (0.014)	0.068*** (0.018)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.036 (0.046)	–0.11 (0.054)	0.015 (0.025)	0.066 (0.037)
Interest in political and social issues	–0.100 (0.057)	–0.019 (0.046)	0.059 (0.033)	0.094* (0.036)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.11** (0.036)	0.00090 (0.035)	0.032 (0.032)	0.040 (0.041)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	0.054** (0.019)	0.016 (0.024)	0.017 (0.018)	–0.036 (0.020)
Students' engagement in social media	–0.012 (0.020)	–0.0098 (0.024)	–0.0070 (0.018)	0.039 (0.022)
Urban area	0.17** (0.062)	–0.010 (0.057)	0.084 (0.052)	0.13* (0.052)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	–0.012 (0.028)	0.023 (0.044)	–0.00082 (0.026)	–0.022 (0.037)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.045 (0.024)	–0.076 (0.041)	–0.0032 (0.023)	0.033 (0.029)
Average class student–teacher relations	0.017 (0.078)	0.035 (0.088)	0.056 (0.053)	0.18** (0.065)
Average class students' interaction	0.066 (0.063)	0.25** (0.073)	0.10 (0.053)	0.014 (0.092)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.14 (0.177)	0.37 (0.921)	0.42** (0.130)	0.87* (0.364)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	–0.0095 (0.076)	–0.036 (0.087)	0.066 (0.064)	0.031 (0.079)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	0.039 (0.021)	–0.0084 (0.027)	–0.0029 (0.019)	0.0043 (0.039)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.047 (0.025)	0.048 (0.025)	0.038** (0.012)	0.12*** (0.024)
Students' participation at school	0.020 (0.020)	0.0071 (0.022)	–0.0059 (0.016)	–0.047* (0.020)
Students' active involvement in community	0.0088 (0.037)	0.048 (0.042)	0.077* (0.032)	0.083 (0.049)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.10*** (0.028)	0.11*** (0.027)	0.046** (0.016)	0.056* (0.026)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.077** (0.025)	0.077** (0.027)	0.15*** (0.018)	0.22*** (0.023)
Constant	1.75* (0.766)	1.81* (0.832)	2.55*** (0.647)	1.30 (0.909)
Observations	2,931	2,895	6,254	3,173

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A27. Students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants (HR, IT, LT, LV)

	HR	IT	LT	LV
Age	-0.055 (0.046)	-0.097** (0.029)	0.062 (0.046)	0.0013 (0.041)
Immigrants	-0.037 (0.065)	0.60*** (0.059)	0.22 (0.125)	-0.0040 (0.071)
Female	0.15*** (0.038)	0.13*** (0.029)	0.083* (0.040)	0.13*** (0.035)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.015 (0.025)	0.016 (0.018)	-0.013 (0.016)	-0.049** (0.015)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.038 (0.044)	-0.027 (0.039)	0.028 (0.041)	-0.094* (0.038)
Interest in political and social issues	0.0060 (0.048)	-0.0066 (0.036)	-0.10** (0.036)	0.035 (0.040)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.028 (0.038)	0.076* (0.037)	0.014 (0.033)	0.037 (0.028)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	-0.060 (0.036)	-0.0030 (0.022)	-0.0091 (0.023)	-0.024 (0.023)
Students' engagement in social media	-0.028 (0.024)	0.0021 (0.014)	0.025 (0.022)	0.029 (0.017)
Urban area	0.029 (0.053)	0.11* (0.045)	0.0016 (0.036)	0.13** (0.047)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.055 (0.033)	0.089** (0.026)	0.043 (0.022)	0.018 (0.026)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	0.037 (0.044)	-0.019 (0.020)	-0.057 (0.034)	0.024 (0.042)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.14* (0.069)	0.20** (0.066)	0.11 (0.070)	0.086 (0.096)
Average class students' interaction	-0.030 (0.071)	0.0018 (0.077)	0.021 (0.066)	0.086 (0.075)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.090 (0.164)	-0.084 (0.170)	-0.13 (0.344)	0.75 (0.423)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	0.0020 (0.070)	0.12 (0.067)	-0.012 (0.074)	0.054 (0.081)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.0043 (0.022)	-0.0074 (0.024)	0.021 (0.023)	-0.0067 (0.026)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.10*** (0.023)	0.091*** (0.024)	0.081*** (0.022)	-0.010 (0.021)
Students' participation at school	-0.026 (0.025)	-0.022 (0.022)	0.012 (0.021)	-0.063** (0.021)
Students' active involvement in community	0.0065 (0.039)	0.043 (0.037)	-0.056 (0.043)	0.027 (0.038)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.12*** (0.024)	0.018 (0.022)	0.092*** (0.025)	0.065** (0.023)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.11*** (0.026)	0.12*** (0.022)	0.20*** (0.022)	0.17*** (0.026)
Constant	4.10*** (0.774)	2.84*** (0.531)	1.29 (0.761)	2.14* (0.813)
Observations	3,896	3,450	3,631	3,224

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A28. Students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants (MT, NL, SE, SI)

	MT	NL	SE	SI
Age	-0.074*	-0.051	0.026	0.044
	(0.036)	(0.035)	(0.049)	(0.051)
Immigrants	0.29***	0.64***	0.53***	0.22***
	(0.067)	(0.062)	(0.058)	(0.065)
Female	0.15***	0.11***	0.15***	0.15***
	(0.041)	(0.031)	(0.037)	(0.035)
National index of socioeconomic background	0.040*	0.071***	0.033	0.021
	(0.019)	(0.018)	(0.041)	(0.020)
Expected educational outcome (university)	0.068	-0.0082	0.065	-0.074
	(0.034)	(0.040)	(0.044)	(0.045)
Interest in political and social issues	-0.025	0.0029	0.080	0.0098
	(0.047)	(0.051)	(0.040)	(0.051)
Highest parental interest in political issues	0.034	0.061	0.098*	0.074
	(0.031)	(0.036)	(0.046)	(0.042)
Students' discussion of political and social issues outside school	-0.011	-0.017	0.086**	-0.030
	(0.024)	(0.021)	(0.031)	(0.030)
Students' engagement in social media	0.018	0.0039	-0.081*	0.0083
	(0.018)	(0.026)	(0.034)	(0.024)
Urban area	0	0.14**	0.11*	0.13*
	(.)	(0.048)	(0.055)	(0.062)
Principals' perceptions of poverty in the community	-0.020	-0.047	0.047	0.10**
	(0.030)	(0.037)	(0.040)	(0.031)
Principals' perceptions of social tensions in the community	-0.032	0.024	-0.10***	-0.046
	(0.025)	(0.029)	(0.030)	(0.024)
Average class student-teacher relations	0.12	0.11	0.15	0.031
	(0.063)	(0.075)	(0.095)	(0.082)
Average class students' interaction	-0.059	0.079	0.15	0.12
	(0.054)	(0.066)	(0.078)	(0.069)
Share of immigrants in classroom	0.12	0.11	0.38**	-0.13
	(0.103)	(0.170)	(0.131)	(0.186)
Average class student reports on civic learning at school	-0.0013	-0.011	0.054	-0.091
	(0.057)	(0.049)	(0.090)	(0.070)
Principals' perceptions of engagement of the school community	-0.035	0.015	0.021	0.024
	(0.021)	(0.016)	(0.030)	(0.027)
Students' perception of openness in classroom discussions	0.11***	0.063*	0.063**	0.12***
	(0.023)	(0.026)	(0.019)	(0.026)
Students' participation at school	0.0096	-0.025	0.011	0.022
	(0.018)	(0.016)	(0.020)	(0.021)
Students' active involvement in community	0.029	0.059	-0.011	0.077
	(0.033)	(0.036)	(0.051)	(0.042)
Citizenship self-efficacy	0.055**	0.10***	0.056*	0.035
	(0.017)	(0.021)	(0.026)	(0.025)
Civic and citizenship knowledge	0.047**	0.085***	0.18***	0.064**
	(0.017)	(0.022)	(0.019)	(0.023)
Constant	4.61***	3.22***	1.23	2.50**
	(0.554)	(0.597)	(0.945)	(0.895)
Observations	3,764	2,812	3,264	2,844

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Table A29. Proportion of native and immigrant students by EU Member State²⁸

	Natives	SE	Immigrants	SE
BE – FI	0.84	(0.016)	0.16	(0.016)
BG	1	(0.001)	0.0047	(0.001)
DK	0.91	(0.008)	0.086	(0.008)
EE	0.91	(0.007)	0.087	(0.007)
FI	0.97	(0.005)	0.035	(0.005)
HR	0.91	(0.009)	0.088	(0.009)
IT	0.89	(0.009)	0.11	(0.009)
LT	0.98	(0.003)	0.016	(0.003)
LV	0.96	(0.004)	0.041	(0.004)
MT	0.92	(0.004)	0.076	(0.004)
NL	0.91	(0.014)	0.085	(0.014)
SE	0.82	(0.016)	0.18	(0.016)
SI	0.85	(0.01)	0.15	(0.01)

Note: SE Standard Error

²⁸ Estonia was excluded from the multivariate analysis because of the very high percentage of missing values, and for Bulgaria the results from the multivariate analysis are not presented because of the very low number of immigrants in the sample.

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List of abbreviations

Country codes

BE-FI	Belgium - Flemish region
BG	Bulgaria
DE-NRW	Germany - North Rhine-Westphalia region
DK	Denmark
EE	Estonia
FI	Finland
HR	Croatia
IT	Italy
LT	Lithuania
LV	Latvia
MT	Malta
NL	The Netherlands
SE	Sweden
SI	Slovenia

Variable names

CITCON	Students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship
CITSOC	Students' perception of the importance of social-movement-related citizenship
CITRESP	Students' perception of the importance of personal responsibility for citizenship
INTRUST	Students' trust in civic institutions
ELECPART	Students' expected electoral participation
POLPART	Students' expected active political participation
ETHRGHT	Students' attitudes towards equal rights for all ethnic/racial groups
IMMRGHT	Students' attitudes towards equal rights for immigrants

Other

CCE	Civic and citizenship education
CCK	Civic and Citizenship Knowledge
ICCS	International Civic and Citizenship Survey
IEA	International Educational Association
MS	Member State(s)
OLS	Ordinary Least Square Regression

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